Investigating the antecedents and outcomes of approach- avoidance crafting: The role of paternalistic leadership and work identity

XIAO LIU

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Xiao LIU

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Abstract

Job crafting plays a critical role in enhancing employee well-being and performance. Designing smart jobs that facilitate employees learning and development is an important but challenging task for organizations. This thesis attempts to investigate the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting in the forms of approach-avoidance crafting (Study 1, 2 and 3) and task-, relational-, cognitive crafting (Study 2).

Study 1 (N=318) investigates the antecedents (benevolence and authoritarianism as two dimensions of paternalistic leadership) and outcomes (burnout, work engagement, OCB) of approach-avoidance crafting. Results shown benevolence was positively related to approach crafting and performance goal orientation moderates this relationship. Authoritarianism was found positively related to avoidance crafting. Approach and avoidance crafting were found related to employee outcomes. This study contributes to the research on the antecedents and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting and provides insights into the proactive work design. Study 2 (N=104) broadens the scope of Study 1 to include individual work identity as a mediator between approach-avoidance crafting and employee proactive service performance. It also extends the job crafting theory by testing the antecedents and outcomes of task-, relational-, cognitive crafting. Results shown consistent findings with Study 1 and supported part of hypotheses of Study 2. This study is the first to directly test the relevance between job crafting and work identity. Study 3 (N=365, 82 teams) used a multilevel data to develop a comprehensive theoretical model. Results shown individual perceptions of benevolence was positively related to approach crafting, and individual perceptions of authoritarianism was positively related to avoidance crafting. Approach and avoidance crafting were both positively related to work identity. Work identity was positively related to work engagement. At team-level, team level benevolence was positively related to team approach crafting and team proactive service performance.

Overall, this thesis enriches the understanding of the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting. It indicates important directions for future research and outlines practical recommendations on nurturing employee job crafting, together with promoting employee well-being, citizenship behavior and proactive performance.

Keywords: job crafting, work identity, employee outcomes, paternalistic leadership

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The introductory chapter presents focal constructs and questions to be investigated. The following sections discuss theoretical and practical background of the antecedents, mechanisms, and outcomes of job crafting. It develops specific research questions to be addressed based on a review of the current literature. This chapter also gives a comprehensive summary of the thesis's overall design, methodological approach, and chapter structure.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Healthcare systems, regardless of structure and scale, all aim to improve clinical outcomes and patient well-being. Employees working at healthcare organizations such as doctors and nurses play a crucial role in the adaptation and effectiveness of these systems. To tackle with many clinical tasks simultaneously based on different patient needs, employees may take initiative actions to match their jobs with personal preferences. In organizational studies, this refers to job crafting. Job crafting in general is defined as the self-start behaviors of employees that change work boundaries (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). This concept was originally embedded in the work design literature. The conventional approach to work design emphasized a hierarchical process whereby managers delegated tasks to subordinates (Parker et al., 2017), as commonly observed in organizational settings. In contrast, job crafting relies on the "bottom-up" process of individuals proactively shaping and shaping their jobs rather than passively receiving them (Parker, Wall, and Cordery, 2001). Given its potential to enhance employee well-being (Heuvel, et al., 2015; Hakanen, et al., 2018), adaptivity (Berg, et al., 2010; Peeters,

et al., 2016; Solberg & Wong, 2016), and performance (Leana, 2009; Tims, et al., 2015). Being proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), job crafting has appealed large attention from scholars and managers, job crafting constitutes a critical component in the designing of "smart jobs" (Grant & Parker, 2009; Parker et al., 2017). Recent scholars called for studying job crafting from the approach and avoidance perspective (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2018). Approach crafting is in accord with expansion crafting, which means accumulating resources and seeking challenges. Avoidance crafting is in line with contraction crafting, which is to reduce the extra burden and hindering demands. Scholars called for more research on the antecedents, outcomes and boundary conditions of approach-avoidance crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018). However, reviewing the literature of approach-avoidance job crafting, there are several literature gaps.

First, prior research neglected the organizational factors that were likely to affect job crafting (Parker, Wall & Cordery, 2001; Parker, 2014). Researchers have only recently started exploring the relationship between leadership types and job crafting (e.g., Wang et al., 2017; Bavik et al., 2017; Tuan, 2018; Thun & Bakker, 2018; Dash & Vohra, 2019). Leaders are expected to be decisive in decision-making and protective in followers' benefits to achieve team goals (Yukl, 2002). In this regard, scholars have indicated the relevance of leadership and argued that leaders may be highly functional in driving followers' proactivity (Martin, et al., 2013; Wu, et al., 2017; Vogt, et al.,2021). Although consistent evidence demonstrates that leadership is related to employee job crafting in general uncertainty still exists regarding the magnitudes of its associations with approach and avoidance crafting. In recent times, the healthcare systems have been recognized as complicated and unpredictable. There is a growing recognition among scholars, practitioners, and policymakers that enhancing the management of the

healthcare domain is a key part of improving the quality of care (e.g., Gilmartin & D'Aunno 2007; Currie & Lockett, 2011; Denis et al., 2001). Effective leadership is essential for physicians to have an influence on the treatment of individual patients, the performance of diverse clinical teams, and the direction of significant healthcare organizations (Hartley et al., 2008). In the healthcare context, healthcare workers exhibit greater compliance with daily tasks when their leaders are effective in improving membership and performance among team members (Denis & Gestel, 2016). The importance of leadership in the healthcare context cannot be overstated, as it not only enhances major clinical outcomes but also promotes workplace satisfaction and reduces turnover among healthcare providers (Gilmartin & D'Aunno, 2007). Although various leadership styles have been recognized and classified in the literature, none of them have been considered as the gold standard for healthcare systems due to heterogeneous leadership meanings. In the healthcare context, paternalistic leadership has been widely adopted by doctors to coach the clinical teams (Luu & Djurkovic, 2019; Ahmed et al., 2018). Paternalistic leadership is a leadership style that reflects social and cultural characteristics rooted in the eastern background. It is a leading style that entails both fatherly benevolence to express consideration to followers (benevolence and morality) and powerful authority (authoritarianism) to gain control over subordinates (Farh, 2008). Studying paternalistic leadership can help to improve the supervisor-subordinate dyadic (chief doctors-junior doctors and nurses) relationships and to provide better clinical services for patients.

Furthermore, paternalistic leadership has been shown influential in employee satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2002a), organizational citizenship behavior (Cheng et al., 2002b), and trust (Martinez, 2003), etc. It has also been found related to employee innovative behaviors (Tian & Scanchez, 2017)

and proactivity (Aycan et al., 2000). A paternalistic leader (either benevolent-dominant leader or an authoritarian-dominant leader) may take different strategies to satisfy follower needs and promote employee performance. This could influence if and how their followers take different forms of job crafting. Currently, only Tuan's (2018) study tested the general relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting. However, in this study, job crafting is analyzed as a single entity without distinguishing its various dimensions. A more nuanced understanding of paternalistic leadership and different forms of job crafting is needed. It is important to study its relevance with employee job crafting as it can provide us better understanding of leadership styles for promoting employee performance. It may also contribute to management practices that designing "smart jobs" and enhancing employees' well-being.

Additionally, paternalistic leadership is more commonly practiced in collectivistic cultures than individualistic ones (Cheng, 2004). Context plays an important role in how subordinates react to paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Studying the effect of paternalistic leadership on job crafting in the Chinese healthcare context can also contribute to cross-cultural research on leadership.

The second literature gap are the factors that interact with leadership in predicting job crafting. The proposition that situational variables moderate the relationship between leadership and subordinate well-being and behavioral outcomes is not new (House, 1971; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Many different situational factors have been identified as influencing the impact of a leader's behavior on follower outcomes in the literature of leadership. Podsakoff et al (1995) indicated subordinate characteristics and task characteristics may serve as boundary conditions on leadership effectiveness. In the case of job

crafting, individual characteristics are likely to interact with leadership in encouraging or discouraging job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Specifically, Parker et al. (2010) proposed a model of proactive motivation process in which they argued individual differences and situational factors may interact to affect proactive work behaviors. Work-related cues may compensate for lack of dispositional characteristics or vice versa. For example, Tuan (2018) found authoritarian leadership was strongly associated with job crafting for those with lower level of public service motivation. However, the current literature lack further investigation of the interplay between individual characteristics and leadership (contextual factors) in predicting job crafting (Parker et al., 2010). Also, Zhang and Parker (2018) also called for more research on the boundary conditions of the exertion of job crafting.

Goal orientation is one of the most frequently studied motivational variables and a dominant approach in the study of achievement motivation. It refers to one's interpretation or reactions to events and outcomes during the goal pursuing process (Dweck. 1989; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Parker et al (2010) indicated goal orientation (as one individual difference) and leadership (as a contextual variable) may interact to predict proactive behaviors. Also, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) indicated individuals may differ in job crafting intentions based on their orientation about completing work tasks. This makes goal orientation distinct from other individual characteristics as moderators on the relationship between leadership and job crafting. There are already studies explore the relevance between goal orientation and job crafting (Marque-Quinteiro & Curral, 2012; Matsuno et al., 2019), yet none of them investigate the interaction effect of goal orientation and leadership on job crafting. It is very important to study the interaction between goal orientation and leadership on job crafting, since it may help to determine when certain leader behavior is helpful or not.

Third, evidence shown job crafting may invoke making changes in identities, but limited knowledge has known in this regard. Earlier research suggested job crafting attaches new meanings to work and changes individual work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Surprisingly, little research tested the link between job crafting and work identity. Identity is a root construct that describes and explains individual behavior in social science and behavioral research (Hogg et al., 1995). In the workplace, individuals receive identity cues, such as wearing work uniforms, entering one's office and greeting customers. These help to shape their work-related identity (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth & Corley, 2008). Work identity is how individuals define themselves at work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In the original job crafting model proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), work identity was discussed as a general effect of job crafting. They argued that employees redefine themselves regarding who they are and what they do during job crafting. Despite the task, relational, and cognitive crafting model, approach-avoidance crafting model may also bring changes in individual identities as employees are changing job resources and demands which may further influence their identities (Braine & Roodt. 2011). In healthcare context, doctors and nurses can experience a series of identity changes through job activities. For example, nursing and medical students can change their professional identity by trying on professional roles during transitions, receiving feedback from patients, and obtaining medical knowledge (Hood et al., 2014; Dadich et al., 2015; McNamara, 2017). Healthcare practitioners attempt to adjust themselves to a "hybrid model" job by assembling different roles such as "clinical leaders", "medical researchers" and "patient's healthcare consultant" (McGivern, et al., 2015; Anderson & Liff, 2018; Bartram, et al., 2018). However, it is not clear if approach or avoidance crafting is connected with individual work identity. Since identity is connected with key constructs in understanding

organizational behavior (Ashfroth & Corley, 2008; Bothma, et al., 2015), studying the association between job crafting and work identity may help to enhance employees' identification and attachment toward to their organization and profession, which may further increase their performance.

Lastly, scholars called for more research on the outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018). There is widespread interest in promoting employee well-being and performance among organizational managers and executives. Managerial interest in employee well-being or behavioral outcomes is understandable given claims from consultancies that employees with good well-being and higher engagement results in higher performance (Brain & Ryan, 2010; Kim & Beehr, 2018; Charlotte & Sabine, 2006). Earlier research indicated that job resources or demands could influence employee burnout, turnover intention, work engagement and OCB (e.g., Halbesleben, 2006; Spector, et al., 2007; Knight et al., 2017; Hakanen, et al., 2008; Shin et al., 2018). Given that approach-avoidance crafting involves changing job resources and demands, it is assumed that it may influence individual well-being and behavioral outcomes. Previous studies have shown that job crafting influences burnout, work engagement (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2012), turnover intention (Esteves & Lopes, 2017), and OCB (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2015). Studying outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting enhances the current knowledge of the effect of job crafting on positive end-states. Particularly, it may bring implications for the positive effect of avoidance crafting (Lazazzara, et al., 2020).

The complications discussed above involve several theoretical gaps. First, paternalistic leadership, especially benevolence and authoritarianism, as antecedents of job crafting needs further exploration. Second, individual goal orientation that may moderate the association between leadership and job crafting need more investigation. Third, work identity as a possible outcome of job crafting,

and as a mechanism explaining job crafting effect on employee outcomes has not been well tested before. Finally, further studies on outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting are needed. The thesis aims to address the following research questions:

1) How does paternalistic leadership influence employees' job crafting?

2) How does individual goal orientation moderate the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting?

3) How does employees' job crafting impact their work identity?

4) How does employees' job crafting and work identity influence employee work outcomes?

1.2 Purpose and contributions

Although there is a wide range of literature about job crafting, there is still a lack of in-depth research and analysis of the antecedents, outcomes and boundary conditions of job crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018). Accordingly, this research aims to thoroughly review the literature of job crafting related theories and develop models to determine the relationships between job crafting and leadership, as well as between job crafting and employee work behaviors. Altogether, this thesis contributes to the extant literature in several ways.

The first contribution is that this work extends the current knowledge of job crafting theory. This work integrates relevant insights of separate and different strands of literature in to an overarching theoretical framework on job crafting. Through three quantitative studies (Chapter 4, 5 and 6), this work brings together different perspectives on the determinants and consequences, including antecedents, mediators and outcomes of job crafting. By responding to the research call made by Rudolph et al (2017)

for research investigating practices that intervene job crafting, to the author's knowledge, this work is the first to test paternalistic leadership and different dimensions of job crafting. The results of this study can help to support assertions about how leadership influences employee job crafting behaviors. In addition, in response to the research call for testing the outcomes of job crafting (Parker & Zhang, 2018), this thesis tests the role of approach-avoidance crafting (Chapter 4, 5 and 6) and task-relational-cognitive crafting (only in Chapter 5) in predicting follower's work engagement, burnout, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and proactive service performance. Particularly, even though job crafting has been recognized as a form of proactive behaviors, limited research has directly tested its relation with proactive performance. This work direct tests the effect of job crafting on proactive service performance. It allows us to gain a deeper understanding of what kind of job crafting behaviors tend to lead a better performance and work behaviors.

The second contribution of this thesis is to fill a gap in the job crafting literature on the associations between job crafting and employee work identity. Existing evidence shown Job crafting has an impact on identity formation since it improves the alignment between an employee's self-perceptions and their work. However, studies have not yet explored the effect of different patterns of crafting behaviors and employee identity at workplace (). In response to this research call, Chapter 5 and 6 explores the relationships between different forms of job crafting and employee work identity. Drawing on work identity theory (), Chapter 3 provides a systematic review of work identity and establishes a valid scale that can be used in the subsequent studies. Past research proposed that approach-avoidance crafting can relate to outcomes of enrichment (such as enhancing work meaningfulness and strengthen identity; Bruning & Campion, 2018). By considering work identity as a

mediating variable, this thesis addresses the question of how employee's self-started behaviors affect their perception of themselves and how does this lead to different work behaviors and outcomes. This research is also the first to examine work identity as an outcome of different forms of job crafting. It supplements work identity as an outcome of job crafting and helps us to comprehend the benefits and drawbacks of employee self-started behaviors. The findings of this work can also serve as a basis for future investigations into job crafting behaviors and identity changes.

Third, this thesis enriches the knowledge of the effect of paternalistic leadership by identifying employee job crafting as an outcome. Scholars has identified leadership may play a role in encouraging or restricting employees conduct job crafting, yet limited research has done about the effect of paternalistic leadership in this regard. To address this issue, the thesis provides further knowledge of the two competing dimensions of paternalistic leadership and their relevance with employee job crafting. Moreover, this research argues that, authoritarianism is effective in promoting avoidance forms of crafting. This answers the call for more research to explore the potential positive influence of authoritarian leadership. This work attempted to address the lack of consensus on whether authoritarian leadership is beneficial for or detrimental to employee job crafting. In addition, further research is required to investigate the individual difference moderators that influence how followers react to paternalistic leaders (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). This research enriches this line of research by taking individual learning and performance goal orientation as moderators. It advances our understanding of the conditions under which paternalistic leadership can be beneficial or detrimental to employee work behaviors.

Regarding managerial practices, the thesis is important as it provides healthcare organizations and mangers with insights into designing mart jobs. The original job crafting conceptualization was built based on the researcher's interviews of nurses and cleaners at healthcare organizations (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2013). In the healthcare context, senior doctors/nurses serve as clinical leaders to coach and supervise the junior staff as they work as a medical team (Martin, et al., 2021; Koskiniemi, et al., 2015). Healthcare systems are under growing pressure to meet rising demands from patients. To manage this pressure, medical staff must change how they complete tasks or communicate with others. Studying healthcare employees' job crafting has critical implications for improving the performance and well-being of the medical work group. This thesis focuses on the healthcare context and aims to expand the understanding of job crafting of medical staff.

In total, this thesis integrates literature of paternalistic leadership and job crafting, providing a comprehensive knowledge of the leader's influence on employee crafting behaviors. By examining how paternalistic leadership influences employees' job crafting, this study provides insights into the factors that motivate employees to expand or avoid certain tasks or responsibilities within their job roles. Moreover, this study extends the existing research by investigating the associations between job crafting and work identity, which is a relatively unexplored area in the literature. Furthermore, this thesis helps to identify the boundary condition of the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting by investigating the moderation effect of individual performance and learning goal orientation. This thesis is able to combine earlier research with the current thesis, which fulfills gaps in the literature and identifies promising areas for future studies. Finally, the research produces a deep and thorough theory,

propositions and insights. A detailed conclusion of the theoretical and practical implications will be present in the discussion part.

1.3 Overview of the thesis

This thesis will present three studies addressing the research issues identified above. The three studies were conducted in the healthcare context. Data for Study 1 and 2 was collected from an online survey platform before COVID-19 and data for Study 3 was collected from the medical staff of a Chinese hospital during COVID-19. The findings obtained from these three studies help to provide a more comprehensive view of the antecedents and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting.

