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2. Article Title:

Enjoyment of Work and Driven to Work as Motivations of Job Crafting: Evidence from Japan and China[1]

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Enjoyment of Work and Driven to Work as Motivations of Job Crafting:

Evidence from Japan and China

Abstract

This research contributes to our understanding of job crafting by investigating the role of enjoyment of work and driven to work as job crafting motivations. 154 Supervisor-Employee dyads were surveyed. Enjoyment of work and driven to work were supported as motivators of job crafting. An interaction effect was observed, with low driven to work weakening the relationship between enjoyment of work and job crafting. Job crafting mediated the relationship between the two motivators and job performance. We add to researchers' understanding of motivations for job crafting while making the first attempt to explore the job crafting phenomenon in East Asia.

Key Words: Job Crafting, Motivation, Workaholism.

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Work design research has concentrated on organizational efforts to structure employees' task environments (cf. Hackman & Oldham, 1974, 1980; Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). One core assumption of this research has been that the organization is best positioned to match people with jobs and tasks (Grant & Parker, 2009). Recent research, however, has begun investigating job crafting, through which individual employees develop or adjust the boundaries of the job's task, relational, and cognitive environments (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2015; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Through job crafting, individuals adjust the number, type, and meaning of tasks and relationships that make up their jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). As Grant and Parker (2009) indicate, the job crafting concept has led to renewed interest in proactive work design, and empirical research is emerging rapidly (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Morinaga, Suzuki, & Miya, 2015; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2015; Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013). Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, and Hetland (2012) have found that employees regularly engage in job crafting and Lyons (2006; 2008) indicates that roughly 75% of employees have engaged in job crafting. Research also indicates similarities in job crafting across different organizational levels (Berg, Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2010), by individuals and teams (Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013), and by white collar and blue collar employees (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012).

Job crafting can impact the physical task environment (i.e., number and type of tasks engaged in), the cognitive environment (i.e., employee perceptions of tasks engaged in), or the relational environment (i.e., number and type of job related relationships an employee

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has). The prevailing job characteristics model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1980) describes core job characteristics, including skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback. The JCM's implicit assumption is that the organization is responsible for job design, while employees' input is negligible (e.g., Grant, Fried, & Juillerat, 2010). In contrast, job crafting suggests that employees might take proactive steps to change their own job characteristics (e.g., Fried, Levi, & Laurence, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009; Grant et al., 2010). Employees may make changes resulting in increased skill variety, greater task identity, greater autonomy, or increased task significance. Given the importance of these physical job characteristics, we focus on crafting of the physical task environment, as reflected in increased levels of skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy, which should positively impact work outcomes (cf., Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Grant et al., 2010).

While there is growing evidence of the prevalence and importance of job crafting (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Lyons, 2006, 2008; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou, et al., 2015; Tims, et al., 2013) along with evidence that proactive individuals are more likely to engage in job crafting (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012), research concerning job crafting motivations has thus far concentrated on personality (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Petrou, et al., 2015). We consider how the intrinsic and introjected motivations described in Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000; van Beek, Hu, Schaufeli, Taris, & Schreurs, 2012; van den Broeck, Schreurs, De Witte, Vansteenkiste, Germeys, & Schaufeli, 2011), reflected in enjoyment of work and driven to work (Graves, Ruderman,

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Ohlott, & Weber, 2012; Spence & Robbins, 1992) can enhance our understanding of why employees are more or less likely to craft their jobs.

As Graves and colleagues (Graves et al, 2012) suggest, enjoyment of work and driven to work are similar to the intrinsic and introjected motivations introduced in self-determination theory. Driven to work represents an introjected work motivation, or a feeling that one "should" work, or of compulsion to work (Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000; Graves et al, 2012; McMillan, Brady, O'Driscoll, & Marsh, 2002). Graves et al (2012) make the distinction between this and the notion of a drive to achieve, and describe driven to work as a feeling of obligation to work. Enjoyment of work, as an intrinsic motivation, is rooted in finding work itself to be interesting or pleasurable (Graves et al, 2012; Johnstone & Johnstone, 2005; McMillan et al, 2002; Spence & Robbins, 1992).

