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Do the employees and the employers equally benefit?

A Meta-analysis of the outcomes of job crafting and idiosyncratic deals.

Susan E. Achieng

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First Supervisor: Dr. Jeroen Meijerink

Second Supervisor: Dr. Ir Jan de Leed

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ABSTRACT

Researchers have provided evidence then when workers are given a say in shaping their work experiences or when workers proactively initiate the changes they make to their jobs, the resulting outcomes are beneficial to both the employees and the organization. In recent years, employees have come to question the meaningfulness of their work. The aim of this meta-analysis is to determine if the employees and the organization equally benefit from job crafting and idiosyncratic deals. In order to do so, a meta-analysis of the outcomes of job crafting and those of i-deals was conducted from 11 job crafting empirical studies and 14 i-deal studies. The results show that employees and employers equally benefit from granted i-deals. However when it comes to job crafting, the employee benefits as a result of task crafting is stronger than the organizational benefits. There is equal benefits for relational crafting and of job crafting in general.

CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW

Introduction.

In today's business environment, employees are no longer passive recipients of job designs, but instead they take more initiative in shaping their jobs. The active role individuals play in shaping their own work and employment conditions has garnered considerable attention from both scholars and management press (Hornung, Rousseau, Weigl, Müller & Glaser, 2014). Gone are the days when managers designed jobs for individual employees who then performed their jobs according to the specified job design. Challenging the long-standing notions of standardization in human resource management, employees in today's workplaces have different work arrangements from their peers either by self-initiative or by agreements with the employer. The degree to which this customization is equally beneficial to individuals and the employees is the focus of this study.

Employers have been facing increased competitive pressures to attract and retain talent. In addition to this, there has been increased worker expectation to have a say in shaping their work experiences (Rousseau, 2005). In general, work in organizations is done in ways that are often different from the job descriptions, manuals or training programs. Describing work through formal job descriptions misses important employee-enacted behaviours that reflect the unique ways in which different employees enact their work. Some of the reported benefits

that employees and organizations could enjoy as a result of proactive employee behaviour in shaping their jobs include higher levels of work engagement, enhanced meaning of work, improved job performance, increase job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

This study will focus on two proactive employee behaviour, namely job crafting and idiosyncratic deals. Job crafting has been described as the ways in which employees take an active role in initiating changes to the physical, cognitive or social features of their jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton 2001). Idiosyncratic deals, also called i-deals are personalized employment arrangements negotiated between individual workers and employees and intended to benefit them both. (Lai, Rousseau and Chang 2009). The reason for choosing these two practises is because even though they are both proactive employee behaviours, the manner in which they are implemented differ. Whereas Job crafting is an informal, proactive behaviour driven by an employee so as to align with their personal needs, interests and values, idiosyncratic deals are negotiated between the employee and the supervisor and an agreement is reached which is expected to benefit both parties (Slemp, & Vella-Brodrick, 2013).

The extant literature on social innovation initiatives have mainly focused on the degree to which these intervention provide benefit for both parties involved (Meijerink, 2014). For example Marescaux, De Winnie & Sels (2012) studied the outcomes of soft HRM practices specifically on the satisfaction of basic needs for the employee, (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, (2012) explored the determinants of daily job crafting on work engagements, while (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angere, & Weigl, (2010) focused on whether idiosyncratic deals foster employee well-being. Researchers have however remained silent on whether the said benefits are equal to the employee and the employer.

Even though research on job crafting and i-deals has been prolific, rarely has it been synthesised to draw conclusion about their true impact at individual level and at organizational level. This study adds to the proactive behaviour literature by having a side by side comparison between not only the employee and organizational outcomes, but also between the two concepts of job crafting and i-deals. Tims, Bakker and Derks (2012) stated that all studies on job crafting that had been published till 2012 with few exceptions (Ghitulescu, 2007; Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) were either theoretical (e.g. Fried, Grant, Levi, Hadani, & Slowik, 2007; Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2001) or qualitative in nature (e.g., Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2008; Lyons, 2008). As for idiosyncratic deals, Liao, Wayne and Rousseau very recently (2014) carried out the first quantitative synthesis of all 23

empirical studies to date. They have echoed similar concerns about the relatively small number of studies and suggest that more empirical research studies should be conducted.

The aim of this study is to highlight findings with an eye towards stimulating generative studies and integrative conceptual frameworks. I hope that this synthesis will help to sustain and further fuel renewed interest in job crafting and i-deals, attracting the attention of researchers who specialize in other topics.

Research Question

The primary research question guiding this study is as follows;

Do individual employees and the organizations equally benefit from job crafting and idiosyncratic deals?

A meta-analysis is the method of choice for this advancing topic owing to the many potential outcomes of job crafting and idiosyncratic deals. To assess this many outcomes in one empirical study would require a lot of time and resources which is a constraint at this time.

Significance of the study

Relatively few major steps have been taken to break theoretical and empirical ground to orient job crafting and i-deal research toward fresh new topics and phenomena (Grant, Fried, Parker, & Frese 2010). The purpose of this study is to review the job crafting and i-deals literature to date and to open up new theoretical opportunities for understanding the effect of job design to individuals and organizations. This study could act as a motivation to scholars to refocus on social innovative interventions as a major area of research in the emerging and increasingly complex world of work. Given that there are no previous studies which have examined whether job crafting and i-deals equally benefits the employees and the organizations, as a first, this study proposes a future research with other forms of job redesign.

Secondly, there are many resulting outcomes already identified from the various empirical studies that have already been conducted. The information available is not only much but it is also scattered in various journals. To many interested parties like managers, practitioners and scholars the amount of information could be overwhelming and the lack of expert knowledge

could lead to poor choices. This scattered information when consolidated within a meta-analysis provides a clearer and more consistent picture.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL REVIEW

Work plays a significant role in nearly everyone's life and can positively or negatively impact an individual's life. Whether work has a starring role or a villain role in one's life largely depend on the dynamic interplay between the individual, the organization and the work itself (Wrzesniewski 2003). The availability of a well-designed jobs and optimal working conditions facilitate employee motivation and performance. Traditionally, work design researchers assumed that managers were responsible for structuring jobs for employees to carry out (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Challenging the long-standing notions of standardization in human resource management, employees are increasingly playing an active role in the negotiation and crafting of their jobs so as to meet their needs and preferences (Rousseau, Hornung & Kim, 2009). Standardized employment arrangements refer to "work done on a fixed schedule full time at the employers place of business, under the employer's control, and with mutual expectations of continued employment" (Liao, Wayne, Rousseau, 2014). Nonstandard work arrangement lack one or more of the attributes of the standard work. Job crafting and idiosyncratic deals are examples of nonstandard yet innovative employment arrangements that will be the focus of this study. Scholars studying job crafting have explored proactive steps that employees take to modify the physical, relational and cognitive boundaries of their works. On the other hand, scholars studying idiosyncratic deals have investigated how employees take initiative to propose and discuss personalized employment arrangements with managers and supervisors (Grant & Parker, 2009).

Job crafting and idiosyncratic deals are social innovative practises said to benefit both individual employees and the organization. However, researchers have not yet explicitly tested whether job crafting and idiosyncratic deals are equally beneficial to both parties. Because job crafting and idiosyncratic deals differ in the manner in which they are executed, this paper hypothesises that job crafting will benefit the employee more than the organization whereas i-deals are likely to equally benefit the individual employee and the organization. Job crafting being a proactive self-initiated actions by the employee for their own benefit whereas ideals are agreements initiated by either the employee or the employer for mutual benefit.