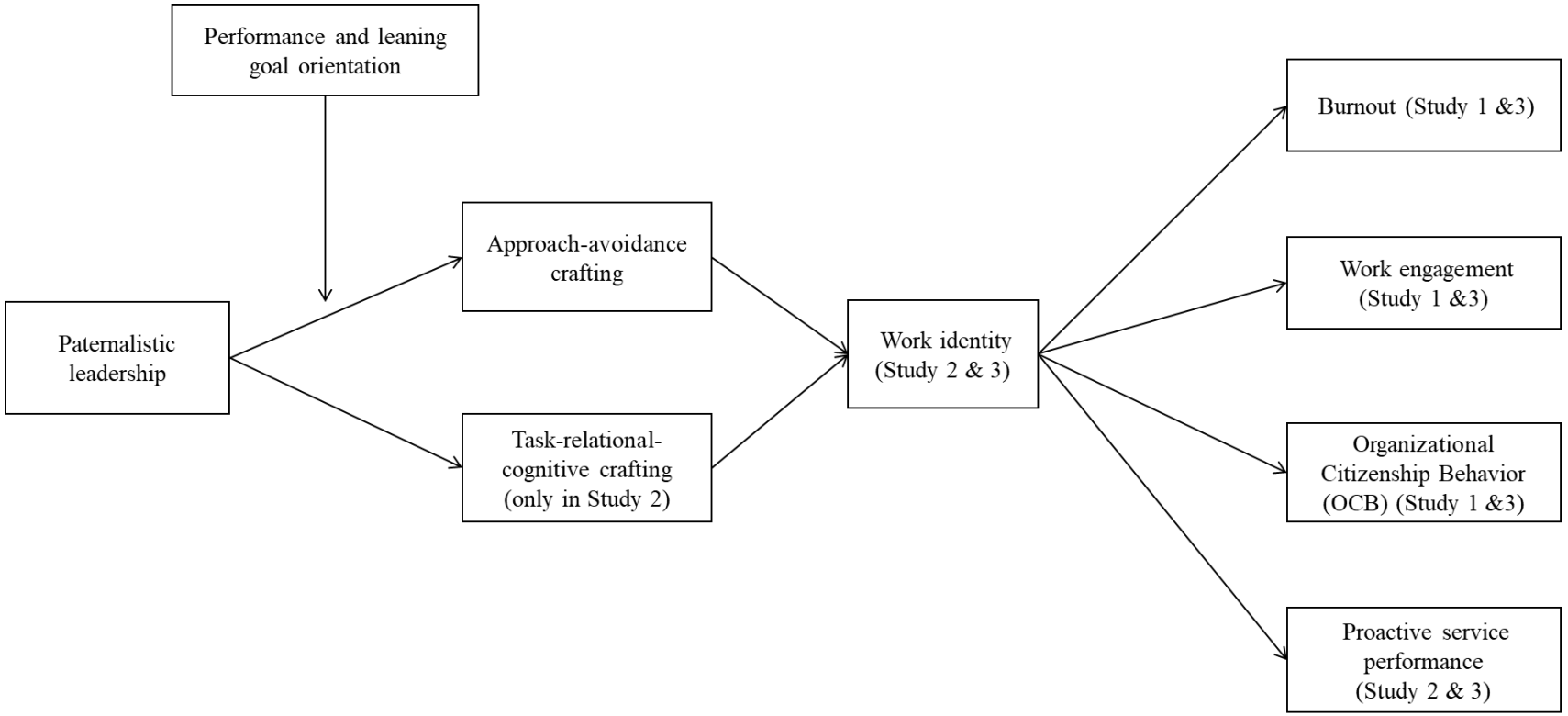
Study 1 (N= 318) addresses the first and two research question: how paternalistic leadership influences employee approach and avoidance crafting and how individual characteristics moderate these relationships. In approaching these issues, I first review the literature on paternalistic leadership and job crafting, and then provide hypotheses. Second, individual performance and learning goal orientation were investigated as moderators. Finally, I test the relationship between approach-avoidance crafting to individual burnout, work engagement, and OCB. This study provides empirical evidence arguing the antecedent effect of paternalistic leadership on employee job crafting.

Study 2 (N= 104) focuses on addressing the second and third research question- the impact of job crafting on work identity, and the influence of job crafting and work identity on employee outcomes. This study examines a multi-dimensional work-related identity resulting from individual job crafting. I draw on Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) conceptual model of job crafting and hypothesize about the links between job crafting to work identity. I conceptualize job crafting in form of approach-avoidance

aspects (Zhang & Parker, 2019) and task, relational and cognitive crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The effects of these two forms of job crafting are discussed. The results demonstrate the importance of considering individual job crafting as a factor that helps develop and strengthen work identity. This study enhances our understanding of job crafting and serves as a predictor that influences work identity.

Study 3 (365 employees from 82 teams) attempts to address the above research issues in a realistic hospital context. Different from Study 1 and 2, Study 3 was a multilevel study of data nested with medical groups. Based on a multilevel model of paternalistic leadership (Farh et al., 2008), the effects of benevolence and authoritarianism are studied from both individual and team level. In the individual-level, employee perception of benevolence and authoritarianism are believed to influence individual approach and avoidance crafting. This leads to stronger or weaker work identity, and influences burnout and work engagement. In the team-level, team perception of benevolence and authoritarianism are assumed to affect team-level aggregated approach and avoidance crafting, which further influence team-level proactive service performance. Study 3 provides a multilevel review of the effect of paternalistic leadership. It provides a comprehensive view of the effect of paternalistic leadership on employees' job crafting, work identity, and outcomes. Figure 1.1 demonstrate the theoretical model of this thesis. The three studies will be presented in separate chapters (Chapter 4, 5, and 6). Each chapter contributes an independent study. Finally, I conclude the thesis with a general discussion of the findings (Chapter 7).

Figure 1.1. Theoretical model of this thesis



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2 CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter demonstrates the theoretical framework of this thesis. I first demonstrate the focal constructs of this thesis. I then integrate and extend previous work and propose a theoretical model to guide the three independent studies of this thesis.

2.1 Paternalistic leadership

Leadership is a social process that has been extensively researched by behavioral science, and it is widely accepted that it plays a vital role in organizations and has a direct impact on group processes and outcomes. This section provides a critical review of the literature on paternalistic leadership (PL) highlighting its essential role in follower outcomes.

2.1.1 Benevolence and authoritarianism

Over the previous decades, India and China have emerged as strong participants in technology innovation and commercial investment worldwide. The growing interest in these non-western cultures has prompted scholars to explore more about the leadership styles in these countries (e.g., Wang et al., 2014; Ma & Tsui, 2015; Peus et al., 2015). Paternalistic leadership is a pervasive leadership style across Asian, Middle Eastern and Latin-American cultures (Zhang, et al., 2015). Chiefly, based on GLOBE's project, scholars have found PL is recognized across cultures, especially in high-power distance and collectivists countries (House et al., 1999; House, et al., 2004; Mansur, 2016). PL refers to a leader's non-work and work-related behaviors of showing personal care, kindness, and genuine concern for followers' holistic well-being, in addition to actions that demonstrate strong discipline and authority

(Farh & Cheng, 2000). The expected leader-follower relationship has been described as similar to a relationship between parents and their children (Chen & Farh, 2010). Cheng (2004) recognized there are three elements of PL, which are benevolence, authoritarianism and morality. Benevolence refers to the leader's care and involvement in the subordinates' well-being and interest. Authoritarianism means leaders' efforts to utilize authority and control over followers for compliance. Morality refers to one's selfless behaviors and moral ethics that are embraced by others. Paternalistic leadership is effective in promoting team performance in context with high power distance, specifically in areas such as the military, sports, and business areas (Aycan, et al., 2013; Aycan, 2006). The concept of PL is rooted in the Chinese indigenous Confucianism philosophy (Farh & Cheng, 2000). A leader under Confucianism fulfilled two main roles: as a paternal figure and an exemplar. In the paternal role, the leader treats followers as family members and shows genuine concern for their well-being (Bedi, 2020). As an exemplar, the leader will lead as a role model through unselfish behavior such as not asserting power for one's personal gain, and not taking revenge in the name of public interest (Cheng et al., 2004). The core notion of PL is that it simultaneously shows the enactment of two seemingly paradoxical leadership behaviors (Aycan, 2006). This is consistent with the traditional Chinese "Yin-yang" philosophy as the benevolence and authoritarianism sides serve as complementary and form a united whole strategy to lead the team (Bedi, 2020).

As a leadership construct, PL is distinct from similar constructs such as transformational leadership, LMX and ethical leadership. Hiller et al. (2019) found that PL explained the unique variance of employee outcomes above and beyond transformational leadership, with LMX in a meta-analytic regression. Pellegrini, Scandura and Jayaraman (2020) indicated that PL is distinct from the leader-

member exchange (LMX) from social exchange, decision-making and supervisor support forms. However, the authoritarianism in PL is somewhat in contrast in theory to transformational and LMX (Bedi, 2020). From a theoretical perspective, as they all involve leaders showing individual care for their followers, paternalistic leadership shares conceptual overlap with transformational leadership and LMX (Cheng et al., 2004). Benevolence emphasizes demonstrating care and concern for subordinates' well-being in both occupational and personal spheres. This involves making an effort to create a family-like atmosphere in the workplace, to be aware of the significant life events and milestones of the employees, and to offer suggestions for follower's daily life. However, transformational leadership and LMX restrained leaders' efforts to deliver support and coach within the work domain. This is a key differentiator between these and benevolence. Accordingly, benevolent leadership behaviors display predicted variance over transformational leadership and LMX leadership (Hiller, et al., 2019). Authoritarian leadership is another dimension of paternalistic leadership that attracts a lot of attention as a "dark side" example of leadership (Harms, et al., 2018). It includes actions such as scolding followers, demanding unquestioning obedience and asking for decision-making power (Cheng, et al., 2004). Harms et al (2018) noted parallel measures in their review between abusive supervision and the authoritarian aspect of paternalistic leadership. However, researchers noticed the authoritarian dimension of paternalism does not connote a leader presenting dark traits but rather a relationship in which subordinates actively replay parental care and protection by exhibiting compliance (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). The main purpose of using authority for paternalistic leaders is to "get things done" with highly-centralized decision-making power. In Hiller et al.'s (2019) study, the authoritarianism of paternalistic leadership showed a low correlation with abusive supervision, which proved the difference

between these two leadership constructs. With dedicated differences, PL captures different leadership aspects from other leadership constructs. Particularly the authoritarianism can facilitate followers to behave as required but also has negative effects on employee job performance, commitment, intention to stay at an organization (Schaubroeck et al., 2017), perceived justice (Gumusluoglu, Aygun & Hu, 2020), ethical voice (Zheng, et al., 2021), and can also trigger deviant workplace behaviors (Jiang et al., 2017). Given the competing intent of benevolence and authoritarianism enactment in PL, scholars adopt different approach to study PL as a unified construct or a construct with different dimensions. The positive effect of high benevolence may mitigate or suppress the negative effect of authoritarianism on employee performance (Wang et al., 2018). A unitary measurement by simply aggregating benevolence and authoritarian behaviors ignores the nuanced difference of each dimension of PL. Empirical studies have shown that authoritarianism has a negative correlation with benevolence and morality. Furthermore, authoritarianism is negatively associated with subordinate outcomes (Schaubroeck et al., 2017; Gumusluoglu, Aygun & Hu, 2020; Zheng, et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2017). On the other hand, benevolence and morality have a positive association with each other and display positive relationships with these outcome variables (Hiller et al., 2019). These findings suggest that an overall paternalistic leadership construct is not very useful, and the scales should be used separately (Farh et al., 2006). According to Hiller et al (2019), the manifestation of benevolence and authority captures the core essences of PL and morality is not necessary as a separate dimension. Many scholars suggested to study the benevolent and authoritarian dimension of paternalistic leadership separately. For example, Westwood (1997) suggested that paternalistic leadership is effective in the Chinese business context because it meets the "twin requirements" (compliance and harmony) of successful leadership. Sinha

(1990) suggested that the coexistence of benevolence and authority in paternalistic leadership stems from values in traditional societies pertaining about the parental figure, who is nurturing, and caring but also authoritative and demanding. Chan et al (2014) argued that the understanding of morality as a universal dimension of paternalistic leadership is unclear and may not have a significant influence on its effectiveness. Wang et al. (2018) highlighted that the essence of paternalistic leadership is its paradoxical dimensions which are benevolence and authoritarianism.

Several studies have explored the interactive effects of the three PL dimensions. The three dimensions of paternalistic leadership may mutually reinforce each other in producing interactive effects that go beyond their individual main effects. For example,

Therefore, in this thesis, I followed the suggestions of Hiller et al. (2019) and investigate PLwith studying its dimensions separately. Specially, I focused on the two competing dimensions as the essence of PL, that is, the benevolence and authoritarianism.

2.1.2 Measures of paternalistic leadership

There are several measurements that scholars used to study paternalistic leadership in quantitative studies. I will discuss two scales of paternalistic leadership and discuss several methods to study this kind of leadership.

Aycan (2006) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) studied paternalistic leadership as a unitary construct. Aycan et al (2006) examined paternalism as a social-cultural dimension that influences work culture and HR practices. Paternalism represents a dyadic and hierarchical relationship between supervisors and subordinates. A paternalistic leader is defined as a leader who provides guidance,

protection and care to followers, and the subordinate in return show loyal and deferent to the supervisors. This method accesses paternalism with 5 items based on Mathur et al's work (1996). Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) then modified this measure and examined paternalism in the Turkish, Indian, and North American corporate environments. However, the items for this measure are highly skewed toward benevolence and hardly touched upon authority, which leads difficulties to conclude the effect of PL (Hiller et al., 2019).

Wagstaff et al. (2015) based on the dominance theories (Jackman, 1994) and argued that subordinates tend to perceive paternalism as an overall perception. Paternalism refers to a uni-dimensional construct that captures benevolence, control, and the interactions between benevolence and control. They argued when a leader shows both kindness and control, followers are more inclined to view them as paternalistic. A leader showing control without exhibiting benevolence is perceived as unfriendly and aggressive. Using this conceptualization, Wagstaff et al. (2015) claimed that paternalism indicates an overall judgment of the degree to which followers view their leaders as both kind and dominating. Their scale for paternalism includes 8 items that reflects subordinate's perceptions of supervisor's paternalism role without indicating specific actions. This scale can be used to examine the antecedents and outcomes of paternalism yet it has not been used by other scholars.

With regard to the uni-dimensional measures, it is possible to evaluate various of paternal leader behaviors that could subsequently lead to various follower outcomes. However, some scholars argued that authoritarianism is incompatible with the benevolence component (Zhang et al., 2015). Indeed, scholars proposed that Cheng's (2004) measurement reflects the distinct dimensions of PL (Hiller et al., 2019; Bedi et al., 2020). Cheng and her colleagues (Cheng et al., 2000, 2004) identified the benevolence,

authoritarianism and morality dimensions of PL and suggested to study effects of these dimensions separately. This measure allows scholars to interpret the distinct effect of each dimensions of PL and identify the possible contrast effect between benevolence and authoritarianism. Many scholars followed their approach and studied the three dimensions of PL separately (e.g., Erben & Guneser, 2008; Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012; Nazir et al., 2021). Some researchers adopted the latent profile approach to study the benevolent-dominant, morality-dominant, or authoritarian-dominant leadership and their effects (Chou et al., 2015; Si et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2022).

Cheng et al's (2000) three-dimensional scale is still one of the most popular and commonly used measurement for studying paternalistic leadership. Additionally, most empirical studies on paternalistic leadership are set in cultural context where the Confucian philosophies encourage the integration of both kindness and strictness (Wu et al., 2012). In order to analyse the links between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes, I use Cheng et al's (2000) measurement of PL in this work.

2.1.3 Antecedents and outcomes of paternalistic leadership

The existing knowledge of paternalistic leadership primarily emphasizes its outcomes rather than its development and mechanisms. The knowledge regarding the antecedents of paternalistic leadership is extremely limited. Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) conducted a comprehensive analysis of the literature on paternalistic leadership and identified various predictors, including the level of respect employees have for hierarchy, the organizational culture, and the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX). Additionally, Zheng (2016) conducted research indicating that employees' trust in their

supervisors can influence their perception of paternalistic leadership over time. Some scholars also indicated that paternalistic leadership may stem from the values of high power distance cultures (Cheng et al., 2004; Pellegrini et al., 2010). This was also supported by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study which discovered that paternalism is more prevalent in collectivist and high-power distance cultures (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Moreover, Bedi (2020) found the correlations between each dimensions of PL are stronger in law-enforcement industry compared to hospitality and manufacturing. This suggests the organizational sectors may also play a role in predicting employee's perception of paternalistic leadership.

The majority of current research on paternalistic leadership has primarily focused on its effects on employee work outcomes. Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) provided an overview of key outcomes in their review, including job satisfaction, commitment, flexibility, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and organizational identification. Researchers have repeatedly reported a positive effect of benevolent leadership and favorable employee outcomes (Wang & Cheng, 2020; Bedi, 2020; Hiller, 2019). For example, Bedi (2020) conducted a meta-analysis on paternalistic leadership and discovered conflicting effects of the benevolent dimension and authoritarian dimension on employee outcomes. Wang et al (2018) asserted that leadership emphasizing benevolence demonstrated a positive relationship with subordinate performance, while leadership emphasizing authoritarianism showed a negative relationship. However, the findings for the effect of authoritarian leadership remains inconsistent. Even tough authoritarian leaders do not equal with mistreatment, it can evoke negative emotions such as fear and anger (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). It has also been argued that employees tend to be less satisfied when led by highly dominant or assertive leaders (Van Vugt, 2006). In some

contexts, such as military and business, authoritarian leadership was found positively related to employee performance (Huang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018).

Recent research of leadership effect on employee job crafting shed new lights on studying PL. In the early work of Aycan et al. (2000), they found paternalism negatively impacts employee proactivity. Later, Frideder et al. (2015) recognized employees with high levels of proactive voice behavior and perceived resource management ability will experience fewer negative reactions to supervisory abuse. This study suggests employees may proactively take actions to attenuate the negative impact of perceived leader authoritarianism. Indeed, it was found that benevolence and authoritarianism had opposing relationships with job crafting (Tuan, 2018). Nevertheless, the study conducted by Tuan in 2018 lacked comprehensive exploration of various forms of job crafting. As a result, there is a gap in the literature regarding the connections between paternalistic leadership and different types of crafting behaviors.

2.2 Job crafting

Job crafting is a set of proactive behaviours that employees take to reshape work beyond and above prescribed work to fit themselves with actual conditions. Although there is a wide range of literature about the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting, scholars suggest to explore more on its relevance with leadership and other key constructs (Zhang & Parker, 2018). The following sections review key theories of job crafting and provides insights for further research.