Finally, it is important to note that job crafting has, to date, only been investigated in Western contexts and important questions remain as to how pervasive the practice might be in Eastern cultures. As such, we examined job crafting in Japanese and Chinese firms. Japan and China are collectivist, high context cultures (Hall, 1977), characterized by concerns for the in-group being put before concerns of the individual and by the individual considering how his or her decisions may impact the rest of the group (Chu, Spires, & Sueyoshi, 1999; Hofstede, 1984). Since an individual's job crafting efforts will surely impact others, collectivist cultures may promote job crafting as individuals consider the extent of impact on others of their job crafting before attempting their crafting initiatives (Chu et al, 1999). Without others' consent and/or cooperation, attempted changes an individual's job will likely fail. Moreover, in high context cultures (Hall, 1977), much meaning is communicated

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indirectly. Job descriptions tend to be less formalized, giving individuals leeway to make adjustments to their work (see, Ogasawara, 1998 for an example). However, the concern for in-group well-being and tendency to put the group's interests above those of the self that are characteristic of collectivist cultures may discourage individual job crafting, so the picture of how job crafting will generalize to collectivist cultures is mixed. These two perspectives suggest that the Japan and China contexts should provide a conservative test of job crafting related hypotheses.

Theory and Hypotheses

Enjoyment of Work as an Intrinsic Motivation for Job Crafting

Enjoyment of work is positively associated with passionate involvement in work (Buelens & Poelmans, 2004), increased job knowledge and mastery of complex situations (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001), and greater workload (Kanai & Wakabayashi, 2001) while lower enjoyment of work is associated with decreased innovativeness (Galperin & Burke, 2006). Employees with higher levels of enjoyment of work should be better able to recognize job crafting opportunities, while those with lower levels of enjoyment of work may not recognize such opportunities or be equipped to engage job crafting. An intrinsic motivation, enjoyment of work should be associated with engagement at work (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005) that may lead employees to search for ways to enrich and expand their task environments (Graves et al, 2012). We thus expect those with higher levels of enjoyment of work to engage in increased job crafting.

H1: Enjoyment of work will be positively related to job crafting.

Driven to Work as an Introjected Motivation for Job Crafting

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Individuals who are driven to work should job craft to satisfy an inner pressure to work (Spence & Robbins, 1992) born from feeling inner "shoulds" (Graves et al, 2012). Importantly, this drive is maintained by an internal fulfillment that comes from working rather than from external pressure (McMillan, et al, 2002). Driven to work is negatively related to delegation of responsibilities (Burke, 1999; Burke, Matthiesen, & Pallesen, 2006; Spence & Robbins, 1992). Also, the introjected nature of driven to work suggests that individuals higher on this motivation will feel compelled to work when not working or when noticing that work is not getting done. This suggests that individuals who are high on driven to work will be more likely to job craft to take on extra responsibilities that they feel will not be completed, or will not be completed as well as they could or should be, unless by themselves. The introjected nature of driven to work also suggests that employees high on this motivation will job craft extra responsibilities due to a feeling that they are the ones who should be doing this work. We thus expect those with higher levels of driven of work to engage in increased job crafting.

H2: Driven to work will be positively related to job crafting.

Driven to work and enjoyment of work are expected to interact (Graves et al, 2012), with low driven to work weakening the positive effect of enjoyment of work on job crafting. Above, we predict that both driven to work and enjoyment of work will be positively related to job crafting. Thus, those who both enjoy work and are driven to work, should job craft the most while those who do not like work and do not feel any drive to work, should job craft the least. In low enjoyment/high driven individuals, however, we expect that the introjected motivation of high driven to work will lead employees to see work that isn't being done, or

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could be done better, and take on this work out of a sense of duty or obligation. These employees may not enjoy work, but the feeling of obligation and compulsion to work will lead them to craft their jobs so that the work gets done. In high enjoyment/low driven individuals, a lack of inner pressure to work suggests that employees will be more likely to accept and enjoy their jobs as they are. This is suggestive of a weaker tendency to job craft when driven to work is low, even if enjoyment of work is high.