This theoretical review section is structured as follows; first the core idea of the concept of job crafting is introduced followed by the different conceptualizations and motivations of job crafting. I will explore some key empirical research findings on the individual and organizational outcomes of job crafting. In the present study, job crafting will be conceptualized as an individual strategy rather than a group or organizational process. Collective or team job crafting is therefore left out. Lastly, I elaborate on important theories that help understand how job crafting is likely to benefit the employee more than the employer. Based on this literature, I conclude by proposing that employees obtain higher levels of benefits from job crafting in comparison to the employer. The second part of this chapter will follow the same structures as for job crafting by first exploring the concept of idiosyncratic deals, types of i-deals and some outcomes from empirical research to date. I will then use the social exchange theory to help understand the reciprocal nature of ideals. This part will also be concluded with a hypothesis which states that employees and the organization will equally benefit from idiosyncratic deals.

Job crafting

The term job crafting has been researched by different scholars since its inception by the authors Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). Scholars studying job crafting have explored the proactive steps that employees take to modify the cognitive, physical and relational boundaries of their work (Grant & Parker, 2009). Job crafting is a creative and improvised process not necessarily oriented toward improving task performance, helping others or supporting organizational goals (Ghitulescu, 2007). Employees are said to engage in job crafting because they are seeking to experience more meaningfulness in their jobs (Wrzesniewski and Dutton 2001). Other authors have also expressed similar arguments about employees seeking meaningfulness in their work. Ryan & Deci (2001), state that the ultimate goal of human beings is to pursue meaning in work and non-work lives and that promoting intrinsic motivation is central to helping people achieve this meaning. Job characteristic theory initiated by Hackman and Oldham (1976) hypothesized that three motivational characteristics namely skill variety, task identity, and task significance impact work outcomes through experienced meaningfulness

Although the studies on job crafting differ slightly from one another, most models involve three general stages. The first stage is whereby employees are motivated to craft their job by

one or more factors, the second is when the employee identifies the opportunity available to them and enact one or more ways of crafting their job and the final stage is when the crafting techniques are associated with outcomes for the job crafter (Rickli, 2010). Since this study is motivated by the idea that employees and the employers differ in the benefits accrued from job crafting, the focus of this paper is on the final stage of job crafting, the outcomes of job crafting.

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001, p. 180) introduced the concept of job crafting in order to "...capture the actions employees take to shape, mould and redefine their jobs. Job crafters are individuals who actively compose both what their job is physically by changing a jobs' task boundaries, what their job is cognitively by changing the way they think about the relationships among job tasks and what their job is relationally by changing the interactions and relationships they have with others at work." Job crafting therefore refers to the spontaneous, unsupervised changes in jobs which are initiated by employees in order to redesign their own jobs so as to align with their idiosyncratic interests and values (Grant & Ashford 2008). The term job has been defined as the collections of tasks and relationships that are grouped together and assigned to an individual (Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton & Berg, 2013). Job crafting is positive to the employee because of the possibility to make changes according to their needs and wishes. The changes made when job crafting are initiated by the employee and most of the time job crafting are hidden from management (Lyons, 2008). So basically the job crafter is trying to fulfil their personal needs only. Fulfilment of personal needs does not necessarily result to fulfilment of organizational needs. Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) in their study did not specify whether job crafting is necessarily positive or negative for the organization and the employees' sense of meaning or identity in their work. As a result, there is little theory to explain the mechanisms through which job crafting is likely to cultivate a more positive sense of meaning and identity for employees on the job and consequently for the organization (Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton & Berg, 2013). Whether the changes made when job crafting are good or bad for the organization depends on the situation and the change itself (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Because of this, it is not clear if the employee and organizations equally benefit as a result of employees crafting their jobs.

Employees have the latitude to craft their jobs, from the most routine to the most complex jobs, and from the highest tiers of an organization. A job crafter proactively changes the boundaries that comprise their jobs. Boundaries are the mental fences that people use to order

and define limits around physical, temporal, emotional, cognitive and/or relational entities. Wrzesniewski and her colleagues (2001, 2003) propose three ways of how job crafters shape the boundaries that define their jobs. Below are the three types of job crafting that have been identified in literature.

The types of job crafting:

Task crafting:

Task crafting refers to the changes a job crafter makes to the physical or temporal boundaries around the bundle of tasks that they consider to be their job. Employees may shape the tasks they perform in terms of its content, the number of tasks performed, the duration of the tasks performed and the sequence in which the tasks are performed. These changes can be two directional. An individual can either expand their job to include additional responsibilities or narrow their job to the minimum necessary to get the job done. For example, an employee could ask for different tasks at work that require new skills because they feel that the job is becoming monotonous (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013).

Relational crafting:

Job crafters can redefine the relational boundaries that define the interpersonal interaction involved in performing their jobs. In this case employees may create and/or sustain relationships with others. An example of relationship crafting is when a marketing analyst forms a relationship with someone in sales in order to better understand the impact of his work on salespeople. The employees are basically changing the amount/or quantity of social interactions with other people they encounter at work. They can also alter the number and nature of the relationships they form with others while they carry out their work. The pattern of relationship and priority for certain meetings may shape the job and the outcomes of the job. A study by Luthans (1988) showed that different patterns of relationships at work lead to different results in the effectiveness and success of the job (Rickli, 2010).

Cognitive crafting

Job crafters can reframe the cognitive boundaries that ascribe meaning or purpose to the tasks and relationships that comprise their job. Cognitive crafting consists of employee's efforts to perceive and interpret their tasks, relationships or job in ways that change the significance of

their work. For example a school janitor who thinks of their job as enabling education by providing clean, distraction free classroom for students. They could choose to view their job as a set of discrete task or as a collective whole having a broader significance for the colleagues or the organization (Ghitulescu, 2007). Knowing how the practical deeds of a specific job fit in the whole process may help to commit an employee to the job (Rickli, 2010).

The three types of job crafting are not mutually exclusive and often operate in conjunction with, reinforce and give rise to one another (Rickli, 2010). Job crafters may exercise any combination of the three.

Since its introduction in 2001, empirical research has examined the prevalence and role of job crafting in employees lives and the impact it has on organizations. Individuals are said to engage in job crafting to create a better fit between their job and their preferences, skills and abilities (Tims, Bakker and Derks 2012). Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) theory of job crafting states that employee craft their jobs when they are motivated to change their views of the meaning of their work, their work identities or both. Although the research on the outcomes of job crafting is still in its infancy, there are some interesting empirical findings (Tims, et al., 2012). In this section I will explore the outcomes of job crafting as mentioned in various quantitative studies.

Employee Outcomes of Job crafting.

Job satisfaction

One of the most widely used definition of job satisfaction in organizational research is that of Locke (1976) who defined it as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from ones appraisal of their job or job experiences. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) proposed that job crafters are satisfied workers as job crafting represents a way to enhance ones experienced meaning at work. One of the key aspects of job crafting is that it changes the cognitive meaning of work and tasks and relationships. Cognitive crafting allow individuals to reframe the purpose of their job in broader terms (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job rafters are likely to alter their jobs in a manner that increase the purposefulness and meaning of what they do at work. This in turn will increase their level of satisfaction. Individuals who craft their jobs are also more likely to feel committed to their own task strategies and the decisions

they make in their work. When individuals are committed to what they do, they are likely to experience increased levels of job satisfaction.

Well being

Well-being refers to the presence of optimal psychological functioning. (Slemp & Villa-Brodrick 2013). Well-being can be further divided into subjective well-being and psychological well-being. A number of studies have shown that the work environment can have a major effect on an employee's well-being and psychological experiences. Employees are said to be able to impact their own well-being and alter how they experience their job and give it a new meaning. They do so by crafting their job demands and resources and by changing the social and task components of their jobs (Tims, Bakker & Derks 2013) Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, and Berg 2013). Berg, Grant, and Johnson (2010) investigated how employees craft their jobs in response to having unanswered occupational calling. They found that employees who incorporated the tasks of the unanswered callings into their current jobs experienced the sort of pleasant psychological state of enjoyment and meaning that they originally associated with pursuing their unanswered callings. The pleasant psychological state of enjoyment and meaning positively contributes to the well-being of the employee.