2.2.1 Development of job crafting theory

Job crafting was embedded in the work design literature. Designing high-quality jobs has always been an important topic for managers to improve employee well-being and organizational performance. Work design, or job design, refers to "the content and arrangement of one's work tasks, activities, relationships and responsibilities" (Parker, 2014, p.662). Existing research has shown that work design influences employee work attitudes, well-being, and performance (e.g., Elsbach & Hargadon, 2006; Fuller, et al., 2006; Parker et al., 2017). The work design literature has experienced mainly five stages: sociotechnical systems and autonomous work groups; job characteristics model; job demands-control model; job demands-resources model; and role theory (Parker et al., 2017). Based on their review, I present the development of work design and job crafting theory.

The early work design theory stems from mass production in the 20th century when employees were expected to do a limited number of jobs to maximize productivity. From sociotechnical systems and autonomous work groups' perspectives, jobs were assigned to suitable employees based on their abilities. Work design in this stage involves mainly the descriptions of job duties. As Babbage (1835) and Smith (1850) maintained, employees are expected to hone their skills for fulfilling work demands and devote attention on to limited tasks. After the 1950s, job simplification and standardization were condemned in management theory for severely limiting employees' personal choice and creativity at work, especially since they did not pay regard for personal interests and preferences. To reduce counterproductive behaviors, experts began incorporating motivation into work design theories to encourage employees to take on more responsibility, autonomy, and duties. Herzberg's (1966) Motivation-Hygiene Theory called for designing work for work enrichment over job simplicity. He

suggested that work should be constructed with motivators that encourage job success, recognition, and competence growth to increase work performance. Later, Turner and Lawrence (1965) aruged the task attributes (including variety, autonomy, mandatory contact, optional interaction, knowledge and skills, and accountability) can predict employee work outcomes. Based on their theory, Hackman and Lawler (1971) developed the job characteristics model (JCM) (i.e., autonomy, variety, task identity, feedback). In their view, intrinsic motivation, and work outcomes such as job happiness, performance, and job security are influenced by the basic characteristics of work. JCM serves as a fundamental unit of analysis for work design, and it has received widespread acceptance to this day. Scholars at that time recognized job complexity, information processing, physical demands and problem-solving as core factors that influence work performance (Morgeson & Campion, 2003; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Later, Karasek (1979) proposed the Job Demands-Control Model emphasizing on the influence of physical and mental health. Accumulated evidence has shown that job demands, and job control interact to bring about negative effects such as strain and burnout for employees. Bond and Bunce (2003) argued that employees with high psychological flexibility are likely to have high job control. Xie and Johns (1995) proposed that there is a U-shaped relationship between job complexity and emotional exhaustion. Another distinctive development is Job Demands-Resources (JDR) Model proposed by Demerouti et. al in 2001. They extended the JDC model and recognized the significance of considering support (rewards, security) as resources to counter job demands. Based on the work of the JDR model, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) conceptualized job characteristics as two broad groups: job demands and job resources. The job demands refer to the sustained physical and psychological effort employees paid in work. More specifically, job demands that require increasing workload are called “hindering job

demands" which may lead to negative work outcomes (e.g., burnout, stress, turnover intentions); job demands that stimulate personal learning and growth are noted as "challenging demands". For reducing job standardization and boredom, challenging demands provide employees motivation and lead to a higher work engagement (LePine et al., 2005). Job resources refers to learning materials, opportunities, and challenges that contribute to task completion and personal development. Those resources that help to achieve goals, reduce demands, and increase personal growth are viewed as "structural resources". Resources that help to increase social networks and interactions are referred as "social resources" (Tims, et al., 2012). The JDR model provides a foundation for interpreting job crafting in terms of different dimensions (Tims et al., 2012). This will be further discussed in the following category section.

Building on earlier work, Parker et al. (2001) presented additional job characteristics that may influence a broader range of job outcomes. They explored individual and organizational mechanisms that affect job outcomes beyond motivation. Traditionally, scholars in the field of work design considered that managers were responsible for organizing tasks for employees to carry out (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, Hackman, 1980). As technology advances and market growth, it is difficult for managers to create codified job descriptions that detail the duties and behaviors that are critical to individual, group, and organizational performance (Griffin et al., 2007). To adapt to a rapidly changing market, employees are encouraged to take on flexible responsibilities to meet quickly changing and diverse client expectations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Fay & Frese, 2001). Researchers identified that work design should have more considerations such as relational social interactions, job opportunities, and proactivity (Grant & Parker, 2009). Parker (2014) proposed an expanded motivational work design model and indicated the proactive, prosocial and other perspectives of work design. The proactive

perspective emphasized the effort of job occupants that proactively construct their work Scholars have increasingly become concerned with how individuals craft jobs to fit themselves with real work situations. Bindl and Parker (2010) argued one can proactively take self-started, anticipation actions to make things happen. Employees can seek opportunities and take charge of the environment and in turn, cultivate self-efficacy (Parker, 1998). By then, scholars noticed training employees to proactively craft jobs have the potential to boost their performance. This is because they have more autonomy, higher knowledge and higher aspiration for career progression.

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2010) first introduced the concept of job crafting, which refers to the proactive actions taken by employees to modify the boundaries of their task, relational, and cognitive aspects of their work. Subsequently, researchers delved into the subject of job crafting, exploring various dimensions. They classified different types of crafting behaviors, examined the factors that influence job crafting, studied the mechanisms and outcomes of job crafting, and attempted to integrate diverse job crafting theories. Followed by their study, scholars exhibit great interest in the study of job crafting, as evidenced by a series of meta-analyses (e.g., Rudolph et al., 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Lazazzara et al., 2020).

2.2.2 Categories of job crafting

Based on Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2010) study, vast researchers followed their task-relational-cognitive crafting model and conducted both empirical and theoretical studies. Slemp eand Vella-Brodrick (2013) conducted a research and established a valid scale to measure task-relational-cognitive crafting. Leana et al (2009) extended the task-relational-cognitive model by identifying the

individual and collaborative level job crafting. Niessen et al. (2016) found individual motivational factors are connected with task, relational, and cognitive crafting.

Another prevalent approach to study job crafting is the four-dimensional model proposed by Tims et al. (2012). Tims and her colleagues combined the JDR theory (Job-demand and resource theory, Bakker & Demerouti, 2006) and framed job crafting as seeking resources and reduce demands. In specific, they argued job crafters are not about redesigning job as a whole but making changes in specific aspects (Berg & Dutton, 2008). They categorized job crafting in four forms: increasing structural resources, increasing social resources, increasing challenging demands and decreasing hindering demands. Their model offers a more empirical, quantitative evidence to study job crafting (Demerouti, 2014). Accumulated quantitative studies followed their category of job crafting and their scale to measure job crafting has been widely-used in many contexts (e.g., Nielsen & Abidgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012; Bakker et al., 2012; Wingerden et al., 2015).

In recent years, scholars attempt to extend or synthesize these two job crafting models. Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2018) proposed the promotion-prevention crafting model based on self-regulatory focus theory. Individuals craft work to fulfill personal needs based on their promotion-prevention regulatory focus (regulatory focus theory; Higgins, 1997). Promotion-focused individuals are concerned about making gains, realizing personal development, and achieving a positive end-state while prevention-focused individuals tend to avoid losses in motivation, health and performance and thus satisfy safety and security needs. They argued promotion-focused crafting provides favorable changes in tangible or intangible work role boundaries and thus is beneficial to motivation, health and

performance, and yet prevention-focused crafting has negative associations with motivation, health and performance.

Bruning and Campion (2018) borrowed the motivational theory (Elliot, 1999) as a theoretical umbrella and proposed approach-avoidance crafting. They distinct approach and avoidance crafting by the goals of making efforts. Approach crafting focused on problem-solving and self-improvement while avoidance crafting emphasized on reducing or eliminating burdens.

Zhang and Parker (2019) reviewed the job crafting literature and proposed a hierarchical job crafting model. Prior conceptualizations have tended to assume that job crafting is multidimensional. They proposed a hierarchical structure with three levels of crafting constructs that together define eight types of job crafting. Specifically, they argued that approach crafting and avoidance crafting appear to be conceptually distinct and aggregate components of an overall job crafting concept. Also, cognitive crafting and behavioral crafting have aggregate features. They further proposed that job content (resources versus demands) is a further important way to categorize job crafting concepts, and that job demands and job resources crafting are superordinate components of job crafting. In general, based on their category, there are eight forms of job crafting (for example, approach behavioral resource seeking). In terms of the highest level that captures the broadest category of job crafting, they suggested to use the term approach and avoidance crafting. The approach and avoidance motivation at a higher system level can influence regulatory focus at a lower strategic level and thus distinguished approach and avoidance crafting as the first level of their model. However, their model has not been studied empirically and lack of a measurement. Bindl et al (2019) integrated the task-relational-cognitive and

promotion-prevention model and proposed a further detailed forms job crafting with a valid measurement. However, their measurement has not been widely used.

There are also scholars simply categorizing job crafting as expansion crafting (increasing or expanding work activities) or contraction crafting (reducing work activities; e.g., Laurence, 2010; Maden-Eyiusta & Alten, 2023; Wang et al. 2018).

While job crafting is understood through different theoretical frameworks, there is a commonality in how it is conceptualized and measured. Both promotion crafting and approach crafting theories focus on expanding work tasks and relationships. In contrast, prevention crafting and avoidance crafting theories emphasize the reduction and elimination of work boundaries (Zhang & Parker, 2019). From an empirical standpoint, measures of promotion and approach crafting are aligned with Tims et al.'s (2012) theory. On the other hand, prevention and avoidance crafting pertain to the decrease in hindering demands. These perspectives provide us theoretical framework to conceptually and empirically study job crafting.

One specific area of research within job crafting focuses on exploring the interactions between different types of crafting, such as approach crafting and avoidance crafting. According to Bruning and Campion (2018), approach crafting has been found to be more effective in predicting performance compared to avoidance crafting. Recently, Tims et al. (2020) addressed this question and proposed that approach crafting could mitigate the negative effects of avoidance crafting. One evidence is that approach crafting serves as a buffer against the detrimental impact of avoidance crafting on work engagement (Makikangas, 2018). Similarly, Petrou and Xanthooulou (2020) discovered a positive relationship between reducing hindering demands and performance, particularly when individuals

engaged in other forms of crafting simultaneously. However, the findings regarding the interaction between approach crafting and avoidance crafting in predicting employee outcomes are not consistent. For example, Fong et al. (2021) examined the potential buffering effect of approach crafting on the negative association between supervisor-observed avoidance crafting and supervisor support. They reported no significant results. One explanation is that supervisors may tend to perceive avoidance crafting as detrimental to employee performance and thus distinct it with approach crafting separately.

Overall, most of the literature of antecedents and outcomes of job crafting tend to examine different forms of job crafting separately (e.g., Rudolph et al., 2017; Bipp & Demerouti, 2015; Petrou et al., 2015; Bakker et al., 2016). Followed by Zhang and Parker (2018), this thesis employed the term "approach and avoidance crafting" to refer the expansion and contraction aspects of crafting. Approach crafting refers to an individual's efforts to seek positive aspects, both behaviorally or cognitively. For example, actions to gain positive resources and challenges, address hindering demands, and actions to reframe one's work as more challenging and less hindrance. Avoidance crafting refers to actions moving away from negative aspects behaviorally or cognitively. For example, reducing interactions with people who may possibly disrupt work, thinking talking to unpleasant customers is not a part of job. In terms of measurement, I used the widely-used Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2010) and Times et al's (2012) scale.

2.2.3 Antecedents and outcomes of job crafting

Overall, the factors that predict and the outcomes of job crafting align closely with research on work design. There are several meta-analyses about job crafting indicated its predictors and influences.

Rudolph et al. (2017) looked upon individual differences, job characteristics, individual demographics as antecedents of job crafting. The individual differences include the five-factor model of personality, proactive personality, promotion and prevention regulatory focus, and general self-efficacy. They also indicated that job characteristics such as job autonomy and workload can predict job crafting. Despite individual differences, Makikangas et al. (2017) added team features (team cohesion, climate) and organizational context (engaging leadership and team resources) as antecedents for job crafting. Zhang and Parker (2018) demonstrated a comprehensive model that encompasses more antecedents, including job characteristics (such as job autonomy, task identity, job enlargement, job resources, job demands, etc.), individual differences (demographics, organizational rank, big-five personality, regulatory focus, etc.), motivational characteristics (self-efficacy, perceived self-competence, psychological capital, etc.), and social context (leadership, expectations, contracts' job characteristics, etc.).

Prior meta-analysis about job crafting are limited with the quantitative evidence while ignoring the qualitative studies. Lazazzara et al. (2020) noted this and summarized the process of job crafting based on 24 qualitative studies. Their research indicated that individuals are motivated to conduct job crafting behaivors based on their proactive or reactive motive. Proactive motives involve employees' desire to proactively engage in job crafting in order to achieve desirable objectives, whereas reactive motives are associated with the necessity to respond to challenges and overcome adversity. They also identified the contextual factors such as organizational climate, job characteristics, and leadership, that determines the patterns of different job crafting forms. When the context is supportive, proactive motives are more likely to be connected with approach crafting. In contrast, when under a constrain context, individuals are more likely to engage in avoidance crafting no matter they are driven by

proactive or reactive motives. This indicates that a leader who demonstrates support is likely to encourage employees to engage in approach crafting, while a leader with authority may prompt employees to avoid taking on additional responsibilities.

In recent years, leadership as an important factor that predicting employee job crafting has appeals large attention of scholars. Some studies have examined the influence of leaders on promoting employee job crafting, but the existing knowledge is primarily focused on specific leadership styles. In response to this research gap, this thesis specifically explores the role of paternalistic leadership and compares the distinct effects of its benevolent and authoritarian dimensions on various job crafting forms.

Rudolph et al. (2017) provided a summary of the outcomes of job crafting, categorizing them as job attitudes, well-being, and work performance. Job crafting was found related to job attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment (Laurence, 2010), and turnover intention (Esteves & Lopes, 2017). It also related to employee well-being in terms of burnout (Demerouti, 2015), job strain (Petrou & Bakker, 2016), work engagement (Bakker et al., 2012). There is also evidence shown job crafting predicts employee job performance (Times et al., 2015).

Several gaps exist in the outcomes of job crafting literature. First, current research of job crafting was mostly set in specific contexts. Lazazzara et al. (2020) advocated for further research exploring various job crafting contexts, highlighting their dual role in both motivating job crafting and shaping its specific forms. In response to their call, this study delves into job crafting within the healthcare setting, where doctors and nurses operate within established guidelines but have discretion to try different work methods.

Second, with adding a motivational perspective on job crafting, we can now empirically find the beneficial and detrimental effects of approach and avoidance types of crafting. Overall, approach crafting is assumed as beneficial to individual themselves and also organizational performance. Studies have shown that approach crafting reduces turnover intentions (Esteves & Lopes, 2017) and improve organizational commitment (Cheng et al., 2016), and motivation to work beyond retirement age for older employees (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2016). Moreover, approach crafting has been associated with improved person-job fit and performance (Rudolph et al., 2017). However, avoidance crafting was found negatively related to work engagement and job satisfaction (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2016). Zhang and Parker (2018) proposed conducting additional research to examine the impact of approach-avoidance oriented crafting, with a particular focus on exploring the negative consequences of avoidance crafting.

Third, job crafting is proposed to influence not only the tangible but also intangible work roles. This proposition is supported by primary research, which shows that individuals can change their professional identities by job crafting (Stobbeleir et al., 2019). However, the current research on job crafting is insufficient in directly testing the proposed changes in intangible work role boundaries (Lichetenthaler & Fischbach, 2018). The job crafting literature still lacks a comprehensive understanding of the intangible changes, such as identification and identity changes, that occur as a result of job crafting. These aspects can be considered a "missing piece" in the current body of research on job crafting. To fulfill this gap, this work investigates the relevance between job crafting and individual work identity.

2.4 Work identity

The body of literature of work identity is very broad and sparse. Before discussing work identity, it is important to ground the discussion in its conceptualization and measures. I demonstrate previous research on work identity, exploring its formation and development, and delving into the challenges surrounding its definition and levels of study in the following sections.

2.4.1 Conceptualization of work identity

Work is essential for organizational profits and individual fulfillment (Steger et al., 2012). The recent burgeoning of research on identity is indicative of a growing conviction that work serves as a source for individuals to develop identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ibarra, 1999; Wille & Fruyt, 2014; Grant, et al., 2014). Individuals can derive identities from work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) which refers to "work identity" or "work-related identities". It can be simply defined as how one sees oneself at work place. Work identity has been reported to relate positively to job satisfaction (Johnson et al., 2006), commitment (Baruch and Cohen, 2007), emotions (Conroy, Becker & Menges, 2017), and performance (Smith et al., 2015; Welbourne & Paterson, 2017), well-being and work-family enrichment (Moon et al., 2016). It is also beneficial to buffer the frustration when individuals perceive a misalignment between their expectations and their real jobs (for example, doing "dirty work" but feeling fulfilment for helping others; Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). In light of the significant impact that identity has on predicting employee outcomes, it is crucial for organizational scholars to acquire a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of work identity. The expanded understanding of work

identity will enable scholars to develop more effective strategies and interventions to foster positive work environments, enhance employee engagement, and optimize organizational success.

Despite extensive research interests on identity, there are a lack of census on the definition of work identity (Abdelal et al., 2001). Across contexts, the term has been used with different referents. A lack of construct clarity inhibits theory development and dialogue across meta-analysis studies (Alvesson et al., 2008). It is thus essential to clarify the definition of this construct in order to provide a richer understanding of it. The concept of identity shifts depending on the context in which it is used: Firstly, it refers to the attributes that one displayed. For example, one' organizational identity refers to the values, goals, or beliefs of the organization he or she belongs to (Lane & Scott, 2007); one's professional identity refers to the stable and enduring attributes of a profession role (Ibarra, 1999). Secondly, it represents the perception of self to answer the question "who I am?" in a given context (Ashforth et al., 2008; Ashforth, 2015). The self-concept describes how individual define and view themselves (Stets & Burke, 2003). Thirdly, the item is used to refer to the role derived from social categorical membership (Stryker & Burke, 2000). The meaning of work identity exhibit variations based on different theoretical perspectives, making it challenging to establish a consistent definition. Scholars called for research in exploring work identity in different organizational contexts (Atewologun et al., 2017). In response to their call, I define work identity and construct a measurement based on the healthcare context.