H3: Driven to work will moderate the relationship between enjoyment of work and job crafting such that the positive relationship between enjoyment of work and job crafting will be weaker when driven to work is low.

Job Crafting and Job Performance

While Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) did not specify propositions concerning the impact of job crafting on job performance, their examples of job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, 2003) suggest positive performance outcomes for the individual and organization. Lyons (2008) also suggests improved job performance as an expected outcome of job crafting in his model of the job crafting process while Kira, van Eijnatten, and Balkin (2010) suggest that job crafting can help improve employees' ability to perceive work in a systematic manner and understand the job's purpose and component parts. Job crafting allows for development and use of personal resources, resulting in "sustainable work" and positive contributions to the organization (Kira, van Eijnatten, & Balkin, 2010), which should be reflected in increased job performance. Finally, empirical work has emerged that links job crafting to job performance, with Leana, Appelbaum, and Shevchuk (2009) finding that collaborative job crafting is positively related to quality of childcare and Tims, Bakker, and

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Derks (2015) finding a positive relationship between job crafting, work engagement, and performance. Through jobs that are crafted to impact the core job characteristics, employees should work more efficiently or more autonomously, or engage in a greater variety of tasks at work. As a proactive behavior, the results of job crafting should be directly visible to supervisors and should thus be reflected in performance gains (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

H4: Job crafting will be positively related to employee performance.

This discussion implies the following moderated mediation hypothesis:

H5: The interaction of enjoyment of work and driven to work will result in job crafting that will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

The proposed theoretical model is pictured in Figure 1.

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Insert Figure 1 About Here

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Methodology

Sample and Data Collection

154 employee-supervisor dyads in five knowledge-based organizations in Japan (4) and China (1) participated in the study. Surveys were distributed to 279 employees and 37 supervisors. 163 employee surveys (response rate: 58.4%) and 35 of the supervisor surveys (response rate: 94.6%) were returned completed. Nine employee surveys and 1 supervisor survey were unusable due to missing data.

The first author (fluent in Japanese) visited each of the Japanese firms to distribute and collect surveys. The third author (a native Chinese speaker) distributed surveys to the

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Chinese firm. Surveys, instructions, and informed consent forms were produced in Japanese

and Chinese, as appropriate. Established Japanese and Chinese scales were used where

possible and scales were otherwise translated and back-translated following standard

procedures. Discrepancies were discussed and resolved by the research team and translators.

Unless indicated, participants were asked to respond to survey items using a 10-point Likert

response pattern in order to minimize cultural biases toward either neutral or extreme

responses (Hui & Triandis, 1989; Piccolo, Judge, Takahashi, Watanabe, & Locke, 2005;

Watkins & Cheung, 1995).

Measures

      Enjoyment of work and driven to work. Following Graves et al (2012), these

constructs were measured using McMillan et al's (2002) shortened version of the

workaholism battery (Spence & Robbins, 1992). To maintain consistency with past research

in Asia, we began with Kanai, Wakabayashi, & Fling's (1996) Japanese translations of these

items. Enjoyment of work was measured by 7 items including, "I do more work than is

expected of me strictly for the fun of it" and driven to work was measured by 7 items

including, "I seem to have an inner compulsion to work hard, a feeling that it's something I

have to do whether I want to or not" (note that two of the driven to work items were dropped

from the final scale – see the results section for a description). Cronbach's $\pm$ for these scales

was .90 and .74, respectively. These values exceed the levels of 0.85 and 0.70, which are

generally considered to be exceptional and acceptable, respectively, for research purposes

(Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Job Crafting. Was measured using 11 items modified from the Hackman and Oldham (1974) and Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller (1976) job characteristics scales, which focus on the physical aspects of the job (Laurence, 2010). We take this approach because job crafting "assumes that employees create [the job's] motivating potential by shaping" (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001: 188) the job's characteristics. Sample items from this scale are, "I have taken steps to increase the variety of skills and talents that I use at work" and, "I have taken steps to increase the extent of my decision latitude on how I do the tasks required for my job." The Chinese language version of this scale has been shown to have satisfactory convergent and criterion-related validity (Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014). Cronbach s ± was .92.