Person-job fit

Job crafting is different from previously studied proactive constructs because the changes that job crafters make are primarily aimed at improving their person job fit and work motivation. This does not necessarily have to lead to an increase in organizational effectiveness (Demerouti and Bakker, 2015). Person-environment fit has been broadly defined as the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched. (Kristof, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). A misfit between a person and the environment will result in tension which could incline the person to change their work environment (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Job crafting is said to be motivated by the lack of fit with the job. It is beneficial to the employee when they are able to craft their job to a perfect fit.

Work Engagement.

Work engagement can be described as a positive fulfilling, work related state of mind. It has been characterized by three strategies, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli,

Salovana, González-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Vigour refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience shown by an individual when working. It is the willingness on the part of the employee to invest effort in their work and exhibit persistence when faced with difficulties. (Schaufeli et al. 2002). Dedication is defined by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge while absorption refers to when an individual applies full concentration and is happily engrossed in ones work. In this case one has difficulties detaching themselves from work. (Ghitulescu, 2007). Engaged employee are said to have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work and activities and they see themselves as being able to deal with the demands of their job.

Organizational outcomes job crafting.

Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the psychological bond an employee has for the employer. There are 3 distinctions of commitment identified by Allen and Meyer (1990); affective commitment which denotes an emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization, Continuance commitment which denotes the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization while normative commitment reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization. (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.14). Organizational commitments are said to capture workers reaction's to their employment relationships and to be an influential predictor of many job attitudes and behaviours (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Particular focus is affective organizational commitment which refers to an employees' emotional attachment to, involvement in, and identification with, their employees (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Committed employees will be less inclined to leave the organization because of the obligation that they feel towards the organization. With the current competition in business, employers are faced with the challenge of retaining employees, organizational commitment is most welcomed by the organization.

Reduced Turn over intentions

Tett and Meyer, (1993, p. 262) define turn over intentions as “the conscious and deliberate willingness to leave an organization.” Employee turnover affects performance directly by

decreasing the willingness to perform effectively and indirectly by increasing turnover which subsequently affects performance negatively (Zimmerman and Arnold, 2009). When job crafting results into positive effects to the employee, the employees are disinclined to leave the organization for self-serving reasons (Grant & Parker 2009). The organization thus benefits by retaining the employee which is a current challenge and goal of many organisations in the current global market.

Organizational citizenship behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been defined as the individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ 1988). He suggested that OCB contains five factors. The initiative to help others which is referred to as altruism; conscientiousness which is going beyond the job requirements in order to comply with the organizational rules; courtesy which is described as the avoidance of problems at work and reminding and informing others in advance; civic virtue which is described as remaining attentive and proactive at work and finally sportsmanship which refers to the ability to tolerate trivial matter without complaining and obeying the rules of the organization.

Empirical research found evidence that organizational citizenship behaviour are conducive to enhanced individual performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). Organizational citizenship behaviour is relational in nature, being focused generally on helping others in the organization and has potential improvement in the performance of the job crafter as well as the performance of others in the organization. For example, organizational citizenship behaviour includes generating new ideas for doing work, volunteering to help others with their work, being cheerful and supportive, and cooperating with others at work (Ghitulescu, 2007). This is beneficial to the organization.

Improved Job performance

Job performance has been defined as the total expected value to the organizations of discrete behaviours that an individual carries out over a standard period of time. (Tims, Bakker & Derks 2013) theoretically frame the definition of job crafting in the Job Demands-Resource (JD-R) Model. They define job crafting as the changes that employees may make in order to balance their job demands and job resources with their abilities and needs. Drawing from JD-R model, each work characteristics is expected to yield a specific individual work outcome,

Job autonomy which is a job resource has been associated with motivational process, with high performance as a major outcome (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Individuals craft their jobs in order to make it 'fit'. Job crafting being spontaneous, unsupervised changes in a job initiated by an employee to satisfy their own personal needs and not necessarily the needs of the organization, I expect that the positive benefit to the job crafter would be more significant than the benefit to the organization. Employees will be inclined to do what suits their needs best without thinking of what consequence this might have on the organization. Based on this argument, I propose the following;

Hypothesis 1

The positive effect of individual job crafting on employee outcomes is stronger than its effects on organizational outcomes.

Idiosyncratic deals

Contrary to the job crafting theory, employees do not always craft their jobs in isolation from supervisors. In the past decade, researchers have noticed that employees were negotiating changes in the roles and job descriptions with supervisors. Rousseau and colleagues spearheaded the development and tests of a theoretical model that captures this process. Idiosyncratic deals refer to the special terms of employment of a non-standard nature that are negotiated between individual workers and their employers (present or prospective) that satisfy both parties. Rousseau (2001) defined idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) as "voluntary, personalized agreements of a nonstandard nature negotiated between individual employees and their employers regarding terms of benefit for each party" (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). I-deals are said to emerge when employees have unique skills that merit additional compensation, special arrangements, or when employees have unique life circumstances that requires flexible working times, methods or locations (Greenberg, Roberge, Ho, & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau 2001, 2005).

The general tenet of i-deal research is that i-deals benefit employees and the organization (Bal, & Lub, 2015; Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). However, current researcher has neither studied whether i-deals are mutually (Liao, Wayne, Rousseau & 2014) or equally beneficial to both parties, even though mutual benefit is a defining characteristic of the

construct. The aim of this study is to find out if an individual employee and the organization equally benefit from idiosyncratic arrangements.

I-deals are differentiated from favouritism, cronyism, and unauthorized arrangements in that i-deals are negotiated by employees on the basis of their value to the organization and their personal needs for joint benefit of themselves and the organizations (Grant & Parker 2009). When an i-deal does not benefit the organization, it is no longer an i-deal, but preferential treatment by the organization towards an employee (Bal, Lub, 2015). The creation of i-deals depends on both employee initiative and employer authorization (Hornung et al., 2009).

The concept of ideals is based upon social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The central tenet of social exchange theory is that individuals reciprocate favours with partners in a relationship even not otherwise required to do so (Liao et al., 2014; Rousseau et al., 2006). Basically when an organization grants an individual employee an i-deal, the employee feels obligated to reciprocate the favour through positive work attitudes and behaviours that ultimately benefit the employer. The employees are expected to return i-deals with higher motivation and performance according to the norm of reciprocity. From the employer's perspective, i-deals may be a way to reciprocate for an employee's contributions (Liao, Wayne & Rousseau 2014).

I-deals can take different forms in regards to the timing (for example *ex ante* and *ex post*), scope (example from minor modification to completely idiosyncratic jobs), and content (for example career opportunities, job content or work hours). *Ex ante* i-deals are negotiated during recruitment before an individual is employed. They are granted based on the prospective employee's knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics reflecting their market value. *Ex post* refers to the deals negotiated in the course of one's employment.

Types of ex post i-deals

Rousseau and colleagues introduced four commonly occurring types of i-deals; task -ideals, developmental i-deals, flexibility i-deals and i-deals aimed at workload reduction (Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Hornung, Rousseau, et al., 2010). Rosen and colleagues (2013) in their research developed two additional types of i-deals, location i-deals and i-deals for financial incentives. Below is a detailed explanation of the different types of i-deals.

Task I-deals refer to the customized job content individual workers negotiate aimed at making the job content more personally motivating, rewarding and/or enjoyable (Hornung, Rousseau, et al., 2010).

Developmental or career i-deals capture a broader support for professional advancement in correspondence with longer term personal goals. They are the special opportunities for individuals to use and expand their knowledge and skills in order to pursue career advancement. (Liao, Wayne & Rousseau, 2014; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Rousseau, 2005). It comprises of different elements such as setting developmental goals, career coaching, and special training or promotion opportunities. Career i-deals are directed at improving employability. They are developmental and future oriented.