Prior work studied work identity with various measures that were based on different theoretical framework. Table 2.1 presents earlier research on work identity and its definition, theory framework, and measurement. The primary focus of the largest body of research of work identity draw on social

identity theory and referred it as social memberships situated in workplace context. For example, work identity is employed to denote the memberships in different domains (Witt et al., 2002; Braine & Roodt, 2011; Moon, 2006). Some researchers studied work identity focused on how individuals acting as a unique role, manage resources relates to the role and interacts with others (Walsh & Gordon, 2007; Braine & Roodt, 2010; Welbourne &Paterson, 2017). In this vein, work identity means one's internalization of a set of roles. Scholars also defined work identity as the display of self (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Lloyd et al., 2011). For example, work identity reflects how individuals perceive work as an important or central part of self-concept (Adams et al., 2016). Based on these studies, work identity can be viewed as multiple identities that pertain to various groups or roles, rather than being confined to a singular identity. (Bothma et al., 2015, p.37). Given the fact that work identity is a multi-faceted construct, I adhered to the recommendations of Ramarajan (2014) and concentrated on dimensions that are relevant to my research objectives. I consistent with prior research on work identity and refer it as a multi-faceted construct that composed of different identities. In the following sections, I discussed the occurrence of work identity and further illustrated the work identity dimensions.

Table 2.1 Prior studies of Work Identity

Author	Journal	Theoretical lens	Definition	Study design	Measures	Sample item
Miscenko & Day (2016: 216)	Organizational Psychology Review	Role identity theory, Social identity theory	Work identity is the collection of meanings attached to the self by the individual and others in a work domain. These meanings can be based on unique individual characteristics, group membership, or social roles.	Review article	-	-
Lloyd Roodt & Odendaal (2011: 4)	SA Journal of Industrial Psychology	Role identity theory	Work identity means multi-identity, multi-faceted and multi-layered construction of the self (in which the self-concept fulfils a core, integrative function) that shapes the roles individuals are involved in, within their employment context.	qualitative	-	-
Ladge, Clair, Greenberg (2012: 1449)	Academy of Management Journal	Role identity theory	Work identity transitions recognizes a more complex process in which individuals does not necessarily disengage an old work identity but applies a new meaning to the work identity in response to a changed nonwork identity (maternal vs professional identity)	qualitative	-	-

Smith, Crafford & Schurink (2015:2)	SA Journal of Human Resource Management	Social identity theory	Work identity consists of identification in one's work domain, in other words in what one does, with whom one engages, and ow one negotiates the dynamics of change (Ibarra, 2004).	qualitative	-	-
Kirpal (2004:275)	Career Development International	Social identity theory	Work identity refers to identification with the work environment, company objectives, and the work-related activities and tasks which individuals perform that make individuals and collective productivity possible	qualitative	-	-
Thompson, et al. (2018: 1050)	Journal of Clinical Nursing	Social identity theory Role identity theory	Work identity is defined as a set of meanings attached to the individual by the self and others within the domain of employment (Gecas, 1982). In the case of nurses, work identity is based both on expectations regarding role practices, and membership of a professional group.	qualitative		

Witt, Patti, & Farmer (2002: 488)	Journal of Applied Social Psychology	Social identity theory	Work identity refers to work relevant target with which individuals primarily identifies the occupation or the organization.	quantitative	Participants were asked to select from a list of 5 constructs (occupation, 4 organizational units ranging from immediate unit to the global organization) they identified with most closely. The author then classified responses into 1) occupation identification, and 2) organizational identification.	-
Braine & Roodt (2011: 3)	SA Journal of Industrial Psychology	Self-concept	Work identity is multilayered and multidimensional. It is composed by structural dimension (individual or societal paradigms of work that are shaped by training), social dimension (social interactions), individual-psychological dimension (personal identity orientation, career development, job involvement, centrality).	quantitative	Measured by a new scale consists of work centrality, person-job fit, organizational identification, items related to job career, occupation and work (workaholism, organizational-related involvement/commitment, work-related alienation, job involvement, the function of identity)	To what extent do you regard work as the most important aspect in your life?
Welborune & Paterson (2017: 317)	Personnel Psychology	Role identity theory	Based on roles acquired at work (organization-based, team, occupation, innovator and job identity).	quantitative	Participants rated "1 not important at all" to "5 very important" of author invented role-based identity scale	Being part of the company is…

Moon (2016: 86)	Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries	Social identity theory	Work identity is the positive identity derived from social context that is favorable or valuable in some way and which is strongly related to compassion, universal virtues, and strengths	quantitative	Participants rated from "1 Strongly disagree" to "5 Strongly agree" on the positive work-related identity scale	As a member of this organization, I am moving closer to who I desire to be.
Adams, et al (2016: 124)	Psihologia Resurselor Umane	Self-concept	Identity process includes commitment, in-depth exploration, and reconsideration of commitment. Work Identity Commitment refers to the firm decisions that individuals have made regarding how important work is for their self- concept, as well as the extent to which they are committed and experience a sense of belonging to their work.	quantitative	Tilburg Work Identity Scale of Commitment and Reconsideration of Commitment （WTI-CRC）， including sub-dimensions of work identity commitment with personal, relational, social dimensions, and reconsideration of work identity	I am optimistic because of my work.
Greenhaus, Peng & Allen (2012;127)	Journal of Vocational Behavior	Self-concept	Individual's conception of high-level job.	quantitative	Measured by four indicators that increase or reinforce the salience of the work identity, including work centrality, career satisfaction, job level, annual salary	I consider my work to be very central to my experience.

Johnson et al. (2006: 498)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Social identity theory	Individuals hold multiple identities on the basis of various referent groups and that these identities are activated by situational cues.	quantitative	Participants rated from "1 Strongly disagree" to "5 Strongly agree" on identification toward veterinary medicine, practice/organization, and work group.	I am very interested in what others think about veterinary medicine / my organization/ my workgroup.
Conroy et al. (2014:1072)	Academy of Management Review	Social identity theory	Work-related identity is represented by two group memberships toward organization and occupation.	quantitative	Measured organizational identification and occupational identification	The company's successes are my successes
Dutton, Roberts, Bendar (2010: 265)	Academy of Management Review	Social identity theory	work-related identity is aspects of identity and self-definition that are tied to participation in the activities of work or membership in work-related groups, organizations, occupations, or professions"	theory paper	-	-
Walsh & Gordon (2007: 4)	Human Resource Management Review	Role identity theory	self-concept a combination of organizational occupational and other identities that shapes the role a person adopts and the corresponding way he or she behaves when performing work	theory paper	-	-

Bothma (2015: 37)	Springer: Netherlands	Role identity theory	Composed by structural dimension, social dimension, individual-psychological dimension	theory paper	-	-
Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001 :180)	Academy of Management Review	Self-concept	The way individuals define themselves at work	theory paper	-	-
Knez (2016: 331)	Frontiers in Psychology	Self-concept	Work identity is typically conceived at three different levels of inclusiveness: individual, interpersonal (relational), and collective. Work identity at the individual level focuses on the unique traits and characteristics that differentiate someone from others in a work domain. Interpersonal work identity is derived from relationships with significant others, such as one's boss or peers in the workgroup. Finally, collective identity is based on self-perceived organizational and social category membership.	theory paper	-	-

2.4.2 Work identity formation

Social identity theory and role identity theories are two dominant frameworks to explain identity formation (Bothma, et al., 2015, p29). Social identity theory assumes that individuals derive their identity from cultural, racial, gender or occupational groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). A group can be defined as a collection of individuals who perceive themselves in the same social category, who share similar emotional involvement, and who reach some level of social consensus about the membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). People develop their social identity by first comparing themselves to others and then categorizing themselves into various social groups (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). In doing so, people attach values to a group and affirm to this group identity (Pettigrew, 1986; Burke & Reitzes, 1991). Tajfel & Turner (1985) posited that individuals categorize themselves into groups for seeking belongingness and self-definition. Work grants people unique knowledge, skills, and autonomy (Larson, 1977). The characteristics of a work group provide individuals with distinctiveness to differentiating themselves from others and fostering a unique identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). A group that offers distinction and status enhancement is the main source for individuals to gain identity (Dutton et al., 1994; Walsh & Gordon, 2009). By consciously determining groups, individuals gain different memberships to enhance their understanding of self-concept (Walsh & Gordon, 2009). Through the lens of social identity, work identities are the identification of an organization, profession, or work group (Kirpal, 2004).

The social identity theory concentrates more on the meanings connected with the cognition of being a member of a group, whereas role identity theory focuses more on the

behaviors associated with executing a role position (Burke & Stets, 2009). The role identity perspective asserts that individuals conduct role choices as a function of identity conceptualization under a hierarchical salience sequence (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Individuals enact identity through acting out role expectations, managing resources for which the role is accountable for, and interacting with role partners (Hogg et al., 1995; Stes & Burke, 2003). Within this theory realm, Welbourne and Paterson (2017) explained work identity as the various roles that individuals act in workplaces. Bothma (2015) summarized the work identity formation into the following stages: classification, prototype, activation, and resulting behaviors. Through the identity formation process, individuals derive a prototype, or role identity or an identity standard. A prototype represents the characteristics (e.g., beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors) that being actively formed from relevant social groups in the immediate or longer-term social context (Hogg et al., 1995). For work identity, the prototype combines structural (culture, race groups), social (such as career identity, occupational identity, professional identity, and organizational identity), and individual-psychological dimensions (work centrality, job involvement, person-organization fit; Bothma, 2015). The prototype serves as a guide for an individual's self-concept and behavior. These in turn lead to different cognitive or motivational processes.

To sum up, both social identity theory and role identity theory indicated that work-related identities refers to identification, or identities targeted at different groups or roles.

2.4.3 Dimensions of work identity

To clarify the definition of work identity, Atewologun et al. (2017) conducted a comprehensive review of individual-level work identity, offering fresh insights for further investigation in this field. They identified three primary areas of focus commonly examined in the study of work identity: organizational-related, occupational-related, and general foci. Within the organizational-related foci, research explores identity aspects such as managerial roles, leadership positions, team dyads, and organizations. Occupational-related foci concentrate on work identity within specific occupations and professions. Lastly, the general work foci encompass a holistic view of work identity and emphasize career development.

The organizational foci include concepts such as organizational identification, leader identity, manager identity, team identity, etc. It is hard to include every possible identity or identification within one study and thus I followed recommendations of Ramarajan (2014) about studying multiple identities and focused on several constructs that are related to my research interests. Given the study focused more on identities derived from work activities rather than hierarchical roles, I exclude the leader and follower identity, team identity and other possible identities into this work but focus on the identification toward organization.

Individuals may use membership in other groups (organizational, professional groups) to shape their work identity (e.g., Witt et al., 2002; Braine & Roodt, 2011). Walsh and Gordon (2008) highlighted the distinction and status conflicts of these two primary sources of identification. They recommended to consider not only the identifications individuals may hold but the varying strength of each identities. For example, a doctor may perceive him/herself as

a member of clinical team and also a member of medical professionals. This is because the individual may perceive her organization and occupation to have distinguishing characteristics and values. Therefore, identity strength may reflect the portion of each identification and serves a part of work identity. Organizational identification (OI) refers to one's definition terms of social membership (Ashforsh & Mael, 1989). It represents one's perception of belongingness of an organization. Organizational identity strength (OIS) is the degree to which individuals perceive their identities are widely and deeply shared within and across the same group (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). It is believed to affect employee attitudes and behaviors (Zargar, et al., 2014; Cole & Brunch, 2006). OIS captures how unique, and special of an identity while the OI captures the enduring, central, and distinctiveness of an organizational belief, value, or attributes (Cole & Brunch, 2006). A strong OIS allows members to recognize themselves as a group member and decide to remain in the group as they feel resonance with the identity (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2014; Ashforth & Mael, 1996). To capture how individuals see themselves as a part of organizational member and the unique status of such identification, I include organizational identification and organizational identity strength as sub-dimensions of work identity.

Another focus to study work identity is to examine identity acquired from job or occupation, profession, as well as "being professional" (Atewologun et al., 2017). Given the unique knowledge and skill sets, professionals are granted a higher degree of prestige and autonomy than non-professionals (Larson, 1977). The occupation foci reflect identities relating to the profession developed from qualifications, training, and socialization. Healthcare employees are distinguished from other professionals as they have unique medical knowledge

and skills. Professional identification refers to the self-concept in terms of performing a role in professional contexts (Hekman, et al, 2009). Employees may identify with their profession but not necessarily with their organization (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The professional membership is important for healthcare employees derive social categorization (Pietro et al., 2000). I thus include professional identification, and professional identity strength to represent the identities developed from occupational positions.

The general foci refer to studies that are related to broader topics linked to identity, such as career or work itself. The work as identity focus is distinguished by three topics: the work based on personal traits and beliefs; the centrality of work to one's sense of self; and the multiple identifications toward different targets (Atewologun, et al., 2017). Earlier research measured work centrality and work importance as work identity. (Witt, et al., 2002; Greenhaus, et al., 2012). The level to which individuals perceive their work as a significant aspect of their identity may also mirror their work identity. Work centrality displays the closeness of how individuals relate their identity to their work (Bothma, et al., 2015). The importance of identity scale (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) reflects to what extent individuals see their social membership as important to their self-concept. The need for organizational identification scale measures to what extent individuals are positively associated with a desire to be imprinted upon by an organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2044). It reflects individuals' propensity to identify themselves with their social groups (Glynn, 1998). To capture a whole picture of how individuals, see their work as essential and relevant to identity, I adopted the importance of identity scale and the need for organizational identification scale to capture the general work foci.

In conclude, work identity for healthcare employees encompasses organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and work-identity relevance.

2.2.4 Levels of study

Individuals tend to define themselves in terms of their interactions with others and larger groups based on their self-evaluations (Breckler & Greenwald, 1986). Brewer and Gardner (1996) suggested that personal, relational, and collective identities are three interrelated but separate referents for self-definition. Identities can be constructed either based on personal attributes, interpersonal relationships, or intergroup distinctions (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Most of the identity research has concentrated on a particular level of analysis. Different studies conceptualize identity at each level of analysis, making an all-inclusive definition of identity impossible (Ashforth et al., 2011). Personal identities are conceptualized based on personal traits and characteristics (Brewer & Gardner, 1996); the relational identities are founded in dyadic relationships such as manager and subordinate roles (Brewer & Gardner, 1996); collective identities are associated with memberships of demographic, occupation, or culture groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Individuals may hold personal, relational, and collective identities simultaneously (Ashmore et al., 2004). According to Atewologun et al. (2017), different foci of work identity studies involve personal identity (role identity), relational identity (leader-follower identity) and collective identity (organizational identification). However, in their view, work identity focused more on an individual-level construct instead of a shared meaning of collective identity

and organizational-level phenomenon. They argued work identity can be viewed as an individual-level concept as it emphasized one's sense of self that might derived from a collective sense of organizational identity.

In this thesis, the research objective was to explore the connection between individuals' work-related identities and their relevance with job crafting behaviors. Consistent with Atewologun et al. (2017), my study primarily examines individual-level work identity that occurs at workplace. I recognize the importance of identities derived from gender, ethnicity, and from other non-work activities. Nevertheless, I excluded other foci of studies that are not relevant to work activities and focused on organizational foci, professional foci, and general work foci.

To sum up, work identity is this thesis is an individual-level construct that involves organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and the centrality and importance of work.

CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORK IDENTITY MEASUREMENT

As presented in Chapter 2, there is no well-established work identity scale in the healthcare context. To access work identity, this thesis constructs a scale based on research interests. This chapter reports the results of the analysis of the work identity measurement scale adopted in Study 1, 2 and 3 to gauge the conceptualized construct. According to Hinkin (1995; 1998), three steps of scale construction include (a) item generation, (b) specifying the domain of the construct, and (c) scale evaluation. The following sections present the three steps of developing and refining work identity scale. Using data from Study 2 and 3, I conducted confirmatory factor analysis to determine the validity of the work identity scale.

3.1 Introduction

In the past decades, there has been a significant increase in the study of individual identity in the workplace (e.g., Haslam et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2016; Ellemers et al., 2004). The concept of identity addresses the fundamental question of "who am I" by examining the knowledge, meanings, and experiences that shape an individual's self-definition (Ramarajan, 2014, p. 593). The growing interest in workplace identity is not surprising, given its demonstrated influence on behavioural intentions (Stryker & Serpe, 1982) and life (Kahn, 1990). Consequently, identity and identification have been described as root constructs (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000, p. 13). However, despite the widespread interest in examining identity within the workplace, there are at least two specific areas that needs further research in order to gain a deeper understanding of identity at work. First, further investigation is needed to understand how identity is influenced by organizational contexts and how these contexts

shape the focus of identity. (Brwon, 2015). Second, a hierarchical perspective on multiple identities may bring new insights on studying work-related identities (Ramarajan, 2014). A multiple, hierarchical perspective on work identity allows for providing a more comprehensive understanding of individual behaviours while little research has been done in this regard.

Previous studies identified work identity as a multi-faceted, multidimensional construct (Johnson et al., 2006). However, the conceptual discrepancies using different theory umbrellas makes it difficult to have consistent measures of work identity. Establishing a measurement of work identity is important for testing its relationships with other key organizational constructs. Prior scholars have attempted to measure this construct by developing different instruments (see Figure 2.1). For example, Witt et al (2002) asked employees listed five key constructs that they identified with and then classified those identities into organizational or professional related identification group. Johnson et al (2006) measured work identity by accessing identification toward organization, work group, and profession. Nevertheless, the existing measures of work identity are employed in different contexts. Johnson et al. (2006) measured work identity of the veterinary professionals. Welbourne and Paterson (2017) used sample of employees from manufacturing, technology and service industry. The variations in measures and contexts pose a challenge when attempting to address research questions concerning work identity. According to suggestions of Ramarajan (2014), a narrow focus on situational or contextual factors can help to understand multiple identities. Therefore, to address the research questions, this thesis focused on the work identity of the healthcare employees. Given the absence of an established work identity scale specifically designed for healthcare employees, I developed a measurement tool to assess it with a hierarchical lens. Despite the fact that all the

variables measured in these scales were derived from previous research, it was necessary to assess their reliability and validity due to the limited operationalization of these variables within the healthcare context. After conducting an evaluation of scale reliability, this study utilized confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the validity of the scales. Section 5.3 provides a detailed description of the CFA, which was employed to examine the proposed measurement models and theories regarding the underlying structure using the collected sample data (Roberts, 1999; Thompson, 2004).