Job Performance. Was measured by each employee's supervisor using a 6-item scale developed by Fried and colleagues (Fried, Tiegs, Naughton, & Ashforth, 1996). Items asked supervisors to assess employees' performance compared to others and against professional standards. Sample items from this scale are, "Compared to others in similar positions, X's performance is far above average" and, "Often, X's performance level exceeds the expected standards for his/her job." Cronbach s ± was .77.

Nationality. Japan and China are both collectivistic compared to Western countries, but differ substantially on several cultural dimensions (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) and preferred conflict management styles (Kim, Wang, Kondo, & Kim, 2007). There may also be substantial differences between collectivistic cultures in terms of what lies behind individuals' collectivistic actions

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(Yamagishi, 1988). These findings support the use of nationality as a control variable in this study. Nation was coded as Japan = 0 and China = 1.

Supervisor. Because the supervisors rating employee performance in our sample provided ratings for an average of 4.5 employees, we computed the intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC(1)) using the method described by Bliese (1998). ICC(1) was .04 and below the level of .10 that Bliese suggests as a cut-off point below which a group member's rating of one subject would provide even a poor estimate of that member's rating of another subject. Despite this suggestion that we would not expect a supervisor level effect on performance rating, we decided to take a conservative approach and control for this possible supervisor effect just as we controlled for a possible nationality effect.

Organizational tenure. We controlled for organizational tenure because longer time spent working in a given organization may be associated with less job crafting (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) as employees closer to retirement might be expected to withdraw somewhat from their work (Fried, Grant, Levi, Hadani, & Slowik, 2007). On the other hand, longer time in an organization may be associated with more freedom to job craft as trust and leadership levels grow. Less time in an organization may be associated with getting feet wet in the job and making a number of substantive changes to get more comfortable. These perspectives suggest organizational tenure as an important control.

Gender. In less gender egalitarian societies such as China and Japan (Emrich, Denmark, & Den Hartog, 2004), men may have an advantage in job crafting as these societies allow women less influence in decision-making and have fewer women in leadership roles or positions of authority and more gender segregation in terms of occupational roles. These

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tendencies suggest gender as a control variable. Gender was dummy coded as $0 =$ male and $1 =$ female.

Education level. We expected that education level would be related to a degree of freedom to craft the job, with higher levels of education being associated with more job crafting. Education was coded as $1 =$ high school, $2 =$ vocational school, $3 =$ jr./community college, $4 =$ university, and $5 =$ graduate school.

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Data Analysis

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Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables are reported in Table 1. Many of the expected relationships are significant and in the anticipated direction. For example, enjoyment of work and driven to work are positively and significantly related to job crafting and job crafting is positively related to job performance. The magnitudes of these correlations did not suggest major problems with multicollinearity and tests of the variance inflation factors associated with the variables confirmed that this was not an issue (Belsley, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980).

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We used Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), SmartPLS 2.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) for our analyses for several reasons. First, PLS-SEM is widely used in behavioral research (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Palanski & Yammarino, 2011; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso, 2009) and is superior to regression analysis as it more

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rigorously examines measurement properties (important as some of the scales used here have not been thoroughly examined cross-culturally). Second, PLS-SEM is particularly capable at testing latent interaction effects (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017), a key to this study. Third, PLS-SEM produces more reliable estimates when the sample size is less than ideal (Hair et al., 2017; Sosik et al., 2009) and our sample size/number of indicators ratio is relatively small (especially when the product indicator approach is used to create the latent interaction term).