Flexibility ideals refer to personalized work hours and scheduling negotiated to better fit individual needs and preferences (Liao et al., 2014; Horning et al., 2009). These i-deals allow employees to schedule their work in order to accommodate their needs

Workload reduction i-deals refer to the special arrangements that result in reduced work demand and hours

Location flexibility i-deals - refers to special work arrangements that allow employees to work at a place that is outside the office (Liao et al., 2014)

Financial incentives i-deals- refers to the customized compensation arrangements that fit individual needs

Employee outcomes of idiosyncratic deals

The outcomes of i-deals have been primarily explained using the social exchange theory and reciprocity arguments, in which the positive attitudes and behaviours are outlets through which the employees repay the employer's investment (Grant & Parker 2009). Empirical research has demonstrated that i-deals have an influence on a wide array of individual and organizational outcomes. The various forms of i-deal content have been found to differ in certain consequences for the worker and the employee (Rousseau and Kim, 2006; Hornung et al., 2008). As much as i-deals have been conceptualized as mutually functional agreements for the employee and the organization (Rousseau, 2005), their diverse contents, scope and combination (Rousseau et al., 2006) raises the possibility of differential consequences for

both the employee and worker. (Hornung, Rousseau & Glaser 2008). Like the previous discussion on job crafting, this study will only focus on the outcomes which have empirically been studied and are beneficial to the employee or the organization.

Many of the individual level organizational outcomes of i-deals can be attributed to the social exchange expectation between the employee and the organization (Rosen, Slater, Chang, & Russell, 2013).

Motivation

Work motivation refers to a set of energetic forces that originate from both within as well as beyond an individual. The forces are said to initiate work related behaviour and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. Employees can be motivated by an employers' decisions to grant i-deals by the following reasons. First, ideals serve as a signal of the employer's recognition of the employee's worth for instance unique skills or it could be the contributions that the employee has made to the organization. I-deals also represent the organizations concerns for the employees needs and well-being and lastly granting i-deals can be a strategy to motivate the employee to repay the organizations commitment and investment through various ways and forms. (Ho & Tekleab, 2013). Flexibility i-deals predicted lower levels of work-family conflict and less unpaid overtime work which in turn can increase an employee's motivation.

Job satisfaction

Empirical evidence indicate that making granting i-deals does influence the employee's attitudes and behaviour towards the organization and the job. Employees who receive i-deals reported being more attached to the organization and being more satisfied with their jobs and were also inclined to work long hours, perform better at their jobs and engage in more citizenship behaviours compared to their less successful counterparts (Ho & Tekleab, 2013; Anand et al., 2010; Hornung et al., 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rosen et al., 2013). In regards to the resultant increased job satisfaction researcher have drawn on the work adjustment model as an explanation, noting that the receipt of i-deals allows for the employees needs and abilities to be fulfilled by various aspects of the job, thereby enhancing their job satisfaction (Bal, De Jong, Jansen, & Bakker, 2012)

Occupational self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to the connection between cognition and behaviour. It is the degree with which one can execute courses of action to deal with prospective situation. It is not the actual ability of skill but more of the judgement about what they are able to do with the skills they possess (Shaughnessy, 2006). It has been argued that those with higher self-efficacy are more persistent in their efforts to achieving the desired outcomes (Bandura, 1986) and therefore are more likely to be intrinsically motivated.

Organizational outcomes Idiosyncratic deals

Job performance

Job performance is the assessment of whether or not an individual performs their job well. Performance is an important criterion for organizational outcomes and success. It is an individual level variable as it refers to a task a single person does as opposed to organizational performance. I-deal negotiations provide workers with ways to make their jobs more intrinsically motivation and satisfying, with potentially positive effect on job performance (Grant & Parker, 2009). Developmental ideals are expected to motivate and reward high performance. When employees negotiate special assignments or training to develop particular competencies, this may increase their value and enhance their own performance (Hornung, Rousseau and Glaser, 2008). Furthermore, task ideals have been shown to relate to performance relevant attitude (e.g., affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer & Weigl, 2010). Improved organizational performance normally translates to improved economic performance which is beneficial to the organization.

Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment has been conceptualized as a stabilizing force that binds individuals to organizations (Meyer and Herschovitch, 2001). By individualizing employment conditions according the needs of the employees, employers provide individuals with a special contribution often involving symbolic and social-emotional elements (e.g., trust, appreciation, personalization; Blau 1964). This in turn provide a basis for reciprocity between the workers and the organization (Gouldner, 1960). This act strengthens the

employment relationship which in turn results to an employee's emotional attachment to the organization. Emotional attachment is important consequence of a successful exchange of personalized contributions (Hornung, Glaser, and Rousseau, 2008). Particular focus is affective organizational commitment which refers to an employees' emotional attachment to, involvement in, and identification with, their employees (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Reduced Turnover intentions

Employees who are happier with their jobs and feel greater attachment to the organization would be less inclined to consider leaving the firms for self-serving reasons (Ho & Tekleab, 2013). In the current economic situation and the increased competition, retaining employees is one of the challenges facing organizations. Thus to the organization, reduced turnover intention is a welcomed outcome of idiosyncratic deals. Research in risk aversion suggests that individuals have a tendency to be averse to options that are perceived to be risky. In the context of i-deals, recipients of i-deals would perceive leaving the current employer for a different one as a risky decision because they are uncertain of receiving similar i-deals from another employer (Ho & Tekleab, 2013).

Motivation to continue to work

Research has proven that i-deals, both flexibility and developmental enhance the motivation to continue working after retirement age. (Bal, De Jong, Jansen & Bakker, 2012). For an organization, this is beneficial because retaining valuable employees has more economic advantage than sourcing for a replacement.

Organizational citizenship behaviour

According to Greenberg, Roberge, Ho & Rousseau, (2004) reciprocity on the part of i-deal recipients is postulated in i-deal theory taking the form of discretionary contributions beneficial to the employer such as OCB. Given that OCB is discretionary, individuals contribute their good citizenship behaviour under conditions of their own choosing. OCB can target specific individual or the organization in general. When OCB targets an individual, it refers to interpersonal helping behaviours which provide immediate benefit to other employees which in turn contributes to the organizations' welfare. OCB that targets the organization entails impersonal helping behaviours that benefit the organization in general such as obeying rules (Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden & Rousseau 2010). OCB can therefore be linked to overall organizational effectiveness.

Drawing from the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity (Gouldner 1960), my second hypothesis is as follows;

Hypothesis 2

The positive effects of idiosyncratic deals on employee outcomes and organizational outcome are equal.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

A meta-analysis is the method of choice for this advancing topic owing to the many potential outcomes of job crafting and idiosyncratic deals. To assess this many outcomes in one empirical study would require a lot of time and resources which is a constraint at this time.

The purpose of this meta-analysis is to collect individual effect size estimates on job crafting and idiosyncratic deals from different studies and combine them into a mean effect size. In order to assist in the interpretation of the calculated mean effect size, the statistical significance, sample size and Cronbach's alpha will also be computed. The meta-analytic process is broken down into six steps, namely study collection, study coding or data extraction, mean effect size calculation, computation of the statistical significance of the mean, examining the variability in the distribution of the effect size estimate and lastly the testing of the hypothesis or interpretation of the results.

Study collection

Identification of relevant literature

The first step in this meta-analysis is to search the literature for studies that have addressed the same research topic (Job crafting and Idiosyncratic deals) using electronic data base search such as ISI Web of Knowledge, PsycInfo, university of Twente library SFX linking, google scholar and Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). This was done not only to find articles but also to identify author in the field who might have unpublished data.

Since both concepts are fairly new (job crafting 2001 and Ideal 2005), there was no year range specified during the search. The search is made as wide as possible in order to maximize the likelihood of capturing all relevant articles and thereby minimizing the effects of reporting biases. The names of the relevant seminal authors, Rousseau, Hornung, and Glaser for i-deal

literature and Wrzesniewski, Dutton, Grant and Berg for job crafting literature. The respective author names were searched in the search engines and their curriculum vitae searched for published or unpublished articles that may have been missed. A forward search was also conducted in order to find authors who cite papers in the field of job crafting and i-deals

The following search terms were used. “*Job crafting*” “*Idiosyncratic deals*” “*Job crafting*” and “*outcomes*,” “*Idiosyncratic deals*” and “*outcomes*” “*Rousseau*” and “*Idiosyncratic deals*” “*Job crafting*” and “*Wrzesniewski*” “*Job crafting*” and “*Bakker*”, “*Idiosyncratic deals*” and “*Hornung*”. In order to minimize the risk of missing some relevant literature, a manual search of key journal that may not be part of the electronic data bases. The reference sections of the articles found was checked for any articles that may have been missed. For instance the meta-analysis article by one of the seminal author Denise Rousseau revealed a number of dissertations and conference papers that were not available in the journals and electronic data bases. In this case the authors of the articles were contacted to obtain a copy of the articles. A total of 7 conference proceedings and 2 dissertations was received from article authors.