3.2 Scale development

As discussed in 2.4 (Chapter 2), work identity is defined as a multidimensional and multifaceted identities that are derived at workplace. In this thesis, work identity reflects organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength and the centrality and importance of work. Organizational identification reflects to what extent employees perceive themselves as a part of their organization. Professional identification refers to how individuals see themselves as a member of professional groups. Organizational identification and professional identification was accessed with the well-established scale by Meal and Ashforth (1992). Organizational identity strength and professional identity strength were measured with 4 items adapted from Kreiner and Ashforth (2014). Work and identity relevance reflects how individuals perceive work as an important part of their identity. This was measured with work centrality (Luhtanen & Crocker,1992) and the need for identification scale (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2014). Items from these scales are adapted to match with the healthcare context. For example, I asked employees

to reflect on their healthcare work experience before starting the survey. The referent was changed from "organization" to "my hospital" and from "work" to "medical work".

In the end, there are 28 items for the whole scale (see Table 3.1). For the ratings, response anchors ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The primary purpose of this scale is to measure the construct of interest, that is, the work identity of healthcare employees. To match the survey with the Chinese context, I followed Brislin's (1980) translation and back-translation procedure to ensure that scales were parallel in Chinese. A team of bilingual translators consisting of two doctoral-level and five master's-level management scholars conducted the translation-back-translation procedure.

Table 3.1 Work identity full scale and subscales with source

Work identity measure

All items answered on a 1-5 likert-type scales.

Organizational foci

a) Please reflect your work experience in your hospital and indicate how the following statements apply to your feeling to your hospital. (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

organizational identification (5 items, adapted from Mael & Ashforth ,1992)

1. I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes my hospital.
2. I am very interested in other's comments about my hospital.
3. When I talk about my "workplace", I usually say "we" or "our organization" instead of the name of the hospital.
4. I am proud of the success of my hospital.
5. I am happy when someone praises my hospital.

Organizational identity strength (4 items, adapted from Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004)

6. There is a common sense of purpose in the hospital I worked in.
7. My hospital has a clear and unique vision.
8. There is a strong feeling of unity in my hospital.
9. My hospital has a specific mission shared by its employees.

Professional foci

b) Please reflect your work experience as a member of your medical profession and indicate how the following statements apply to your feeling of your medical work. (1= Strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree)

Professional identification (5 items, adapted from Mael & Ashforth ,1992)

10. I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes my medical work.
11. I am very interested in other's comments about my medical work.
12. When I talk about my medical work, I usually say "we" instead of "those doctors/nurses/or any other professions ".
13. I am proud of the success and developments made in my professional field.
14. I am happy when someone praises my profession in general.

Professional identity strength (4 items, adapted from Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004)

15. There is a common sense of purpose of my profession.
16. My profession has a clear and unique vision.
17. There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.
18. My profession has a specific mission shared by its members.

General work foci

c) Please reflect your work experience in general and indicate how the following statements apply to your work. (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

The importance of identity (4 items, adapted from Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)

19. Overall, being a medical employee relates to how I feel about myself.
20. Being a medical employee is an important reflection of who I am.

21. Being a medical employee is relevant to who I am as a person.
22. In general, being a medical employee is an important part of my self-image.
The need for identification (6 items adapted from Kreiner & Ashforth, 2014)
23. Without my medical work, I would feel incomplete
24. My work as a medical employee gives me a sense of success or failure.
25. An important part of who I am would be missing if I didn't do this medical job.
26. Generally, I feel a need to identify with my medical work.
27. Generally, the more my goals, values, and beliefs overlap with my medical work pursuit, the happier I am.
28. No matter where I am, I'd like to think of myself as representing medical work.

3.3 Content validation

Prior to data collection and participant recruitment, the study was approved by the ethical review board of Durham University. The validation process of work identity measurement involves data from Study 2 (104 online healthcare employee sample) and Study 3 (365 hospital sample). For detailed information of participants and collection procedures, please see Chapter 5 and 6. As the participants for Study 2 and 3 were both recruited from the healthcare industry, the data for Study 2 and 3 are combined as one dataset for work identity scale validation. For the separated analysis of Study 2 and 3, please see Appendix I. In the end, there are 104 participants for Study 2 and 365 participants for Study 3, combined into a dataset with 469 respondents.

The construct validation results are presented here jointly before the instrument being employed in each separate study. Prior to specifying and testing factor models of work identity, data screening for missing data and inter-correlations among sub dimensions was tested in SPSS. To examine the proposed measurement models and determined which best fitted the higher-order work identity measure, CFA was conducted in Mplus 7.4 (Brown, 2006; Jackson

et al., 2009). Followed by Crede and Harms's (2015) suggestions, I present the CFA results with higher-order model and other alternative models. In the following analysis, I compare the model fit of the hypothesized model with other alternative models. For model fit indices, I adopt the chi-square statistic and the related p-value, the comparative fix index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR). According to Kline (2005), a good model fit is indicated by a small ratio (<3) between the chi-square and the degrees of freedom ($\chi 2$/df), by a CFI and TLI above 0.90, an RMSEA below 0.05.and an SRMR under 0.10.

3.3.1 Preliminary analyses

On data screening, no missing data was found. Measure of Kurtosis and skewness are sued to determine the normality of the data (Kline, 2005). A skew curve is either positively or negatively skewed. A positively one indicates most scores below the mean, and a negatively skew means the opposite. Kurtosis is a measure to determine if the distribution is too peaked (Hair, et al., 2017). Finney & DiSefano (2006) and Hair et al (2010) suggested acceptable values of skewness fall between -2 and +2, and kurtosis is appropriate between -7 and +7. The Skewness and Kurtosis score for the subscales and total work identity scale are all fall within acceptable values. Table 3.2 presents the means, SDs, and correlations of work identity total and subscales.

The standard deviations for work identity variables are relatively small. This indicates participants are inclined to rate items with similar answers. Healthcare employees are recognized by their specific expertise and professional membership (Waring & Currie, 2009).

The small standard deviation might because the medical professions share a relatively stable and strong identification toward their organization and profession, which leads to similar answers to the work identity scale. The high interrelations among sub-scales indicated the potential existence of a broader, overarching concept. The work-identity full scale is significantly related to all dimensions.

3.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation was employed to examine the fit of the hypothesized work identity model as well as four alternative models. Prior to CFA, I employed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy and Bartelett's Test of Sphericity to determine if the data is appropriate for factor analysis. As presented in Table 3.3, the KMO measure were above .8, indicating a meritorious sampling fit. The Barlett's Test of Sphericity were significant. These results demonstrated the data were appropriate for factor analysis (Bartlett, 1950; Kaiser, 1974)

Table 3.2 Descriptive statistics for work identity total and subscales

Variable	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Work identity full scale	4.42	0.49	-. 971	0.502	1					
2.Organizational identification	4.41	0.58	-1.144	1.52	.809**	1				
3.Organizational identity strength	4.56	0.58	-1.201	2.197	.788**	.639**	1			
4.Professional identification	4.43	0.61	-1.055	0.413	.868**	.720**	.630**	1		
5.Professional identity strength	4.58	0.52	-1.425	1.956	.842**	.600**	.748**	.688**	1	
6.Work-identity relevance	4.43	0.59	-. 818	0.331	.893**	.572**	.569**	.674**	.678**	1

Notes: N=469, p<.05, p<.01**, p<.001***

Table 3.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity in the work identity scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.949
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	6499.842
	df	378
	sig	.000

The scale consists of 28 items which are hypothesized to load on organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and work-identity relevance dimensions. Table 3.4 presents the model fit for the hypothesized model and other alternative models. The model fit for the hypothesized model is ($\chi 2$= 1183.875, df=345, CFI/TLI=.867/.855, RMSEA= .072, SRMR=. 56). Results shown the hypothesized model has a reasonable fit except the value for Chi-square divided freedom is relatively high (above 3 but lower than 5). This might because of the relatively small sample size. The hypothesized model provides a better model fit than other alternative models. Thus, work identity in this thesis was measured by sub-dimensions. In the following studies (Study 2 in Chapter 5 and Study 3 in Chapter6), work identity was measured by an overall score of organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and the work-identity relevance. Table 3.5 presents the factor loadings for the full scale and sub-scales. All factors have factor loadings above 0.4.

Table 3.4 Model fit comparison of CFA test for work identity scale

	χ2	df	△χ2	△df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
1. Hypothesized model	1183.875	345	-	-	.072	.867/.855	.055
2. Model A	1391.038	345	.60	0	.081	.835/.819	.059
3. Model B	1174.519	347	.04	-2	.071	.869/.858	.057
4. Model C	1545.124	360	-.86	-15	.086	.811/.796	.063
5. Model D	This model cannot converge properly						

Notes:

1. Hypothesized model: organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, work-identity relevance loaded on a higher-order work identity construct

2. Model A: factors loaded on organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, work-identity relevance separately

3. Model B: combined organizational identification, organizational identity strength as one organizational-related identity, combined professional identification, professional identity strength as one professional-related identity, and work-identity relevance

4. Model C: all items loaded on one latent factor

5. Model D: bi-factor model, items loaded on organizational identification, professional identification, work-identity relevance separately, and all items loaded on work identity at the same time

Table 3.5 Confirmatory factor loadings for work identity and the sub-scales

Work identity full scale		Factor loading
1	Organizational identification	0.903
2	Organizational identity strength	0.936
3	Professional identification	0.969
4	Professional identity strength	0.963
5	Work-identity relevance	0.841
Sub-scales		
Organizational identification		
1	I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes the central hospital.	0.476
2	I am very interested in other's comments about the central hospital.	0.507
3	When I talk about this hospital, I usually say "we" or "our central hospital", instead of "they".	0.448
4	I am proud of the success of the central hospital.	0.513
5	I am happy when someone praises the central hospital.	0.487
Organizational identity strength		
1	There is a common sense of purpose of the central hospital.	0.479
2	The central hospital has a clear and unique vision.	0.517
3	There is a strong feeling of unity in the central hospital.	0.559
4	The hospital has a specific mission shared by its employees.	0.479
Professional identification		
1	I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes doctors / nurses.	0.529
2	I am very interested in other's comments about doctors / nurses.	0.58
3	When I talk about my profession, I usually say "we doctors / nurses" instead of "those doctors / nurses".	0.502

4	I am proud of the success and developments made in my professional field.	0.499
5	I am happy when someone praises doctors / nurses in general.	0.525
	Professional identity strength	
1	There is a common sense of purpose of being a doctor / nurse.	0.432
2	Being a doctor / nurse has a clear and unique vision.	0.498
3	There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.	0.468
4	Being a doctor / nurse has a specific mission shared by its members.	0.422
	Work-identity relevance	
1	Overall, being a doctor / nurse relates to how I feel about myself.	0.577
2	Being a doctor / nurse is an important reflection of who I am.	0.615
3	Being a doctor / nurse is relevant to who I am as a person.	0.526
4	In general, being a doctor / nurse is an important part of my self-image.	0.562
5	Without my medical work, I would feel incomplete	0.678
6	My work as a doctor / nurse gives me a sense of success or failure.	0.343
7	An important part of who I am would be missing if I quit being a doctor / nurse.	0.648
8	Overall, being a doctor / nurse relates to how I feel about myself.	0.442
9	Being a doctor / nurse is an important reflection of who I am.	0.474
10	Being a doctor / nurse is relevant to who I am as a person.	0.489

Notes. *N=469*

3.3.3 Reliability

To test the reliability of work identity scale, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was employed as an indicator (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). A Cronbach's alpha above 0.7 is acceptable. The reliability is acceptable for both subscales and work identity full scale. Table 3.6 presents the reliability results for each subscale of work identity. Overall, internal consistency for work identity total was excellent.

Table 3.6 Reliability of work identity scale and sub-dimension

Construct	reliability
Work identity full scale	.93
Organizational identification	.74
Organizational identity strength	.84
Professional identification	.79
Professional identity strength	.83
Work-identity relevance	.82

N=469

3.4 Discussion

This chapter aims to construct a valid scale for measuring the work identity of healthcare employees. Confirmatory factor analysis procedures were conducted to identify the appropriate measurement structure of the proposed instrument. In summary, the work identity measure includes the following sub-scales: organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and the work-identity relevance.

3.4.1 Theoretical implications

The work identity scale contributes to a better conceptual and methodological understanding of work identity. First, the results of this analysis may support the arguments regarding the multiple facet nature of work identity (Lloyd, et al., 2011; Wash & Gordon, 2007). The new measure provides empirical tool for researchers and organizations to access work identity of employees. Also, the methodology of validating work identity scale might be useful for researchers looking to investigate other foci of work identity. Furthermore, given the multi-dimensional nature of work identity, it may help to interpret the congruence of incompatible identities (Kourti, et al., 2018; Greenhaus, et al., 2012).

3.4.2 Practical implications

The work identity measure may bring implications for healthcare organizations. Work identity influences the way people think and act in workplace (Walsh & Gordon, 2007). It has been found associated with job satisfaction (Johnson, et al., 2006) and performance (Welbourne & Paterson, 2017). The work identity measure can be used for recruitment, promotion and employee training.

3.4.3 Limitations

First, the work identity measure for this thesis only looked at the organizational-, the professional-, and the general work foci. Based on Atewologun et al's (2017) summary, including more foci of identities may extend the knowledge of work identity. For example, future studies can explore leader or manager identity as a focus of study.

Second, the measure focused on healthcare professionals and thus may reduce its generalization. Healthcare professionals are characterized by unique medical knowledge and skills, as well as professional memberships. This may result in a small variation of the responses to the work identity scale. I thus suggest future studies include different professionals to test the validity of this scale.

Third, another limitation is small sample size which may bring bias to the interpretation of the results. Finally, the work identity measure was validated by self-reported survey. This may raise same-source bias.

CHAPTER 4 (STUDY 1) THE ROLE OF PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE JOB CRAFTING

This chapter addresses research question 1 "How does paternalistic leadership influence employees' approach and avoidance crafting?" and question 2 "How does individual characteristics moderate the relationship between paternalistic leadership and approach-avoidance crafting?" First, I develop hypotheses pertaining to paternalistic leadership as an antecedent of employee approach-avoidance crafting. Above that, individual performance and learning goal orientation are tested as moderators of the relationships between paternalistic leadership and approach-avoidance crafting. Then, the chapter describes the empirical methods employed for testing these hypotheses and depicts the respective results. It concludes by discussing the outcomes of Study 1, acknowledging its limitations, and describing its implications for research and practice.

4.1 Introduction and intended contributions

Leadership is important for a wide range of psychological and industrial processes (Antonakis et al., 2019). Recently, there has been renewed interest in the effects of top-down leadership on individual proactivity (Skakon et al., 2010; Wang, et al., 2011). Job crafting is defined as a proactive behavior that captures individuals' self-initiated efforts to change the quantity and quality of job resources and demands at work (Tims, et al., 2012). The bottom-up process of job crafting is a significant driver of employee well-being and performance (Rudolph et al., 2017). Recently, considerate research has grown up around the topic of leadership and job crafting (Dash & Vohra, 2019; Thun & Bakker, 2018; Esteves & Lopes, 2017; Wang, et al.,

2017; Tuan, 2018). Studying leadership as a contextual factor is beneficial for the fostering of proactivity to enhance organizational performance (Parker, et al., 2010). The prevailing body of research suggests that a leadership style that grants followers support, resources and autonomy is likely to promote employees' job crafting (Dash & Vohra, 2019; Wang, et al., 2017). In contrast, a leadership style that reduces employee decision-making and autonomy is likely to impede employee job crafting (Esteves & Lopes, 2017). Paternalistic leadership refers to leaders' behaviors that demonstrate legitimate authority and considerate personal care for followers' overall well-being in both work and non-work domains (Hiller, et al., 2019). With a few exceptions (e.g., Tuan, 2018), studies interpreting the effects of paternalistic leadership on job crafting are scare. As a prevalent leadership style among non-western cultures (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), studying paternalistic leadership can broaden the understanding of leadership effectiveness across cultures and social contexts (House, 2004). In the healthcare context, paternalistic leadership plays a crucial role in achieving the overall control of clinical treatment and patient service delivery (Jackson et al., 2013; James and Bennett, 2021). Benevolence and authoritarianism are the essence of paternalistic leadership. The two competing elements of paternalistic leadership are often considered separate and contradictory constructs (Chan et al., 2013; Wang, et al., 2018). So far, however, there has been little discussion about the effect of paternalistic leadership on job crafting. It is hoped that this research will contribute to a deeper understanding of the cultivation of healthcare employee job crafting through paternalistic leadership.

Recent work by Zhang and Parker (2019) argued the approach-avoidance approach (Bruning & Campion, 2018) provides a more nuanced and integrated view for studying job

crafting. However, there have been few empirical investigations into the antecedents and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting. Prior studies found individual and contextual characteristics influencing job crafting (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Tims & Bakker, 2012; Katrinli, et al., 2010). However, the mechanisms that underpin approach-avoidance job crafting are not fully understood and the boundary conditions of job crafting need further exploration (Zhang and Parker, 2019). Individuals' motivational factors play a crucial role in predicting job crafting. Scholars called for more research to interpret the interplay between individual motivational factors and contextual factors on predicting proactivity (Parker et al., 2010). Individual learning and goal orientation is one of the motivational factors that could determine how employees react to leadership and conduct crafting behaviors. There is little research in this area, despite an empirical study conducted by Matsuo (2019) that attempted only to test learning goal orientation. In this thesis, individual performance and learning goal orientation are investigated as well as their interactions with paternalistic leadership. The findings should contribute to the boundary condition of approach-avoidance crafting. Additionally, approach and avoidance crafting might differentiate in the effect on employee outcomes. The present study extends previous studies on approach-avoidance crafting by indicating work identity as a mediator. Using approach-avoidance crafting and work identity as mediators, this study offers an explanation for the effect of leadership on employee burnout, work engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) by linking benevolent leadership to authoritarian leadership.