Measurement Properties

The PLS-SEM algorithm showed that two items in the driven to work scale were very weak. These were, "Between my job and other activities I'm involved in I don't have much free time" ($»=0.33$, n.s.) and, "I feel guilty when I take time off work" ($»=0.21$, n.s.). The recommended practice is to exclude these weak items from further analyses (Hair et al., 2017). However, before doing so, we carefully examined the validity of these two items in McMillan et al.'s (2002) paper. In Spence and Robbins' (1992) original workaholism battery, this first item about free time was a work involvement item, and not part of the driven to work scale. As such, this item's content validity is debatable. The item about guilt had the lowest factor loading (0.41) as reported by McMillan et al. (2002). Importantly, both items' factor loadings were among the lowest in their results. Clearly, these two items' low quality was not unique to our study. Thus, we felt it was appropriate to follow the common practice and exclude these two items from further analyses. In addition to the variables of interest (enjoyment of work, driven to work, job crafting, and supervisor-rated job performance), our

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measurement model also included the control variables of gender, nation, and supervisor (all dummy coded), organizational tenure, and education level.

We ran the resulting model using 5,000 resamples and results showed that all outer loadings were larger than cross-loadings, with the lowest outer loading being 0.48 (average »= 0.68 for driven to work, and average »= 0.76 for enjoyment of work) and significant ($p <$ 0.01). The composite reliabilities of all focal constructs were higher than 0.81, and the average variance extracted of each construct was higher than 0.50. These results indicated that the validities of the focal constructs were satisfactory.

Hypotheses Test Results

Structural model results are reported in Table 2. Enjoyment of work showed a significant impact on job crafting ($² = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H1. Consistent with H2, driven to work predicted job crafting ($² = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$). The interaction between enjoyment of work and driven to work significantly impacted job crafting ($² = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$; ΔR^2 due to interaction = 0.02, $p < 0.05$), supporting H3. As H4 posited, job crafting displayed a significant effect on performance ($² = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$). To test H5, we followed Hayes's (2015) approach and calculated the moderated mediation index. This index was significant (0.04, $p <$ 0.05), suggesting meaningful moderated mediation effects. The Stone-Geisser Q^2 statistics were larger than zero for the endogenous constructs, indicating that our model had predictive relevance.

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Insert Table 2 & Figure 2 About Here

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We plotted the interaction effect (Aiken & West, 1991) in Figure 2. Simple slope analysis revealed that when driven to work was one standard deviation above the mean, the slope was 0.40 ($p < 0.01$), but when it was at one standard deviation below the mean, the slope was marginal (0.12, $p = 0.08$). The indirect effect when driven-to-work was at one standard deviation above the mean was significant ($\beta = 0.07$, $p < 0.05$), and this indirect effect was marginal ($\beta = 0.04$, $p < 0.10$) when driven-to-work was at one standard deviation below the mean, consistent with H5.

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Discussion

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Implications for Theory

This research has indicated several points that add to our understanding of employees' motivations for job crafting and of how supervisors view the practice. First, the research indicated that enjoyment of work and driven to work play significant roles in motivating the job crafting process. Second, job crafting was shown to be a significant mediator of the relationship between employee motivation and job performance.

As expected, the intrinsic motivation of enjoyment of work and the introjected motivation of driven to work each indicated a positive main effect on job crafting. Further, these two motivations interacted in their relationship with job crafting, with low driven to work weakening the positive effect of enjoyment of work on job crafting. Employees who are relatively high on both driven to work and enjoyment of work were found to craft their jobs the most while the positive effect of enjoyment of work on job crafting was negated by low driven to work. This suggests that when employees high on enjoyment are less driven to work (i.e., lacking in inner pressure to work or feelings of compulsion to work) they are less

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likely to pick up extra tasks to do, to look for ways to increase their autonomy, or make more changes to their jobs to increase their responsibility or impact, even though they like working. It may be that the effort and persistence associated with increasing the job responsibilities decrease the motives and willingness of individuals who already enjoy their work to be engaged in job crafting.