In addition to this, the citations on the most relevant literature were also reviewed in order to identify any relevant studies that might have been missed during the search of the search engines. In order to ensure that only articles of high quality are included, the journals ranking within the top two quarters of the SCImago Journal Rank under the subject category “Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management” were included. However, this did not produce any relevant articles on our topics of interest. Instead a manual search of journals that publish the most cited articles in the topics were searched. This also did not produce any new articles. The journals searched manually include; Academy of Management journal, Journal of organizational behaviour, Journal of industrial psychology, Journal of management psychology and Journal of vocational behaviour.

Criteria of relevance and acceptability

Inclusion and exclusion criteria were established before the first screening which involved reviewing of the abstracts and articles in order to eliminate the article that were obviously not relevant for instance conceptual and qualitative papers.

The relevant literature should have reported a bivariate measure of effect size Pearson's correlation coefficient (Pearson's r). This is the most commonly used when testing correlations (Field & Gillet, 2010). As clarified by Andy Field, (2010), there are many reasons why r would be recommended as an effect size measure. It is certainly convenient because it is well understood by most scholars. It is constrained to lie between 0 (no effect) and +1 or -1 (perfect effect). It does not matter what effect one could be looking for or what variables have been measured, not even how those variables have been measured. Pearson's correlation coefficient r is a standardized form of the covariance between two variables and is well known and understood by most researchers as a measure of strength of relationship between two continuous variables. If a study reported an effect size in a different metric then this was rejected. Studies that examined collaborative job crafting were excluded from this meta-analysis.

The inclusion of badly conducted research can bias a meta-analysis even though meta-analysis is said to solve the problem of variance in study quality because these differences will "come out in the wash" (Field & Gillet, 2010). In order to counter this, only studies that report Cronbach's alpha were considered for the analysis. Studies were included if the publication language is English and reported outcomes of job crafting of idiosyncratic deals activities.

The screening was done in two stages. In the initial stage, only the abstract was read in order to eliminate qualitative studies and papers that were clearly irrelevant. The second stage screening involved scrutinizing the articles for statistical details from which effect sizes can be calculated; the same effect size metric Pearson's r had to be reported for the studies to be eligible. The result section was also perused to check for the any reported effect sizes. This resulted 15 studies on job crafting and 18 studies on idiosyncratic deals. The studies rejected after the second screening were excluded for the following reasons: The outcomes reported rejection of an ideal request, the studies reported collaborative crafting in the case of job crafting, studies that reported third party (colleagues) outcomes.

The number of articles that survived the screening process was 11 job crafting articles and 14 i-deal articles. The next step is to code the studies that remain after elimination of the studies articles that did not meet the inclusion criteria. Tables 1 and 2 below describe the operationalization of the methodological process for Job crafting and i-deals respectively.

TABLE 1: Job crafting operationalization table

First-Level Code	Second-level code	Third-level code
<p>Job crafting - “the actions employees take to shape, mould and redefine their jobs by changing their task, relational and cognitive boundaries.</p>	<p>Task crafting - the changes a job crafter makes to the physical or temporal boundaries around the bundle of tasks that they consider to be their job Relational crafting – Changing the amount and/or quality of social interaction with other people encountered in the job Cognitive crafting - employee’s efforts to perceive and interpret their tasks, relationships or job in ways that change the significance of their work.</p>	
<p>Positive outcomes of job crafting – the positive employee outcomes and the positive organizational results that arise as a consequences of job crafting.</p>	<p>Positive Employee outcomes – these are the resulting consequences of job crafting that mainly benefit employees such as job satisfaction, wellbeing and work engagement</p>	<p>The identified consequences of job crafting to employees include; Job satisfaction - pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from ones appraisal of their job or job experiences. Well-being- the presence of optimal psychological functioning Person-Job fit - the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched. Work Engagement - a positive fulfilling, work related state of mind. It has been characterized by three strategies, namely vigour, dedication and absorption</p>
	<p>Positive organizational outcomes - these are the consequences of job crafting activity that mainly benefit organization such as organizational commitment, turn over intention, organizational citizenship behaviour and job performance.</p>	<p>Organizational commitment - the psychological bond an employee has for the employer. Turn over intentions - the conscious and deliberate willingness to leave an organization. Organizational citizenship behaviour - the individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization Job performance- the total expected value to the organizations of discrete behaviours that an individual carries out over a standard period of time.</p>

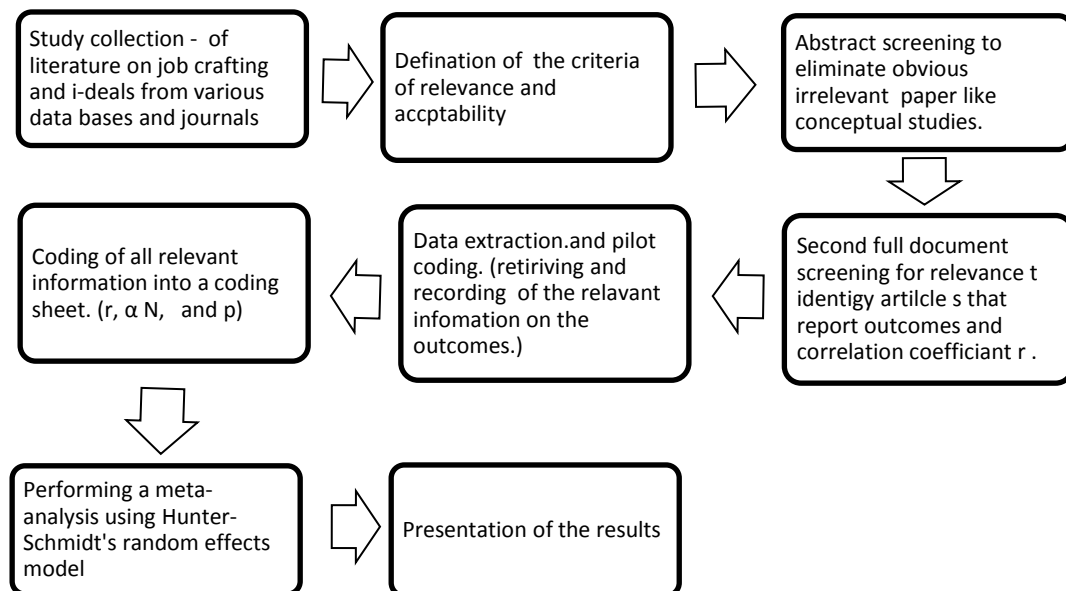
TABLE 2. Ideals operationalization table