The objectives of this study are to fulfil the above-discussed gaps by broadening extant knowledge about the antecedents and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting. First, by

empirically testing paternalistic leadership as an antecedent, I extended the understanding of the organizational factors predicting approach-avoidance crafting. Secondly, by examining individual goal orientation as a boundary condition, I hope to contribute to a deeper understanding of the mechanism of job crafting in healthcare organizations. Finally, I aim to advance knowledge of the outcomes (burnout, work engagement, and OCB) of approach-avoidance crafting. In the following sections, I will present the study's theoretical background and develop relevant research hypotheses on the role of paternalistic leadership on approach/avoidance crafting, the interaction effect of performance and learning goal orientation, and the mediation effect of PSS. I will then outline the study results and discuss theoretical and practical contributions, limitations, and directions for future studies.

4.2 Theory and hypotheses

4.2.1 Paternalistic leadership and job crafting

Although many researchers have suggested that leadership has an impact on employee job crafting, the evidence supporting this is dispersed. I argue benevolent leaders promote employee's motivation to conduct approach crafting but not avoidance crafting.

Benevolent leadership increases employee's material and social resources. Benevolence emphasized treating followers as family members and supporting them within and out workplace. The support is more than just being helpful in work matters but involves caring for personal difficulties and favor-giving in the long-term. Similar to the individualized consideration of transformational leadership, a paternalistic leader satisfies employee feelings and needs (Cheng, et al., 2004). Leader's benevolence increases employee's taking-charge

behaviors (Xu et al., 2018). In paternalistic leadership, leaders foster their high-quality relationships with followers not via economic transactions but through interpersonal attachment (Pellegrini, Scandura & Jayaraman, 2010). There is more evidence demonstrating the positive effect of benevolence on employees' affective trust (Chen, et al., 2014), voice (Chan, 2014), innovative behavior (Tian, et al., 2017). This directly increases the interactions between leaders and followers thus strengthening their positive connections. When supervisors demonstrate care and support, employees tend to engage in reciprocal actions (Coloquitt et al., 2007). Individuals who believe their leader to be caring and considerate will reciprocate this attitude by devoting in job activities and social interactions. Therefore, employees are encouraged to take more responsibilities beyond prescribed job and expand social interactions with others with a benevolent leadership.

Meanwhile, employees' evaluations of leader benevolence may lead them more committed to the organizations (Rehman & Afsar, 2012; Chen et al., 2019). Benevolent leadership foster employee's organizational citizenship behavior that is beneficial for the organizations as resources are allocated for productive endeavors (Karaksa & Sarigollu, 2012). Benevolent leaders foster an environment where employees are motivated to exert effort towards achieving organizational goals, while also discouraging any actions that may undermine the organization's interests for personal reasons. Put it differently, employees are more inclined to accept assigned tasks in order to meet the expectations set by their leaders. Benevolent leaders may not necessarily encourage avoidance crafting, which involves eliminating unnecessary tasks based on personal interests.

To sum up,

H1. Benevolence is positively related to approach crafting (H1a) but negatively related to avoidance crafting (H1b).

The authoritarianism dimension of paternalistic leadership required leaders to use authority for employees' compliance and obedience. The main goal of exerting authority is to make sure the leader's order is being commanded and even though it may be contrasted against the follower's willingness. Authoritarian leaders utilize punishment and scolding to employees based on personal preferences and behavioral standards when employees break rules and show disobedience (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). Employees are more hesitant to speak up their voices and take extra-role effort when their supervisors show more submission to authority (Li & Sun, 2015; Schuh, Zhang & Tian, 2013). Authoritarian leaders are taking control rather than granting employees control over their work. From this perspective, authoritarian leaders seldom encourage employees to explore alternative possibilities without seeking their permission, as it may be perceived as a potential threat to task completion.

Evidence shows authoritarian behaviors are negatively related to i-deals, which is, an individual's effort to arrange work in line with an employer or customer for a mutual benefit (Luu & Djurkovic (2018). Authoritarian behaviors are found to evoke unpleased emotions and diminish the likelihood of an employee's feeling as involved as an organizational member (Chen et al., 2014; Schaubroeck, Shen & Chong, 2017). It has also been argued that followers are not satisfied with overbearing or aggressive leaders and may quit the group even if the overall group performance is well (Foels, et al., 2000; Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt, et al., 2004). Given subordinates in an authoritarian manner have fewer positive emotions toward work, they

are less likely to interact with co-workers or take extra effort to conduct job crafting for their social needs. Instead, employees are expected to comply with authoritarian leaders and adhere to established routines in order to complete tasks.

To sum up, I propose:

H2. Authoritarianism is negatively related to approach crafting (H2a) but is positively related to avoidance crafting (H2b).

4.2.2 Moderating role of performance and learning goal orientation

More often than not, healthcare professionals need to acquire new clinical knowledge and anticipate patient needs in order to provide high-quality patient care. Addressing these issues require launching new clinical projects, understanding patient needs, and completing tasks, all of which are associated to achieving goals. Goal orientation is currently one of the most frequently studied motivational variables in the goal achievement process. Parker et al. (2010) indicated individual differences such as goal orientation could interact with leadership and predict employee proactive motivations and changing behaviors. Nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research examining the role of individual goal orientation as moderators in predicting job crafting. The importance of studying goal orientation lies in the fact that it plays a crucial role in leadership (Lee & Paunova, 2017), feedback seeking (Payne et al., 2007), organizational performance (Marques-Quinteiro & Curral, 2012), and newcomer learning (Tan et al., 2016). In order to address the existing gap in the literature and shed light on understanding individual differences in job crafting, this study investigates the role of goal orientation as moderators in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting.

Pintrich (2000) and Elliot & Thrash (2001) noted that there is no uniform definition of goal orientation, and different researchers may use the same term to refer to distinct processes. DeShon and Gillespie (2005) reviewed the tenets of goal orientation and summarized its definitions into four categories: goals, traits, quasi-traits, and beliefs. In this thesis, I am interested only in goal orientation at a relatively stable stage and am not concerned about the within-person variability over situations and time. Here, I adopt a disposable approach and refer to goal orientation as a stable individual characteristic that might be changed by situations (Button et al., 1996; Mangos & Steele-Johonson, 2001). Button et al (1996) indicated that goal orientation should be broken down into two distinct dimensions of learning goal orientation (LGO) and performance goal orientation (PGO) [1]. LGO is characterized as a strive to achieve personal growth and flourish by engaging in the acquisition of novel skills and tackling new challenges. People with high LGO view setbacks and failures as opportunities to receive

[1] It has also been recommended that PGO be divided into two components: performance approach orientation (providing competence) and performance avoidance orientation (preventing incompetence from being demonstrated, Elliot & McGregor, 1999, 2001; VandeWalle, 1997). There are studies set in the healthcare context involves three types of goal orientation: learning orientation, performance approach orientation, and performance avoidance orientation (Drach-zahavy & Somech, 2015). However, since I am interested on goal orientation as an individual characteristic rather than achievement (Elliot & McGregor, 1999), I align the literature (Matsuo, 2018; Prewett et al., 2013) that focuses on two types of goal orientation: learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation. This study does not address differences in PGO across dimensions.

feedback and utilize this feedback to improve themselves (Noordzji et al., 2013; de Motta Veiga & Turban, 2014). On the other hand, PGO is characterized by a preference for demonstrating abilities, especially compared to peers (Sliver, et al., 2006). Individuals exhibiting high PGO are primarily concerned with receiving favorable judgments regarding their competence upon positive task performance or avoidance of challenging situations (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). In the event of failure, performance goal-oriented individuals are likely to attribute it to low ability and may consequently withdraw from the activity (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980). Deshon and Gillise (2005) proposed a motivated action theory (MAT) to address issues in goal orientation literature. They argued that 1) action is directed towards goal attainment, 2) goals are hierarchically structured, 3) lower-level and higher-level goals are interconnected, activation levels determine which goal guides behavior, and 4) situational features interact with activated goals to affect individual choice and behavior. Based on MAT, actions are undertaken to minimize the discrepancy between desired goal achievement and the current states. Individuals or even the same person at different times may perceive such discrepancy differently based on their motivational structures (Lord et al., 1979; Simon, 1994). Particularly, DeShon and Gillespie (2005) connoted that one's active goals affect their perception of the situation which leads to different behaviors (the Person x Situation Dynamics). They argued it is essential to understand how an individual's goals influence their perception of a situation, which in turn activates goals that lead to actions. MAT explains how different goal orientation types lead to different perceptions of the same situation. For example, a 360-degree feedback, depending on one's goal orientation, could be helpful and informative in some cases while threatening self-esteem or affiliation in others.

Leadership is an important situational factor that guides, motivates, and affects followers (Avolio et al., 2004), and it plays a significant role in employee's actions (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Depending on the employee's goal orientation, the leadership he or she receives may have a different effect on the outcome. Brett & VandeWalle (1999) argued LGO involves learning new skills and mastering new situations with the goal of becoming competent. Individuals with high LGO may perceive demands as challenges to overcome for a sense of achievement (Deshon & Gillespie, 2005). Scholars suggest that individuals who are learning-oriented tend to invest more resources into task and problem solving, as well as being more open to changing and novel situations (Chen & Mathieu, 2008; VandeWalle, 2001). One example is Marques-Quinteiro and Curral (2012)'s study in which they found LGO is positively related to proactive work role performance. It is possible that learning goal orientation may amplify the positive effects of benevolent leadership on employee proactivity. Employees who have a high LGO may be more likely to take advantage of the opportunities and resources provided by a benevolent leader and engage in approach crafting that benefit themselves. Also, as learning-oriented individuals focus on self-learning and growth, they are more likely to consider job demands as challenges rather than hindrances, thus conduct less avoidance crafting.

H3a. LGO strengthens the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and approach crafting. Individuals with high LGO conduct more approach crafting compared to those with low LGO when they have benevolent leaders.

H3b. LGO strengthens the negative relationship between benevolent leadership and avoidance crafting. Individuals with high LGO conduct less avoidance crafting compared to those with high LGO when they have benevolent leaders.

Individuals pursuing LGO are likely to define competence self-referentially (Deshon & Gillespie, 2005; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1998). They may be less susceptible to distraction from negative feedback from leaders, as they prioritize their personal pursuit of self-improvement over external influences. Consequently, employees rely more on their own judgments rather than being swayed by punitive actions or criticism from authoritative leaders. When individuals prioritize their personal endeavors, they increase the likelihood of implementing changes at their workplace without facing negative feedback from authoritarian leaders. Moreover, individuals who have a strong desire for learning tend to view demands as opportunities for personal growth, making them more inclined to take additional responsibilities rather than avoiding them.

Therefore,

H4a. LGO weakens the negative relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting. Individuals with high LGO conduct more approach crafting compared to those with low LGO when they have authoritarian leaders.

H4b. LGO weakens the positive relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting. Individuals with high LGO conduct less avoidance crafting compared to those with low LGO when they have authoritarian leaders.

Performance-driven individuals are sensitive to judgments and under a lot of stress when they take risks (Button, et al., 1996; LePine, 2005). Individuals who have a high PGO tend to be more willing to engage in activities that are perceived to be straightforward or with

a low likelihood of mistakes. (VandeWalle, 2001; VandeWalle, et al., 1999). Based on MAT, the perception of situation at a given time depends upon the current active goals. In the situation when individuals are performance-driven, they tend to validate and demonstrate the adequacy of competence (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999) and more using normative standards to evaluate current performance (Deshon & Gillespie, 2005). Such people are less likely to make changes or undertake challenging tasks because they believe they are more prone to mistakes and failure. From this perspective, individuals who prioritize performance tend to complete tasks in a predictable manner, rather than exploring alternative possibilities. Despite benevolent leaders being forgiving towards employees, there is still a tendency for employees to stay within their comfort zone and avoid unnecessary tasks.

H5a. PGO weakens the positive relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. Individuals with high PGO conduct less approach crafting compared to those with low PGO when they have benevolent leaders.

H5b. PGO weakens the negative relationship between benevolence and avoidance crafting. Individuals with high PGO conduct more avoidance crafting compared to those with low PGO when they have benevolent leaders.

On the other hand, authoritarian leaders typically establish strict rules and provide clear instructions, which may be perceived by performance-oriented individuals as indicators for a high-performance standard. In such situations, these individuals may prioritize task completion over exploring new possibilities or taking on additional responsibilities. The fear of making mistakes or falling short of expectations from the authoritarian leader becomes a significant

concern, leading to a tendency to avoid crafting and sticking to well-defined, routine tasks. Therefore,

H6a. PGO strengthens the negative relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting. Individuals with high PGO conduct less approach crafting compared to those with low PGO when they have authoritarian leaders.

H6b. PGO strengthens the positive relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting. Individuals with high PGO conduct more avoidance crafting compared to those with low PGO when they have authoritarian leaders.

4.2.3 Outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting

Work engagement

Overall, empirical studies suggest that approach crafting and avoidance crafting leads to the opposite effect on employee well-being and performance outcomes (Rudolph et al., 2017). Scholars have emphasized the need for further research to understand the adverse consequences of avoidance crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018).

Work engagement is described as a proactive and positive state in relation to work, characterized by traits such as vigor, dedication, and absorption (Bakker et al., 2014). In the job crafting literature, work engagement has been extensively examined as one of the foremost indicators of employee well-being. According to the JD-R model (Demerouti, et al., 2001; Sonnentag, 2017), job demands, and resources are closely relevant to work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Demerouti et al., 2001). As job crafting

involves the active shaping of job resources and demands, it has the potential to exert an influence on work engagement.

Job resources are crucial motivational factors that help to foster an individual's development and satisfy autonomy needs, as well as facilitate willingness to devote one's efforts to work. As employees have the ability to tailor resources based on personal needs, they are more motivated to engage in work. Crawford, Lepine and Rich (2010) indicated the appraisal of job demands affect how individuals engage in their work. They found that when employees see demands as challenges that would help them grow and develop, they are more likely to participate in work, but when they see demands as extra hindering demands, they are less likely to engage in work. By conducting approach crafting, individuals seek structural, and social resources and more importantly, see demands as challenges. It is assumed that approach crafting helps to enhance work engagement as individuals are motivated to actively perform their work.

On the contrary, avoidance crafting refers to a reduction of hindering demands. Scholars have argued that as individuals conduct job crafting based on their interests rather than organizational benefits (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and avoidance crafting can trigger withdrawal behaviors as employees would step away from unfavorable job demands (Zhang & Parker, 2019). In this sense, avoidance crafting harms work engagement as individuals tend to avoid taking on extra tasks.

H7. Approach crafting is positively related to work engagement (H7a). Avoidance crafting is negatively related to work engagement (H7b).

Burnout

Burnout research is crucial as it contributes to understanding the health and performance impacts of work-related stress (Shirom, 2005). Scholars argued a lack of job resources can also trigger burnout (e.g., Bakker et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). A lack of job resources makes it impossible for employees to meet expectations or achieve goals. Job resources play a crucial role in satisfying fundamental human needs, including autonomy, relatedness, and competence, as proposed by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This suggests individuals with substantial resources are better equipped to fulfill demands and shield themselves from the stress of resource shortage (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In this case, the likelihood of successfully completing the task and achieving the work objective for employees is higher. In contrast, if individuals lack sufficient job resources for task completion, they may have withdrawal and diminished motivation, i.e., the motivational component of burnout, as a self-protective mechanism to avoid extra energy cost.

Challenging job demands refer to demands that can facilitate self-growth, development, and learning. They are linked to an active problem-solving approach (LePine et al., 2005). Despite the demanding nature of challenging demands that necessitate hard work from employees, employees are motivated to invest efforts in work because they anticipate rewarding outcomes. Indeed, challenging job demands were found positively related to job satisfaction in a meta-analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Van den Broeck et al. (2010) suggested the challenging demands were not related to exhaustion. Approach crafting involves seeking both structural and social resources. From this perspective, individuals could allocate a larger pool of resources

which helps to complete tasks and protect themselves from strain. Approach crafting, which entails increasing challenging demands, has minimal associations with burnout as it does not lead to energy depletion.

To fulfill work expectations, employees must invest persistent effort to satisfy perceived job needs which are being accompanied by a rise in compensating psychological expenses that consume employees' energy. During this energy depletion process, individuals progressively drain up from a loss of energy and the accumulation of stress. Long-term high job demands from which employees can not sufficiently rehabilitate may lead to sustained anxiety, tiredness, and exhaustion – the energetic component of burnout (Sonnentag, 2017). Job demands that hinder personal growth, impede goal achievement, and disrupt optimal functioning are perceived as stressful (LePine et al., 2005). As avoidance involve reducing hindering demands, it may reduce burnout.

H8. Approach crafting is negatively related to burnout (H8a). Avoidance crafting is negatively related to burnout (H8b).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

One important feature of job crafting is that employees take extra tasks or responsibilities voluntarily. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is a concept to indicate the voluntary behaviors that are not recognized by the formal reward system but have a good overall influence on the organization (Organ, 1988). OCB involves participating in activities that are beyond job descriptions that employees take on a voluntary favor. Those behaviors are aimed at improving one's own or the organizational performance, preserving with extra effort

to complete one's job, volunteering to take additional responsibilities, and encouraging others to do the same. All these voluntary acts imply that employees go "above and beyond" responsibilities. Podsakoff, et al. (2000) indicated various antecedents of OCB including employee abilities and individual differences, task characteristics along with organizational characteristics. Job crafting might be related to OCB as it influences task characteristics and employee abilities. Scholars found employees are likely to reinvest more personal resources into helping others across the organization when they received resources (such as support, trust, and feedback) from colleagues (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015; Farmer, et al., 2015; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Approach crafting involves seeking resources including support and feedback from supervisors or peers to complete tasks. Therefore, approach crafting facilitates employees to conduct more OCB. This argument was supported by Shin and Hur's (2018) study where they found daily-level increasing resources and challenge demands was positively associated with daily OCB. Avoidance crafting assumes individuals take few tasks to reduce personal workload, and thus leads to less possibility of voluntarily undertaking extra.

H9. Approach crafting is positively related to OCB (H9a). Avoidance crafting is negatively related to OCB (H9b).