Another finding of note concerns job crafting's role in transmitting effects of enjoyment of work and driven to work to job performance. While the indirect effect of enjoyment of work through job crafting on job performance was stronger when driven to work was high, this indicates the importance of job crafting in translating employee motivation into proactive behavior that will be reflected in supervisor ratings of performance. Employees who both enjoy their work and feel an inner drive to work will engage in proactive job crafting behaviors that result in changes to their jobs that supervisors will see as impacting performance (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009) whether through pure effectiveness or increased efficiency (Lyons, 2008). When employees are lacking the inner drive to work, the tendency to engage in these behaviors is reduced and supervisors take notice.

Strengths, Limitations, and Further Directions for Future Research

This study adds to the job design literature through investigation of job crafting in the previously unexplored contexts of Japan and China. Given the collectivistic nature of these cultures we believe these contexts provided a rigorous test of our hypotheses and serve to increase our confidence in the validity of our findings and in the generalizability of job crafting. Another strength of this research is our use of data from multiple sources. While

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organizational policies precluded access to truly objective performance data, use of supervisor ratings of performance reduces concerns related to common method bias.

As with any research, this paper has limitations. However, these suggest avenues for future research concerning job crafting and its motivations. The chief limitation to this research is the cross-sectional nature of the study. Since the data collected for the study was collected at only one time, we are precluded from making causal inferences as to the findings. For example, while we do not reject the notion that the act of job crafting has an impact on employee motivation (Morinaga, Suzuki, & Miya, 2015), we do believe that as job crafting is a voluntary act by employees that requires high levels of energy and commitment, that we should expect those who make the effort to job craft first be intrinsically and introjectedly motivated to do so. In any event, longitudinal studies should be carried out to further investigate and provide clarity for this potentially reciprocal relationship. Longitudinal studies can also help us to understand the degree to which more or less job crafting occurs over time, whether job crafting leads to more job crafting, and whether variables unmeasured here such as employee creativity, conscientiousness, and perfectionism may serve as mediators between the motivation to job craft and the act of job crafting itself. Similarly, future researchers are encouraged to investigate how organizational factors such as hierarchy and formalization might serve as moderators, potentially weakening the relationships between motivation and job crafting or between job crafting and supervisors' ratings of performance.

A second potential limitation revolves around the decision to pursue the research in the Japanese and Chinese contexts. It was not our intent to establish that job crafting is more

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or less prevalent in Japan and China than in Western contexts, but we are encouraged by the results here, which show that job crafting does occur in Japan and China. For several reasons, we suspect that job crafting occurs more often and possibly results in larger changes to jobs in the West than in the East. Both Japan and China can be seen as countries with low levels of job mobility compared to the United States (Lindsay & Dempsey, 1985; Ono, 2010; Shimizutani & Yokoyama, 2009). Given this, employees may expect to remain with their organizations over the very long term and this might inflate job crafting levels (i.e., if employees in Japan and China perceive limited options in terms of job mobility and believe they can't, won't, or shouldn't find new challenges in other organizations, the likelihood of job crafting as a response may increase). We believe, however, that these potential criticisms of the Japanese and Chinese contexts are greatly outweighed by the benefits to our understanding of job crafting in non-Western contexts. This points to a need for future research that examines job crafting across several cultures and works to tease apart the differences that are likely to be observed, whether due to varying levels of different cultural values (Hofstede, 1984) or relative tightness and looseness (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006), of the cultures examined.

Implications for Practice

For managers, this research suggests that predictions can be made as to who in a workgroup can be expected to job craft and to what degree. Employees higher and lower in enjoyment of work and driven to work exhibited different levels of job crafting. Given the high level of congruence between individuals' and others' assessments as to enjoyment of and driven to work (Burke & Ng, 2007), managers should be able to anticipate employees'

tendencies to job craft. The ability to predict who may job craft more and less has implications for personnel and staffing decisions. Managers may wish to place potential job crafters together in self-managing work teams and allow these groups to rearrange work tasks and processes. Alternatively, when work requires strict adherence to step by step processes, managers may want to staff teams with those less likely to job craft.