First-Level Code	Second-level code	Third-level code
<p><i>Idiosyncratic deals</i> - voluntary, personalized agreements of a nonstandard nature negotiated between individual employees and their employers regarding terms of benefit for each party. They take the form of task i-deals, developmental i-deals, flexibility i-deals, workload reduction ideals, location/flexibility i-deals and financial incentives i-deals.</p>	<p><i>Task i-deals</i>- the customized job content individual workers negotiate aimed at making the job content more personally motivating, rewarding and/or enjoyable. <i>Developmental i-deals</i> – the special opportunities for individuals to use and expand their knowledge and skills in order to pursue career advancement. <i>Flexibility</i> -. personalized work hours and scheduling negotiated to better fit individual needs and preferences <i>Workload reduction i-deals</i> - refer to the special arrangements that result in reduced work demand and hours <i>Location flexibility i-deals</i> - refers to special work arrangements that allow employees to work at a place that is outside the office <i>Financial incentives i-deals</i>- refers to the customized compensation arrangements that fit individual needs</p>	
<p><i>Positive outcomes of i-deals</i> – the positive employee and positive organizational outcomes that arise as a result of granted i-deals.</p>	<p><i>Positive Employee outcomes</i> – these are the resulting consequences of granted i-deals that mainly benefit employees such as change in motivation, occupational self-efficacy and job satisfaction.</p>	<p>This study identifies the following employee outcomes; <i>Change in motivation</i>- Work motivation refers to a set of energetic forces that originate from both within as well as beyond an individual. <i>Occupational self-efficacy</i> Self-efficacy refers to the connection between cognition and behaviour. It is the degree with which one can execute courses of action to deal with prospective situation. - <i>Job satisfaction</i></p>
	<p><i>Positive organizational outcomes</i> - these are the consequences of granted i-deals that mainly benefit organization such as turn over intentions, motivation to continue to work, organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment and improved job performance.</p>	<p><i>Turn over intentions</i> - the conscious and deliberate willingness to leave an organization. <i>Motivation to continue to work</i>- the drive or incentive to continue working after retirement. - <i>Organizational citizenship behaviour</i>; - <i>Organizational commitment</i> and - <i>Improved Job performance</i></p>

Coding:

A coding sheet was created for recording the relevant data for performing the meta-analysis. The relevant information included effects sizes r , the sample size N , the significance level p and the reliability measurement Cronbach's alpha. The result of this coding is quantifiable effects that can be included in the meta-analysis. Figure 1 summarizes the meta-analysis process used in the study.

Figure 1: Meta-analysis process.



Note: N =cumulative sample size; α Cronbach's alpha; r = average observed effect; p = level of significance

Analytical techniques.

The method use for this meta-analysis is the Hunter and Schmidt Random effect model (2004). This method was chosen because I am interested in estimating the mean of the distribution of effects as opposed to a true effect which is what a fixed model would measure. Another reason for selecting the random effects model is because this study intents to allow inferences that generalize beyond the findings of the studies included in the meta-analysis (unconditional inferences).

Hunter and Schmidt method explained

This method emphasises isolating and correcting for sources of error such as sampling error and reliability of measurement variables. The population effect is estimated using a simple mean in which each effect size estimate, r , is weighted by the sample size on which it is based, n : In other words the mean effect size r is equal to the sum of N divided by the sum of sample sizes. However the meta-analysis of this study was not done by hand. The meta-analysis file *Meta_Basis_r.sps*, was used to perform the basic on effect sizes. The effect sizes were computed at 95% confidence intervals in order to assess heterogeneity in the effect sizes.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Job crafting results:

Table 3 presents the results of the meta-analysis correlations coefficient for the outcomes of job crafting. These include the outcomes for job crafting as a whole (inclusive task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting) and the results of employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes of the types of job crafting separately namely task, relational and cognitive crafting. For this study, equal benefit is operationalized to mean the difference in the mean effect size of not more than 0.1. When the difference between the effect sizes of the employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes is greater than 0.1, then there is significant effect meaning the benefits to the employee or to the organization are not equal. If the employee outcome has a larger effect size that the organizational outcome, this would mean that the first hypothesis is to supported. A difference of less than 0.1 is taken to be insignificant and results to the rejection of the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the positive effect of individual job crafting on employee outcomes is stronger that its effects on organizational outcomes. As shown in table 1, it was supported by task crafting where by the mean effect size for the employees outcomes is ($r=0.403$, $p<0.001$) and that for the organizational outcomes is ($r= 0.32$, $p<0.01$). The difference between the employee and organizational outcomes 0.118 which is greater than 0.1 threshold that has been set for this study. This suggests that employees benefit more from crafting their tasks than the organizations does from task crafting. This suggests that when it comes to task crafting, the first hypothesis is supported.

Relational crafting reported a mean effect size of ($r=0.336$, $p<0.001$) for the employee outcomes and for the organizational outcomes the mean effect size is ($r=0.313$, $p<0.001$). The difference in the effect sizes is 0.023 which is also below the set threshold of 0.1 meaning that there is no significant difference between the benefits employees get from interacting with their colleagues and the benefits the organization receives when employees interact with their colleagues. Therefore the outcomes of relational crafting do not support the first hypothesis.

Table 3. Summary of meta-analysis results of employee and organizational outcomes of job crafting

Independent variable	Dependent variable	k	N	r	p	95% Lower Limit	95% Upper Limit
Job Crafting	Employee and Organization	62	2665	0,362	,000	0,068	0,656
Job Crafting	Employee Outcomes	41		0,394	,000	0,105	0,683
Job Crafting	Organizational Outcomes	21		0,32	,000	0,1	0,539
Task Crafting	Employee and Organization	26	1591	0,403	,000	0,74	0,733
Task Crafting	Employee Outcomes	18		0,454	,000	0,156	0,753
Task Crafting	Organizational Outcomes	8		0,336	,000	0,18	0,491
Cognitive crafting	Employee and Organization	10	751	0,382	,000	0,295	0,468
Cognitive crafting	Employee Outcomes	7		0,394	,000	0,288	0,499
Cognitive crafting	Organizational Outcomes	2		0	,000	0	0
Relational Crafting	Employee and Organization	19	1641	0,326	,000	0,12	0,532
Relational Crafting	Employee Outcomes	12		0,336	,000	0,091	0,582
Relational Crafting	Organizational Outcomes	7		0,313	,000	0,176	0,449

Note: K = number of samples; N =cumulative sample size; r = average observed effect; p = level of significance

Cognitive crafting reported a mean effect size ($r=0.394$, $p<0.001$) for employee outcomes. The organizations outcomes could not be computed because the value of k was too small.

Job crafting in general (inclusive task, relational and cognitive crafting) reported a mean effect size of ($r = 0.394$, $p<0.0, 1$) for the employee outcomes and organizational outcomes reported a mean effect size of ($r= 0.32$, $p<0.01$). The difference in this case is 0.074, which is insignificant as the threshold is 0.1. This suggests that there is not significant difference in the

benefits employees receive from crafting their jobs and the benefits the organizations receives from the job crafting activity by the employee. We can only conclude that they both benefit. In this case the first hypothesis is not supported.

I-deal results:

Table 4 presents the meta-analysis results of the employee and organizational outcomes of i-deals. The same threshold of +0.1 applies to the results of i-deal. Equal benefit in this case is operationalized as the difference in the mean effect size of less than 0.1. The effects is significant when the difference between the employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes is less than 0.1. The second hypothesis predicted that the positive effects of idiosyncratic deals on employee outcomes and on the organizational outcomes would be equal. In this case, if the difference is significant if it is less than 0.1 resulting to the hypothesis being supported.

Table 4. Summary of meta-analysis results of employee and organizational outcomes of i-deals

Independent variable	Dependent variable	k	N	r	p	95% Lower Limit	95% Upper Limit
I-deal	Employee and Organization	70	2498	0,205	,000	-0,102	0,512
I-deal	Employee Outcomes	25		0,232	,000	-0,014	0,478
I-deal	Organizational Outcomes	45		0,193	,000	-0,135	0,52
Task flexibility	Employee and Organization	25	3281	0,166	,000	-0,096	0,427
Task flexibility	Employee Outcomes	7		0,216	,000	0,32	0,4
Task flexibility	Organizational Outcomes	18		0,151	,000	-0,123	0,425
Task (Workload)	Employee and Organization	14	1238	0,286	,000	-0,092	0,665
Task (Workload)	Employee Outcomes	7		0,259	,000	-0,111	0,629
Task (Workload)	Organizational Outcomes	7		0,309	,000	-0,071	0,688
Career & Development i-deal	Employee and Organization	21	3331	0,152	,000	-0,131	0,436
Career & Development i-deal	Employee Outcomes	7		0,204	,000	-0,028	0,437
Career & Development i-deal	Organizational Outcomes	12		0,131	,000	-0,16	0,423

Note: K= number of samples; N=cumulative sample size; r = average observed effect; p = level of significance

The mean effect size for i-deals in general which includes all type of i-deals reported a mean effect size for the employee outcomes ($r=0.232$, $p<0.001$) and organizational outcomes ($r=0.193$, $p<0.01$), a difference of 0.039 which is significant given the threshold of less than 0.1 as being significant. Task flexibility had a significant mean difference of 0.065 between the employee outcomes (0.216, $p<0.001$) and the organizational outcomes ($r=0.151$, $p<0.001$). The task and workload i-deals reported ($r=0.259$, $p<0.001$), and ($r=0.286$, $p<0.001$) for the employee outcomes and organizational outcomes respectively. The difference in this case is 0.05, still under the set threshold point of 0.1 making it a significant difference.