4.2.4 Mediating role of job crafting

Evidence shown both benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership are associated with individual burnout (Liou et al., 2007; Harms, et al., 2016), work engagement (Bedi, 2020); and OCB (Tang & Naumann, 2015). Benevolent leadership promote individuals conduct more

approach crafting and less avoidance crafting. Ultimately, this process could result in higher or lower well-being and performance. Also, authoritarian leadership encouraged employees engage in more avoidance crafting but less approach crafting, which leads to different outcomes. I thus hypothesize an indirect effect of benevolent leadership on work engagement/ burnout / OCB through approach / avoidance crafting. I also hypothesize an indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on work engagement/ burnout / OCB through approach / avoidance crafting.

H10: Benevolent leadership will have an indirect relationship with **work engagement** via approach crafting (H10a), or avoidance crafting (H10b).

H11: Authoritarian leadership will have an indirect relationship with **work engagement** via approach crafting (H11a), or avoidance crafting (H11b).

H12: Benevolent leadership will have an indirect relationship with **burnout** via approach crafting (H12a), or avoidance crafting (H12b).

H13: Authoritarian leadership will have an indirect relationship with **burnout** via approach crafting (H13a), or avoidance crafting (H13b).

H14: Benevolent leadership will have an indirect relationship with **OCB** via approach crafting (H14a), or avoidance crafting (H14b).

H15: Authoritarian leadership will have an indirect relationship with **OCB** via approach crafting (H15a), or avoidance crafting (H15b).

Table 4.4 (in page 86) contained a list of the hypotheses proposed in this study, along with the corresponding results from hypothesis testing.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Sample and procedure

The participants for Study 1 were recruited from an online survey platform (https://www.wjx.cn/) of China. An invitation link was sent to participants who work at healthcare organizations (hospitals, healthcare welfare centers, medicine industry, etc.) All respondents gave informed consent prior to the survey collection and received monetary compensation for completion. Participation was completely voluntary, and confidentiality was assured. Ethical approval was received from the Durham University. I translated the original survey from English to Chinese and then back-translated it by professional bi-language translators to check the language accuracy. Participants who did not complete the whole survey nor failed to pass attention check questions were eliminated. The entire data collection lasts for three weeks. In total, 510 questionnaires were distributed, and 318 valid samples were collected.

Of the participants, 73.3% were doctors, 16.7% were nurses and 10.1% were other healthcare professions. Most of them were female (60.4%). Of all respondents, 21.1% completed postgraduate education, 72.3% completed a bachelor's degree, and 6.6% had a lower vocational background. 71.1% of respondents were employees without supervision position, and 28.9% were supervisors who need to coach followers. About 4.1 % had worked in their current organization for less than 1 year, 22.3% had a tenure between 1-3 years, 23.3% had 3-5 years of tenure, 35.2% had 5-10 years of tenure, 10.4% had 10-15 years of tenure and 4.7% had a tenure over 15 years.

4.3.2 Measures

The measures for this study including paternalistic leadership, approach-avoidance crafting, learning & performance goal orientation, burnout, work engagement and OCB.

Paternalistic leadership. Participants rated benevolence and authoritarianism of PL with 20 items (Cheng, 2004) from "1 Strongly disagree" to "6 Strongly agree". Benevolence was captured by 11 items. A sample question is "My supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us". Authoritarianism was assessed with 9 items. A sample item is "My supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely". The internal reliability coefficient was 0.90 for benevolence, and 0.85 for authoritarianism.

Approach-avoidance job crafting. Respondents rated approach crafting by 15 items by Tims et al. (2012). The scale captured increasing structural resources (e.g., "I try to develop my capabilities", 3 items, α=.62), increasing social resources (e.g., "I ask my supervisor to coach me", 5 items, α=.76), and increasing challenging demands (e.g., "When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker", 5 items, α=.75). A reliability is .82. Avoidance crafting was assessed by 6 items of reducing hindering demands of Tims et al. (2012). A sample is "I make sure that my work is mentally less intense", α=0.52.

Learning orientation and performance orientation. The learning orientation and performance orientation were assessed with the Goal Orientation Scale (Button, et al., 1996). Learning orientation was measured with 7 items (e.g., "The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me") with α=0.70; performance orientation was captured by 10 items (e.g., "I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly") with α=0.75.

Work engagement. Employees rated their work engagement on a 9-item scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2006). A sample item is "At my work, I feel bursting with energy". The Cronbach α=0.85.

Burnout was measured by Malach-Pines and Ayala's (1988) Burnout Measure Short Version. 10 items (e.g., "I feel tired") are used with α=0.90.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). To measure OCB, I used an 8-item scale of Spector et al (2010). A sample item is "I took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker". The Cronbach α=0.75.

Control variables. For enhancing the accuracy of our study, I controlled several variables which may impact the relationships between our focal variables. Consistent with prior research, individual's gender (female=1, male=0), age, management level (leader=1, follower=0), profession, and work tenure were controlled in our analyses to avoid potential effects on dependent variables. I also included work autonomy and work interdependence as control variables since previous research has linked these two variables with employee's job crafting behaviors and burnout, work engagement (Parker & Ohly, 2008; Tims and Bakker, 2012; Parker, Bindl and Strauss, 2010). Work autonomy and interdependence was captured with 15 items (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006) with a Cronbach's α of .90 and .78, respectively. A sample item for autonomy is "I can schedule my own work". A sample item for interdependence is "My job requires me to finish my work before others complete their job". Further, there are accumulated research suggesting the predicting effect of proactive personality on job crafting (Crant, 2000; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach; 2018; Li, et al., 2014). I controlled for individual's proactive personality (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) to examine the

effect from paternalistic leadership to job crafting above and beyond proactive personality. For measuring proactive personality, 10 items from Seibert et al 's work (1999) was adopted. The reliability is .82. A sample item is "I am constantly on the lookout for the new ways to improve my life".

Endurance. Since the questionnaires were designed as self-reported and were collected at only one point in time, we recognize the potential issue of common method variance (CMV) as suggested by Podsakoff et al (2003). For assessing and adjusting the for CMV, I followed Lindell and Whitney's (2001) recommendations for survey design and selected an additional variable expected to be theoretically unrelated with the study variables. I measured physical endurance with 3 items (Marsh, Martin & Jackson, 2010). A sample item is "I can run a long way without stopping". The reliability is .87.

4.3.3 Data analysis strategy

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations (SD), Cronbach's alpha and correlations of the variables) were computed by using SPSS 24. The hypotheses of this study were tested within the structural equation modeling (SEM) framework using the Mplus 7.4 program (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). Given the large number of estimated parameters compared to relatively small sample size, I followed suggestions of Hall et al (1999) and parceled the items for each construct (at least 3 parcels per construct). In specific, I adopted the single-factor method, that is to parcel the factors with highest loadings and the lowest loadings until all items were exhausted (Landis et al., 2000). Maximum Likelihood (ML) was used as the method of estimation. Prior to hypotheses testing, a series of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

(CFA) was conducted to identify construct validity. Followed by suggestions of Kline (2005) the model fit was estimated using the following indices: the chi-square statistic and the related p-value, the comparative fix index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR). I considered values of CFI above .90 to represent adequate fit, and values close to .95 to represent a good fit; RMSEA and SRMR values below .08 were considered to be acceptable (Keith, 2014).

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

According to Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), prior to assessing the fit of our whole model fit, we first conduct a Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to identity distinct constructs with goodness-of-fit indices for further analysis. The baseline 9-factor model was comprised of the hypothesized latent constructs for benevolent leadership, authoritarian leadership, approach crafting, avoidance crafting, work engagement, burnout, OCB, learning goal orientation, and performance goal orientation. The baseline model was then compared to alternative models that explained the variance in the same indicators with a lesser number of factors. In CFA results, the model fit indices for the baseline model are acceptable. The 9-factor baseline model had a superior model fit than other parsimonious models ($X^2(288) = 589.602$, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .918/900, RMSEA=.057, SRMR= .065). Table 4.1 shows the CFA results.

Table 4.1 Fit comparison of CFA factor models for Study 1

	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Baseline model	59.602	288	-	-	.057	.918	.900	.065
Model A	624.331	269	36.323	9	.059	.911	.894	.067
Model B	932.455	269	341.501	9	.082	.827	.795	.084
Model C	771.339	296	183.485	9	.071	.871	.847	.078
Model D	1112.378	303	523.276	17	.092	.780	.745	.085
Model E	754.452	315	261.571	35	.066	.880	.867	.084
Model F	2075.156	324	1586.76	45	.130	.524	.484	.109

Notes. N = 318

Hypothesized Model: 9 factor models: benevolent leadership, authoritarian leadership, approach crafting, avoidance crafting, performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, burnout, work engagement, OCB.

Model A: 8-factor model, combining approach and avoidance crafting as one job crafting construct

Model B: 8-factor model, combining benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership as paternalistic leadership

Model C: 8-factor model, combining learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation

Model D: 7-factor model, combining outcome variables of burnout, work engagement, and OCB

Model E: 1 latent factor model

Model F: 1 factor model, loading all items on one factor

4.4.2 Common method issues

I followed Lindell and Whitney's (2001) procedure of making a partial correlation adjustment of the predictor variable and dependent variables. They argued that the smallest correlation among the manifest variables or between predictors and dependent variables provides a reasonable proxy for CMV. I conducted a partial correlation between benevolence and approach crafting, the correlation is positive and significant (r = .534, p<.001). After introducing the marker variable endurance, the bivariate correlation was still significant (r = .482, p<.001). For other correlations, introducing marker variable does not influence the significance of their correlation. These results suggest the result interpretation cannot be accounted for by CMV.

4.4.3 Preliminary analysis

Table 4.2 reports means, SD, zero-order correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of study variables for Study 1.

Table 4.2 Descriptives and Correlations for Variables in Study 1

		Mean	SD	reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Benevolence	4.05	0.86	0.92	1							
2	Authoritarianism	3.34	0.90	0.87	-.324**	1						
3	Approach crafting	3.59	0.51	0.81	.534**	-0.084	1					
4	Avoidance crafting	3.43	0.55	0.52	0.075	.148**	.153**	1				
5	LGO	3.74	0.55	0.7	.367**	-.164**	.460**	0.106	1			
6	PGO	4.15	0.45	0.75	-0.074	.286**	0.039	.226**	.151**	1		
7	work engagement	3.69	0.64	0.85	.509**	-.153**	.525**	.255**	.554**	0.085	1	
8	Burnout	2.46	0.83	0.9	-.434**	.363**	-.257**	-0.085	-.359**	0.097	-.476**	1
9	OCB	3.53	0.51	0.78	.455**	-.149**	.591**	.117*	.357**	0.045	.506**	-.262**
10	Proactive personality	5.05	0.79	0.83	.511**	-.141*	.554**	0.098	.511**	0.042	.501**	-.322**
11	Job autonomy	3.32	0.83	0.9	.366**	-.235**	.296**	-0.037	.205**	0.055	.290**	-.246**
12	Job interdependence	3.24	0.80	0.79	0.014	.134*	0.059	.135*	0.033	0.064	-0.019	0.09
13	gender				0.025	-.156**	-0.04	-0.067	0.097	0.009	0.011	0.031
14	age				0.038	0.101	.111*	0.029	-0.075	0.045	0.077	-0.064
15	education				0.06	0.062	.205**	0.055	.174**	0.045	.154**	0.032
16	profession				-.149**	-0.02	-.191**	-0.068	-0.024	0.038	-.184**	.119*
17	position				-.184**	.128*	-.139*	0.062	-0.029	0.082	-.151**	.217**
18	tenure				-0.016	.113*	.146**	0.059	-0.081	0.024	.121*	-0.096

(Continued)

		9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
10	Proactive personality	.399**	1								
11	Job autonomy	.180**	.355**	1							
12	Job interdependence	0.072	-0.059	-.299**	1						
13	gender	0.018	-0.011	-0.021	0.044	1					
14	age	.140*	0.067	.118*	0.002	-0.051	1				
15	education	0.087	.162**	0.102	-0.036	-0.049	0.102	1			
16	profession	-.190**	-0.069	-0.097	0.036	.190**	-0.044	-.183**	1		
17	position	-.191**	-.199**	-.140*	0.044	0.107	-.300**	-0.096	.114*	1	
18	tenure	0.092	0.064	0.097	-0.005	-0.106	.817**	0.103	-.149**	-.309**	1

Notes. N=318, p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05

The internal consistency reliabilities of most variables are good for research purposes, with values ranging from .70-.92, except from avoidance crafting with .52. Most of the zero-order correlations are in expected directions, provided preliminary support for hypotheses. Benevolent leadership is positively related with approach crafting (r = .538, p<.01; r = .266, p<.01) but not related to avoidance crafting. Authoritarian leadership is positively related to avoidance crafting (r = .148, p<.01) but not related to approach crafting. Approach crafting is negatively related burnout (r = - .269, p<.01) but positively relates to OCB (r = .593, p<.01), and work engagement (r = .528, p<.01). Avoidance crafting is not significantly related with burnout. Also, contrast to our prediction, avoidance crafting is positively rather than negatively related to OCB (r = .117, p<.05) and work engagement (r = .255, p<.01). These results provide initial support for some of the hypotheses and further examination includes control variables is needed.

4.4.4 Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, I employed a structural equation modeling (SEM) with considering the measurement error of latent variables (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). The hypothesized model is shown in Figure 4.1.

In order to first establish the direct effects proposed by H1a, H1b and H2a, H2b, I tested the following models: a) a model specifying a direct effect of benevolence on approach crafting and constrained all paths from benevolence to other dependent variables to be zero. This model had a fit of (X^2(510) =1130.009, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .865/.845, RMSEA=.062, SRMR= .14) and the path from benevolence to approach crafting was (b = .087, p<.001), which provides support

for H1a. b) A model specifying a direct effect of benevolence on avoidance crafting and constrained other paths from benevolence to other dependent variables to be zero. This model has a fit of (X^2(510) =1144.464, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .862/.842, RMSEA=.063, SRMR= .14). The relation between benevolence and avoidance crafting was not significant (*b*= .059, p= .55) which rejected H1b[2]. c) A model specifying a direct effect of authoritarianism on approach crafting and other paths to be zero (with a model fit of X^2 (510) =1143.510, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .862/.842, RMSEA=.062, SRMR= .14) and the relation from authoritarianism to approach crafting was not significant (*b* = -. 034, p=.175), thus rejected H2a. d) A model indicating a direct effect of authoritarianism on avoidance crafting and other paths to be zero (X^2(510) =1140.330, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .863/.843, RMSEA=.062, SRMR= .14). The relation from authoritarianism to avoidance crafting was positive and significant (*b* = .284, p<.05), which supported H2b.

To test the moderation effect of LGO and PGO as predicted in H3-H6, I tested the effect of the interaction term between moderators and independent variables on depend variables in Mplus. H3a predicted that LGO moderates the relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. The interaction term of LGO and benevolence shown no significant effect on approach crafting (*b*= .063, p=.62), thus rejected H3a. H3b assumed LGO moderates

[2] The relationship between benevolent leadership and avoidance crafting is significantly positive (b= .216, p<.001), if removing control variable interdependence. Other control variables have no influence on the hypotheses testing results. This may suggest individual work independence may serve as boundary conditions for individual perceptions toward their leader and may influence leadership effectiveness.

the relationship between benevolence and avoidance crafting, this was also rejected (b= -. 082, p= .454).

H4a indicated that LGO moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting, this was rejected (b = .068, p= .249). H4b proposed the moderation role of LGO between the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting, this was also rejected (b= .061, p= .564).

H5a stated that PGO moderates the relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. Individual with high PGO conduct less approach crafting with the same benevolent leader. The interaction term of PGO and benevolence shown no significant effect on approach crafting (b= .062, p= .180). There is no significant effect of the interaction term on avoidance crafting, thus rejected H5b (b = - .057, p=.605).

H6a assumed PGO moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting. This was rejected by a non-significant relationship from the interaction term of authoritarianism and PGO to avoidance crafting. (b= .093, p= .145). H6b stated that PGO moderates the relation from authoritarianism to avoidance crafting, this was rejected (b= .025, p= .761).

For testing the direct effects as hypothesized in H7-H9, I conducting the following models: specifying a direct relation from approach crafting to work engagement and constrain the path from benevolence to approach crafting, from benevolence to avoidance crafting, and from approach crafting to burnout, OCB to be zero. This model has a fit of ($X^2(510)$ =1059.157, p<.001, CFI/TLI= 873/.854, RMSEA=.060, SRMR= .13) The direct relationship from approach crafting to work engagement was significant and positive (b= .531, p<.001), thus

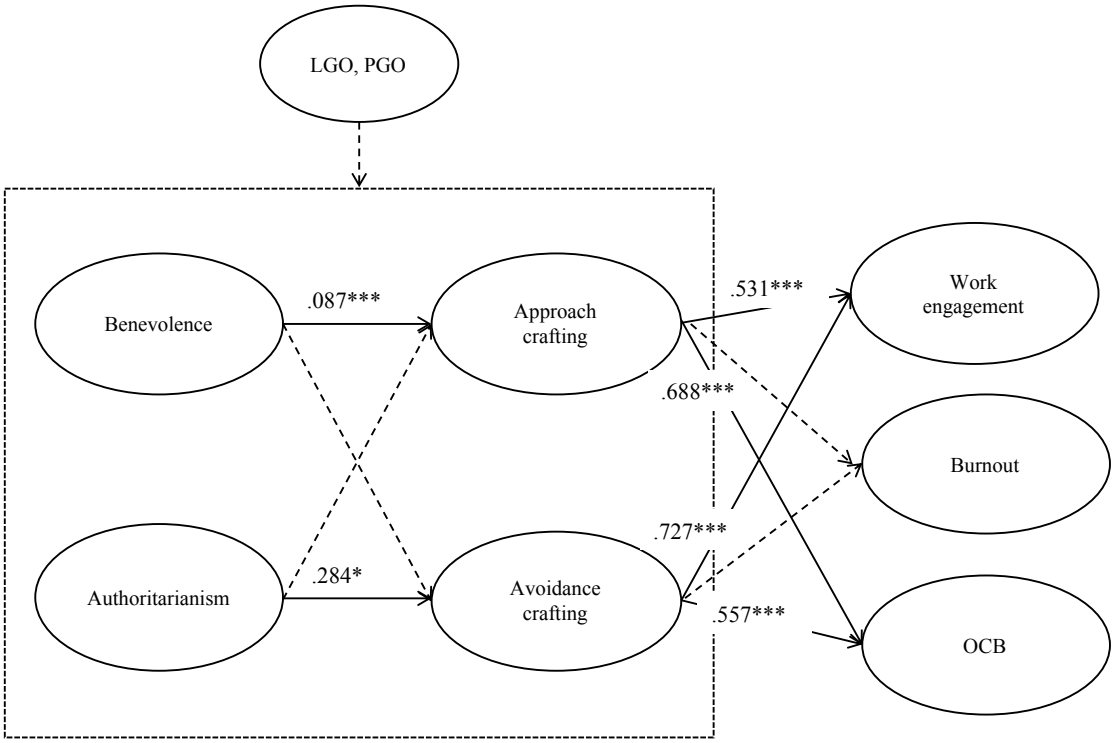
supported H7a. Similarly, I conducted a series of models which specifies only the direct relationship as predicted in hypotheses and constrained other paths to be zero. Table 4.3 presents the model fit and results. As shown in Table 4.4, the relation from avoidance crafting to work engagement was (b= .727, p<.001). This is contrary to what I assumed in H7b. H8a predicted that approach crafting negatively related to burnout, this was not supported (b = - .116, p=.15). Also, H8b which stated that approach crafting and avoidance crafting were related to burnout, was rejected (b= - .072, p= .783). Approach crafting was found positively related to OCB (b= .688, p<.001), which supported H9a. Surprisingly, avoidance crafting also shown a positive effect on OCB (b= .557, p<.001), which contradicts our initial hypothesis in H9b.