This research also raises the question of whether there are optimal configurations of workers with varying motivations to work within workgroups where distribution of tasks over time is considered. Organizations may wish to consider implications for recruiting and selecting employees who are higher or lower enjoyment of work or driven to work. For example, start-up organizations or organizations in very dynamic industries may prefer a mix of workers more geared toward job crafting. Also, the finding that job crafting impacts job performance has implications for performance appraisal systems, suggesting that these should be developed with an understanding that job crafting changes the job that the employee is being rated upon.

Conclusion

We view the major theoretical contributions of this research as coming in a) formally explicating the role that the intrinsic and introjected motivations of enjoyment of work and driven to work play in motivating individuals to job craft, b) linking job crafting to employee performance, and c) showing the relevance and effect of job crafting in the East Asian context. As noted at the outset, we viewed a discussion of employee motivations behind job crafting to be an important step in the development of our understanding of this phenomenon.

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This provides us a deeper understanding of how employees interact with their jobs and what steps certain employees may take to satisfy their feelings of driven to work.

Disclosure of Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	0.28	0.45	-							
2. Nation	0.35	0.48	.09	-						
3. Org. Tenure	6.34	7.19	-.26*	-.47*	-					
4. Education	3.75	0.94	-.05	.12	-.35*	-				
5. Enjoyment of Work	4.61	1.61	.10	.19	-.24*	.29*	-			
6. Driven to Work	5.43	1.38	.15	.14	-.12	-.00	.26*	-		
7. Job Crafting	5.90	1.62	.09	-.18	-.12	.18	.47*	.22*	-	
8. Job Performance	6.06	1.29	.17	-.08	-.03	.13	.16	-.08	.24*	-

Notes. $N = 154$; Chronbach's alphas are indicated on the diagonal where appropriate.

* $p<0.05$

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Table 2

Tests of Hypotheses and Predictive Relevance

		Estimate	95% CI
	Direct effect		
H1	Enjoyment ' Crafting	0.26**	(0.13, 0.38)
H2	Driven ' Crafting	0.33**	(0.21, 0.44)
H4	Crafting ' Performance	0.24**	(0.05, 0.42)
	Interaction effect		
H3	Enjoyment × Driven ' Crafting	0.14*	(0.04, 0.25)
	ΔR^2 due to interaction	0.02*	
	Indirect effect		
	Enjoyment' Crafting' Performance	0.06*	(0.01, 0.12)
	Moderated mediation effect		
H5	Index of moderated mediation [a]	0.04*	(0.005, 0.09)
	Driven = 1SD above the mean	0.07*	(0.01, 0.14)
	Driven = 1SD below the mean	0.04	(-0.00, 0.10)
	Predictive relevance Q^2 of endogenous constructs		
	Crafting	0.15	
	Performance	0.05	