Task/workload i-deal output reported a mean effect size of ($r=0.259$, $p<0.001$) for employee outcomes reporting and a mean effect size ($r= 0.309$, $p<0.001$) the organizational outcomes, a difference of 0.05 which is insignificant based on our threshold point of a 0.1 difference in the mean effect sizes. Lastly career/development i-deal reported a mean effect size ($r=0.204$, $p<0.001$) for the employee outcomes and ($r=0.131$, $p<0.001$) for the organizational outcomes. The difference between the mean effects sizes was 0.073, also below the set threshold.

From the results above, it is clear that the difference in the mean effect sizes for all types of i-deal including i-deal in general (inclusive all types of i-deals) resulted in an insignificant difference in the effect sizes. This results means that the second hypothesis is supported.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

In this section I will discuss what we can learn from the above results and give recommendations to managers and scholars. The goal of this study was to determine whether or not the employees and the employers equally benefit from job crafting and idiosyncratic deals. The central research question is

Do individual employees and the organization equally benefit from job crafting and idiosyncratic deals?

In order to answer this questions, I proposed two hypothesis, one for job crafting and the other for idiosyncratic deals. To test the hypothesis, I performed a meta-analysis of the existing data on the outcomes that benefit the employee and those that benefit the organization when they engage in job crafting and when they are granted i-deals. The aim was to determine if

there is significant difference between the mean effect size of employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes.

Job crafting.

The first hypothesis states that the positive effect of individual job crafting on employee outcomes is stronger than its effects on organizational outcomes. The results of task crafting supported the hypothesis. The meta-analysis results show that there is a significant difference between the positive effect of job crafting on employees outcomes and those on the organizational outcomes. This means that employees have more benefit than the employers when they craft their tasks. Relational crafting did not report a significant difference between employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes in which case the organization and the employees equally benefit as a result of employees crafting their relations. Therefore, relational crafting did not support the hypothesis. Job crafting did not support the hypothesis. The results showed no significant difference between employee and organizational outcome. The results on cognitive crafting was not measured because the sample size on organizational outcomes was too small to perform a meta-analysis. Based on these finding, I partially accept the first hypothesis

The results of task crafting does not come as a surprise given it has been conceptualized as self-serving. Task crafting is not necessarily oriented towards improving task performance or supporting organizational goals. However, the results of task crafting should not be seen as automatically negative to the organization. Just because the employees benefit more than the organization does not mean that it is bad for the organization. It is just an indication on the size of the effect that task crafting can have on employee outcomes. It depends on the nature of the tasks being crafted. For instance if employees are reducing hindering job demands, this could negatively impact the organization. On the other hand if the employee is crafting their tasks by increasing their job resources, this could be beneficial to the organization.

Some benefits such as job satisfaction are intrinsic to the employees and do not necessarily benefit the organization. Managers should focus on changing the positive employee outcomes into positive organizational outcome. However, it is easier to motivate an already satisfied employee to a productive than a dissatisfied one. Employees engage in task crafting in order create a person-job fit. However, task crafting changes responsibilities, therefore managers are encouraged to manage task crafting behaviour so that they can contribute to personal and

organizational goals. This means that the tasks employees are given in the first place plays a very important role in the outcome of job crafting.

Employees are said to engage in job crafting because they are seeking to experience more meaningfulness in their jobs (Wrzesniewski and Dutton 2001). Experiencing meaning has been found to promote happiness (King & Napa, 1998) and well-being (Zika & Chamberlin, 1992). These benefits eventually spill over to benefit the organization. Therefore task crafting should receive more attention at work because of its positive effect on employee well-being and its self-serving nature.

There are more benefits of task crafting that have been observed. Ghitulescu (2007), noticed that individuals who craft their tasks are more likely to develop a deeper understanding of their works, the interconnections among different task sequences and the causal mechanisms that relate the task performance process to effectiveness. By trying new ways of performing one's tasks, individual employees maximize the range of possible responses to unpredictable and complex problems. Job crafters are said to be better equipped with novel task strategies and ideas to address the variable complex requirements present at work. In contrast, individuals who craft their tasks less will be more likely to remain trapped in habitual routines (Gersick & Hackman, 1990) that might not be effective in novel situations. Thus employees who are closer to their work through task crafting are more knowledgeable about their work and are better able to make higher quality decisions in their work (Ghitulescu, 2007).

The results of relational crafting did not support the first hypothesis. The difference between the employee outcomes and the organizational outcomes was not significant. This shows that relational crafting is collective serving even though it has always been conceptualized as self-serving. When employees interact with people they encounter at their work, the benefit they receive from this interactions is equally received by the people they interact with. This explains how the employees and the organization equally benefit from relational crafting. The relational aspect of job crafting is likely to have effectiveness implications because an employees' interactions with their colleagues are helpful in achieving superior job outcomes. As noted by Orr (1990), interpersonal interactions help in the sharing of rich contextual, situated knowledge in organizations.

Individuals are said to be motivated by a desire to develop and maintain a favourable self-image (Ghitulescu, 2007). Therefore, when crafting interpersonal relationships, employees would be expected to seek relationships that would make them view their work in a positive

manner. As stated before, experiencing meaning promotes happiness and well-being. Employees are likely to attempt changes in their work meaningfulness as a result of motivation to construct positive identities (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) via crafting positive relations at work as opposed to negative relations. For example an employee may regularly meet with a colleague that he or she consider inspiring and less likely to engage with an employee that they consider to be of negative influence. Crafting the relational boundaries of work by interacting more frequently with others provide individual employees and their colleagues novel sources of task knowledge or cues that they can use to craft better task strategies (Ghitulescu, 2007).

There are other researchers who have also supported the idea of relational crafting equally benefiting both the employees and the employers/. Hansen (1999) states then when individuals frequently interact with people in their work group with task relevant knowledge, it is more likely that novel or complex knowledge will be transferred. In this way, superior work routines crafted by different individuals in the organizations are more likely to be adopted by the job crafter that maintains ties with these individuals (Ghitulescu, 2007). This is beneficial not only to the employee but likewise to the organization and thus managers should encourage relational crafting.

Idiosyncratic deals

Idiosyncratic deals were hypothesized to be equally beneficial to both the employee and the organizations. The results of all the types of i-deals support this hypothesis. The difference in the mean effects between the outcomes to the employees and the organizational outcomes were less than the 0.1 threshold that had been set. Based on these results, I accept my second hypothesis which proposes that the positive effects of idiosyncratic deals on employee outcomes and organizational outcomes are equal. The results of i-deals is in line with what literature on i-deal state. That employees and the organizations equally benefit from granted i-deal. Drawing from the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees will tend to reciprocate contributions and favours with the employers even when they are not required to do so. The argument is that employees who have been granted an i-deal will feel obligated to reciprocate by having positive work attitudes and behaviours which ultimately will benefit the employer. The employer will also reciprocate for an employee's situation

One question that managers are likely to ask in relation to this study is which proactive behaviour should they invest in? Based on the outcomes, I would say if possible both. Job crafting and i-deals complement each other well and when implemented together, they would make a perfect pair. It all depends on the need of the individual and the needs of the organization. When managers support job crafting, they are actually supporting the idiosyncratic needs of the employee. The employee is likely to reciprocate the gesture by crafting their jobs to line up with the company strategies which would improve performance

CONTRIBUTION, LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study provides a clear summarized overview of the beneficial individual and organizational outcomes of job crafting and i-deals as shown in Table 5. It facilitates the observation of the impact of the outcomes discreet proactive employee behaviours and non-discreet idiosyncratic arrangements thereby providing different lenses that complement each other in enriching our understanding of proactive employee behaviour.

Table 5 Summary of the outcomes of job crafting and I-deals

Job Crafting	Outcomes	Ideals	Outcomes
<i>Employee Outcomes</i>	<i>Organizational outcomes</i>	<i>Employee Outcomes</i>	<i>Organizational outcomes</i>
Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment	Motivation	Turnover intention
Well-being	Turn over intentions	Self efficacy	Motivation to continue to work
Work engagement	Organizational citizenship behaviour	Job satisfaction	Organizational citizenship behaviour
Person-job fit	Job performance		Organizational commitment
			Job performance

This study contributes to the emerging literature on job crafting in several ways. The study is the first to synthesis literature on job crafting. This could open up new theoretical opportunities for understanding the effects of proactive behaviours on individuals and organizations as well. Furthermore, the job crafting results underscores the importance of the tasks that employees receive. It is important for employers to consider the person-job fit when designing jobs for the employees. Most importantly, managers should have a positive attitude and encourage employees to engage in proactive job crafting in order optimize their working conditions. When the organizations is open to employees crafting their jobs, they are likely to do so with consideration for the company strategy and this would result to mutually beneficial outcome.

Relational crafting has been conceptualized as self-serving under the umbrella of job crafting. This research shows that relational crafting is collective serving. Researcher should change the 'self-serving' angle with which they view relational crafting and instead look at the impact job crafting has on the job crafters relations.

The results of the outcomes of cognitive crafting on the organization were only two. Future research could focus on the cognitive outcomes because they too play an important role in organizational outcomes. Future research on ideals could focus on the implication of the waiting time from the time i-deals are requested to the time they are granted. During this period of time, what sort of emotions or cognitive changes could be happening with the employees and how this feeling affects employee behaviour would after the granting of i-deal. Would employees still reciprocate with granted i-deal?

Limitations

Like many studies, this research has limitations as well as strengths. Summary statistics from tables 3 and 4 are based on data from more than 1800 employees and organizations and this certainly advances knowledge beyond what is gained from any single observational study based on a small sample. There are two potential biases in the meta-analysis, reporting biases and publication biases. Reporting biases arises from the fact that significant findings are more likely to be published than non-significant findings. This could be because the researchers do not submit them or it could be because reviewers reject them. This has also been referred to as the file drawer problem (Field & Gillet, 2010). This bias can result to the over-estimation of the population effects resulting to wrong interpretation of the effect size. Various techniques (e.g. fail-safe N , and funnel plot method rank correlation test for publication bias) have been developed to estimate the effect of this bias and to correct it. This calculation is beyond the scope of this meta-analysis. However, in order to minimize this file drawer problem, the search was extended to relevant conference proceedings and letters were written to experts in the field. This resulted to 9 extra (7 conference papers and 2 dissertations) papers which have been included in this study.

Secondly, the total number of studies examined is small compared to many meta-analysis. Field (2000) advises meta-analyses to include more than 15, preferably more than 30 studies in a meta-analysis to allow decent control over their Type 1 error rate. Another option for expanding the number of studies included in future meta-analyses on this topic is to include studies that did not report Pearson's r by calculating r from the reported effect sizes. There

are direct relationships between r and statistics that quantify group differences (e.g. t and F), associations between categorical variables (X^2) and the p value of any test statistic (Field & Gillet, 2010). This study focused only on studies that reported the Pearson's r thus reducing the total number of studies that could have been reported.

The findings of a meta-analysis must be interpreted within the bounds of the methodological quality of the research base synthesized. However, studies cannot simply be grouped into good and bad studies. In order to ensure that only quality studies were selected for this study, articles were selected from respected journals and also studies that were most cited in the web of science of google scholar page were included. Also one of the selection criteria was that the studies had to report the Cronbach's alpha for the reliability of the instruments use used to measure the variables.

CONCLUSIONS:

It is evident from this meta-analysis that giving workers a say in shaping their work experiences or when workers proactively initiate the changes they make to their jobs, the result is outcomes that are beneficial to both the employees and the employers. In recent years, employees have come to question the meaningfulness of their work. The current changes in the dynamic of work suggests that more attention should be devoted by researchers to explore how work in organizations reflects the decision of employees.

I conclude this study by giving an answering my research question; Do individual employees and the organization equally benefit from two social innovation initiative namely job crafting and idiosyncratic deals? Yes, for idiosyncratic deals the employee and the employer equally benefit whereas for job crafting, the benefit is not equal. The benefits of employee outcomes as a result of task crafting are stronger than the organizational benefits.

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APPENDIX A

Crating all types (k= 62)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
    ,362     ,068     ,656   570,091   ,000   61,000
```

Crating all types (employees, k= 41)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
    ,394     ,105     ,683   368,229   ,000   40,000
```

Crating all types (organization, k= 21)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
    ,320     ,100     ,539   118,863   ,000   20,000
```

Cognitive crafting (all, k = 10)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
    ,382     ,295     ,468   17,340   ,044   9,000
```

Cognitive crafting (employee, k =7)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
    ,394     ,288     ,499   14,729   ,022   6,000
```

Cognitive crafting (organization, k = 2)

Nothing could be computed, since k is too small.

Relational crafting (all, k = 19)

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,326	,120	,532	98,926	,000	18,000

Relational crafting (employees, k = 12)

***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,336	,091	,582	76,485	,000	11,000

Relational crafting (organization, k = 7)

***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,313	,176	,449	22,213	,001	6,000

Task crafting (all, k = 26)

***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,403	,074	,733	311,470	,000	25,000

Task crafting (employees, k = 18)

***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,454	,156	,753	187,609	,000	17,000

Task crafting (organization, k = 8)

MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST

Mean r	Lower r	Upper r	Chi2	p	df
,336	,180	,491	27,652	,000	7,000

APPENDIX B

Ideals (all types, k = 70)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,205     -,102      ,512     684,372   ,000   69,000
```

Ideals (employees, k = 25)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,232     -,014      ,478     150,259   ,000   24,000
```

Ideals (organization, k = 45)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,193     -,135      ,520     524,074   ,000   44,000
```

Career and Developmental Ideals (all, k = 21)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,152     -,131      ,436     164,521   ,000   20,000
```

Career and Developmental Ideals (employees, k = 7)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,204     -,028      ,437     35,920    ,000    6,000
```

Career and Developmental Ideals (organization, k = 12)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,131     -,160      ,423     120,981   ,000   13,000
```

Task and workload ideals (all, k = 14)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,286     -,092      ,665     191,012   ,000   13,000
```

Task and workload ideals (employees, k = 7)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,259     -,111      ,629     80,076    ,000    6,000
```

Task and workload ideals (organization, k = 7)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,309     -,071      ,688     108,528   ,000    6,000
```

Task flexibility (all, k = 25)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,166     -,096      ,427     196,684   ,000   24,000
```

Task flexibility (employees, k = 7)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,216     ,032      ,400     26,966    ,000    6,000
```

Task flexibility (organization, k = 18)

```
***** HUNTER-SCHMIDT RANDOM-EFFECTS MODEL *****
MEAN EFFECT SIZE, LOWER & UPPER 95% CREDIBILITY BOUNDS, AND CHI-SQUARE TEST
  Mean r   Lower r   Upper r   Chi2      p      df
  ,151     -,123      ,425     161,950   ,000   17,000
```