Note. Bootstrap resamples = 5,000.
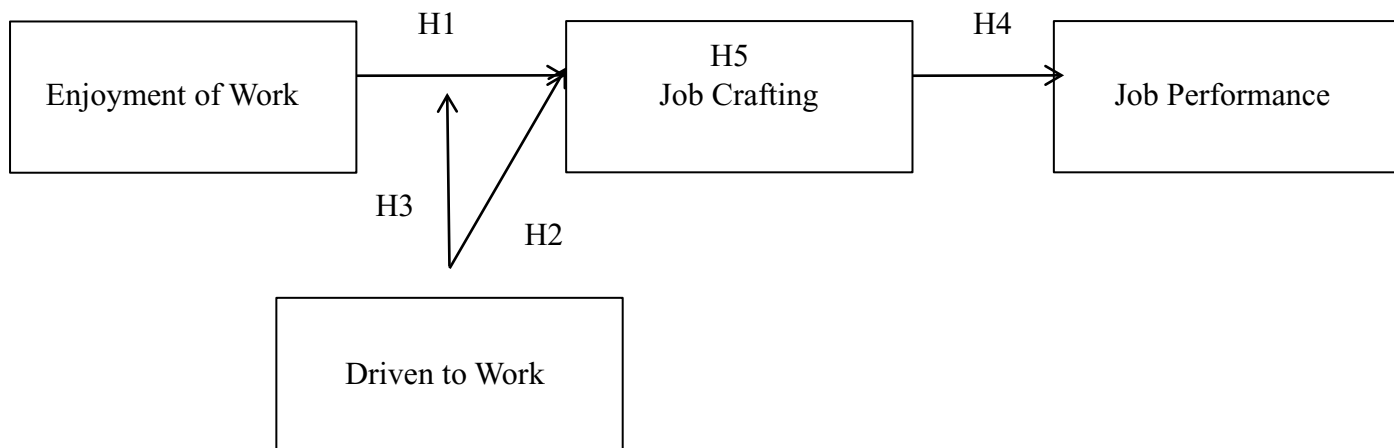
a. Calculation based on Hayes (2015).
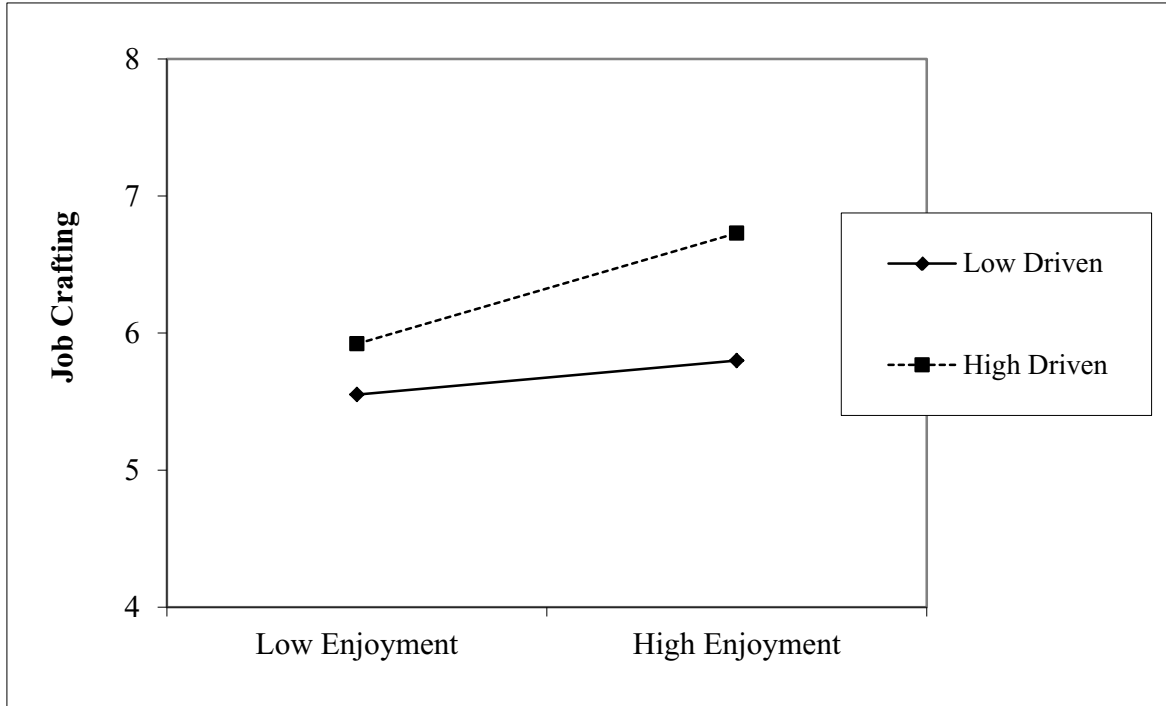
p<0.05, **p*<0.01.

Figure 1   Theoretical Model

Figure 2

Interaction of Enjoyment of Work and Driven to Work on Job Crafting