Table 4.3 Model fit and results of the direct relationships between job crafting and outcomes

Model	Predictor variable	Outcome variable	Chi-sq	df	RMSEA	CLI/TFI	SRMR	*b*	p-value
a	approach crafting	work engagement	1059.157	510	0.06	873/.854	0.13	0.531	<.001
b	avoidance crafting	work engagement	1092.7	510	0.06	.873 / .855	0.12	.727	<.001
c	approach crafting	burnout	1142.857	510	0.962	.863 / .842	0.14	-0.121	0.155
d	avoidance crafting	burnout	1179.010	511	0.63	.862 / .842	0.14	-0.072	0.783
e	approach crafting	OCB	1081.309	510	0.59	.876 / .858	0.13	.688	<.001
f	avoidance crafting	OCB	1117.43	510	0.061	.868 / .849	0.13	.557	<.001

N=318

Figure 4.1 Path estimates for the hypothesized model in Study 1



Notes. N=318, p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05*

In order to test the hypothesized model as Figure 4.2 shows, I specified a full mediation model. This mediation model provides a good fit of (X^2(520) =871.442, p<.001, CFI/TLI= .924/.910, RMSEA=.046, SRMR= .061). As predicted in H10a, the proposed mediation effect of benevolence on work engagement via approach crafting was significant, supported by a 1,000-bootstrap resampling method (*b* =.141, indicated by the 90% confidence interval [.017, .264]). However, H10b indicated a mediation effect of benevolence on work engagement via avoidance crafting was not found support evidence (*b*= .141, indicated by the 90% confidence interval [- .527 .810]).

H11 assumed the mediation role of approach crafting (H11a) and avoidance crafting (H11b) between the relationship between authoritarianism and work engagement, both were rejected (*b* = -. 003, 90% CI [-.060, .054]; *b* = .064, 90% CI [-.359, .523] respectively).

H12 indicated the mediation role of approach crafting (H11a) and avoidance crafting (H11b) between the relationship between benevolence and burnout. These two hypotheses were rejected (*b*= -.011, 90% CI [-. 097, .075]; *b*= - .098, 90% CI [- .723, .526]).

H13 predicted the mediation role of approach crafting (H13a) and avoidance crafting (H13b) of the relation from authoritarianism to burnout. These were all rejected by a non-significant indirect effect estimates (*b* =.000, 90% CI [-.017, .018]; *b*= -.044, 90% CI [-.438, .349]).

Approach crafting was found mediating the relationship between benevolence and OCB (*b*= .231, 90% CI [.007, .201]), which supported H14a. However, avoidance crafting was not found mediating the relationship between benevolence and OCB (*b*= .054, 90% CI [-.354, .403]) thus rejected H14b.

As for H15a which proposed the mediation effect of authoritarianism and OCB via approach crafting, this was not supported (*b*= -.004, 90% CI [-.065, .060]). Also, H15b indicated the mediation effect of authoritarianism and OCB via avoidance crafting was also rejected (*b*= .025, [- .307, .337]).

Table 4.1 demonstrates all hypotheses and hypotheses testing results.

Table 4.4 Hypotheses acceptance table for Study 1

Dependent variable	Independent variables	Hypothesis	beta	p-value	Results
benevolence	**approach crafting**	**H1a**	**0.087**	**<.001**	**Supported**
benevolence	avoidance crafting	H1b	0.059	0.55	Not supported
authoritarianism	approach crafting	H2a	- .134	.175	Not supported
authoritarianism	**avoidance crafting**	**H2b**	**.284**	**<.05**	**Supported**
LGOxbeneovlence	approach crafting	H3a	.063	.62	Not supported
LGOxbeneovlence	avoidance crafting	H3b	- .082	.454	Not supported
LGOxauthoritarianism	approach crafting	H4a	.068	.249	Not supported
LGOxauthoritarianism	avoidance crafting	H4b	.061	.564	Not supported
PGOxbenevolence	approach crafting	H5a	.123	<.01	Not Supported
PGOxbenevolence	avoidance crafting	H5b	-.057	.605	Not supported
PGOxauthoritarianism	approach crafting	H6a	.093	.145	Not supported
PGOxauthoritarianism	avoidance crafting	H6b	.025	.761	Not supported
approach crafting	**work engagement**	**H7a**	**.531**	**<.001**	**Supported**
avoidance crafting	**work engagement**	**H7b**	**.727**	**<.001**	**Opposite to hypothesis**
approach crafting	burnout	H8a	-0.116	0.15	Not supported
avoidance crafting	burnout	H8b	-0.072	0.783	Not supported
approach crafting	**OCB**	**H9a**	**.688**	**<.001**	**Supported**
avoidance crafting	**OCB**	**H9b**	**.557**	**<.001**	**Supported**
Indirect effect		**Indirect *b***			
benevolence-approach crafting- work engagement		**H10a**	**,141**	**<.05**	**Supported**
benevolence-avoidance crafting- work engagement		H10b	.141	.679	Not supported
authoritarian leadership-approach crafting- work engagement		H11a	-.003	.927	Not supported
authoritarian leadership-avoidance crafting- work engagement		H11b	.064	.785	Not supported
benevolence-approach crafting- burnout		H12a	-.011	.806	Not supported
benevolence-avoidance crafting- burnout		H12b	- .098	.758	Not supported

authoritarianism-approach crafting-burnout	H13a	.000	.982	Not supported
authoritarian leadership-avoidance crafting- burnout	H13b	-.044	.825	Not supported
benevolence-approach crafting- OCB	**H14a**	**.231**	**<.05**	**Supported**
benevolence-avoidance crafting- OCB	H14b	.054	.903	Not supported
authoritarian leadership-approach crafting- OCB	H15a	-.004	.932	Not supported
authoritarian leadership-avoidance crafting- OCB	H15b	.025	.928	Not supported

4.5 Discussion

Study 1 aimed to investigate the role of paternalistic leadership, specifically benevolence and authoritarianism, on employee job crafting patterns and work outcomes. Results of this study revealed that beyond and above individual proactive personality, leader's benevolence and authoritarian could help to predict what kind of crafting actions (approach or avoidance) individuals tend to take. Consistent with predictions, employees who perceived higher leader benevolence are more inclined to conduct approach crafting. This leads to a higher level of work engagement and OCB. Findings of this study are in line with previous studies that indicating employees feeling supported by coworkers or organizations is positively related to proactive behaviors (Griffin et al., 2017; Ashford et al., 1998). Granted with more support and resources as a prosocial investment, employees are more motivated to expand themselves and take extra tasks, i.e., conduct more approach crafting (Parker, et al., 2010). On the contrary, when leaders exhibit excessive authority and control, employees tend to distance themselves from additional tasks and social networks. Instead, they are more likely to avoid demands.

This study is the first to examine the interplay between individual goal orientation and leadership on predicting employee job crafting. However, no evidence shown performance goal orientation or learning goal orientation moderating the relationship between job crafting and paternalistic leadership.

This study provides support for the direct effect of approach crafting and avoidance crafting on employee outcomes. Approach crafting was found positively related to work engagement and OCB, but not related to burnout. Surprisingly, avoidance crafting was also found positively related to work engagement and OCB. This result is different from Zhang and Parker's (2019) meta-analysis study, where they found avoidance demand crafting is negatively related to work engagement. However, in a longitudinal study, avoidance crafting was found more effective in reducing job boredom and enhance work engagement (Harju et al., 2016). One possible explanation is that approach crafting concentrates more on the short-term fulfillment (Zhang & Parker, 2019) while avoidance crafting contributes to the balance between individual capability and work demands (Zhang & Parker, 2019). Thus, avoidance crating may promote work engagement in a long term.

Another explanation is that avoidance crafting may interplay with approach crafting on influencing employee outcomes. To further verify the positive relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement / OCB, I conducted an additional analysis (see additional analysis).

4.5.1 Theoretical implications

The primary contribution lies in identifying the effect of benevolent and authoritarian leadership on employee job crafting. This study answers the call of more research on testing the associations of leadership with employee job crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2019; Parer et al., 2010; Grant, 2009). This research extends job crafting literature by focusing on the under-researched but crucial topic of testing leadership as an antecedent. This research identifies the approach-avoidance forms of job crafting and extends previous findings. It is the first to investigate the associations between paternalistic leadership and approach- avoidance crafting This study extends previous study regards in the role of paternalistic leadership on employees' job crafting. For example, Tuan (2018) found benevolence is positively related to job crafting whereas authoritarianism is negatively related to job crafting. I distinguish the approach-avoidance forms of job crafting and focused on studying the benevolence and authoritarianism dimensions of paternalistic leadership.

In terms of approach crafting, the effect of benevolence is similar to that of other similar leadership styles. Earlier researchers found that empowering leadership enhances employee's proactivity whereas directive leadership does not (Martin et al., 2013). Employees are found to conduct more job crafting when their leaders perform transformational or servant leadership style (Wang, Demerouti, and Le Blanc, 2017). Even though empowering leadership, transformational leadership and benevolent leadership perform differently in terms of leader behaviors, they all endorse employees a large extent of autonomy, decision-making power, and support. However, authoritarian leadership which emphasizes leader's authority and control

was found positively related to avoidance crafting. This is similar with directive leadership that constrains employee's self-directed actions. In short, it appears that the occurrence of approach crafting is more likely to stem from a supportive leadership style that motivates employees to excel, rather than a directive style that restricts their personal growth.

4.5.2 Practical implications

In the highly competitive and fast-changing market, for companies which need their employees to react fast and be flexible, employees' self-initiated behaviors are important. Findings of Study 1 suggest organizations which advocate employees to cope with diverse and flexible tasks to be more self-initiative. This can be achieved by promoting benevolent leadership styles as it can encourage employees seek resources and challenges. Organizations can recruit or train leaders behave more benevolence for creating a friendly space for employees to expand themselves. Conversely, when organizations prioritize strict adherence to routine task completion, they may opt to train leaders to adopt a more authoritarian approach.

Moreover, organizations can offer training programs that equip employees with the skills to proactively seek assistance from their supervisors, allocate resources effectively, and remove obstacles that hinder their progress based on individual needs. By implementing such training initiatives, organizations can enhance employee work engagement and foster a culture of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

4.5.3 Future research and Limitations

There are several limitations of this study. First, this study focused on the individual-level, future studies may investigate the team-level leadership and job crafting. Leana (2009)

indicated that job crafting can occur at both individual level (individual crafting) and team level (collaborative crafting). Team-level factors such as climate and team size may influence collaborative crafting. For example, Mecclelland et al. (2014) found employee's perceived team efficacy, team control and team interdependence are related to team-level job crafting. Makikangas et al. (2017) suggested that team-level leadership factors may influence employee's collaborative crafting. Future studies may interpret more in this area.

Even though theoretically employees' job crafting may occur without leaders' permission, scholars found leaders noticing subordinate's avoidance crafting (Fong et al., 2020). They argued leaders can appraise employee's avoidance crafting as destructive work behaviors and may lower their support to the job crafters. Indeed, leaders and co-workers may perceive employees' crafting behaviors as positive or negative (Tims & Parker, 2020). Future research may interpret if and how leaders' response impact employee job crafting. For example, authoritarian leaders may ask employees to obey their orders and follow their instructions. If employees conduct job crafting beyond job descriptions, leaders may feel unsatisfied and may impede followers conduct job crafting.

Leadership can influence employee's job crafting intentions and implementations. However, this relationship might be reversed. For example, employee's job crafting may influence leader's identity. According to Petriglieri (2011), identity threat refers to "an experience that indicates a danger to the value, meaning or enactment of an identity" (p.641). Leaders may perceive employee's job crafting as behaviors that are inconsistent with their expectations, which leads to leader identity threat (Rodgers et al., 2018). Also, Fast and Chen (2009) indicated that leaders may experience a threatened ego if they feel incompetent and less

adequate. When employees engaging in approach or avoidance crafting, their challenging voice may trigger leaders react negatively to defense their ego (Fast et al., 2014). Researchers can draw from these findings to examine the leader identity threat caused by employee's job crafting.

Additionally, there could be a reciprocal relationship between benevolence and the crafting of approaches by followers. The findings from Study 1 indicated that when leaders exhibit benevolence, it can motivate employees to take on greater resource allocation and challenges. However, this may impact how subordinates perceive the benevolence of their leaders as return. Follower's proactive engagement in taking charge behaviors can enhance their leader-member exchange relationships (Xu et al., 2019). By conducting approach crafting, individuals may increase the social interactions with their leaders and gain support from leaders to work more effectively. During this process, employees are more likely to perceive their leaders as benevolence as they provide essential support and kindness. Future studies can explore more on follower's perceptions toward leadership after successful or failed crafting attempts. Scholars may also design experimental studies to investigate employee's reactions under different situations (such as 2x2 situations of benevolence and employee's approach crafting).

Finally, while previous studies have frequently regarded avoidance crafting as having a negative impact on employee well-being, this study surprisingly found the positive influence of avoidance crafting on work engagement and OCB. One possible explanation might be employee's time scope in appraising the effect of avoidance crafting. To gain a comprehensive

understanding of this finding, future studies could conduct a longitudinal study to explore the long term and short-term effect of job crafting.

The study has some limitations which are outlined below. First, data was collected from self-report survey. This may cause common method variance (CMV) issue. Even though the author adopted a marker variable method to reduce the CMV, future research could consider using objective measures (such as the number of healed patients or the sales performance of a clinical team) to minimize bias arising from self-reported data.

Also, the data for this study was stemmed from employees working at healthcare industry in China. The healthcare professions are highly related to specific expertise and professional membership (Waring & Currie, 2009). Their work identity might be stronger due to frequent interactions with patients, specialist knowledge and skills. Moreover, most of our respondents are doctors or nurses who worked at a relatively tense work environment with high demands from patients. Healthcare employees may not refuse requests from patients. Therefore, they can hardly decrease hindering demands. That could explain why avoidance crafting in this study has a low reliability. Future research may investigate if hindering demands can be changed or eliminated for certain professionals. Research set in other contexts should provide a comparative analysis of avoidance crafting in the same model.

4.6 Additional analysis: the interaction effect of approach and avoidance crafting

Hypothesis

Results from Study 1 indicated avoidance crafting was positively related to work engagement. This finding contrasts with previous meta-analytical findings. (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017). Petrou and Xanthopoulou (2021) argued avoidance crafting is positively related to performance when approach crafting is at high levels. However, avoidance crafting is not related to performance when approach crafting is at low levels. They explained that avoidance individuals focused more on performance (in-role behaviors) rather than employability and development (ex-role behaviors). Avoidance crafting is positively related to work engagement might because individuals regulate enough resources to cope with hindering demands through approach crafting. In Study 1, the relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement was tested in a model where I specify other paths except the hypothesized path to be zero. Nevertheless, participants in real-world scenarios often engage in both approach and avoidance crafting simultaneously, which poses challenges in result interpretation. To further explain the finding based on Study 1, I examined the role of approach crafting on the relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement.

Hypothesis: Approach crafting moderates the relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement. Individuals conduct higher level of approach crafting, the positive relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement is strengthened. Otherwise, the positive relationship becomes weaker.

Results

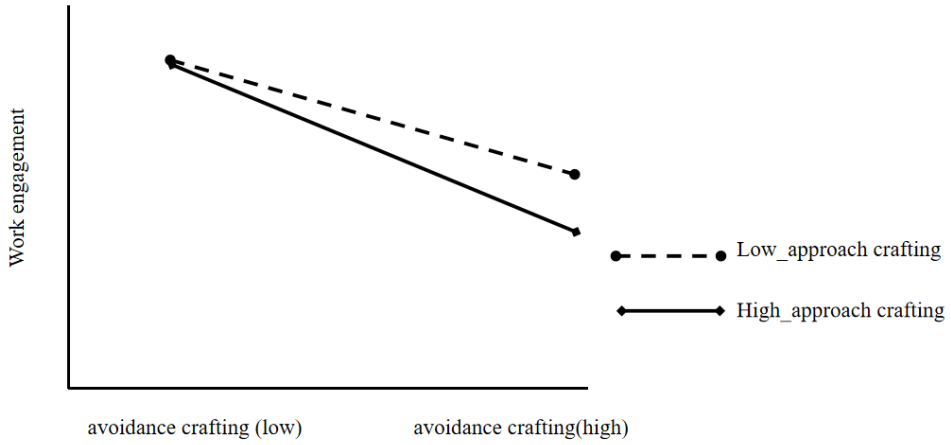
I conducted the moderation model in Mplus in which I specify the relationship between approach crafting and work engagement, the avoidance crafting and work engagement, as well as the interact term of approach crafting and avoidance crafting and work engagement. The interaction term of approach crafting and avoidance crafting was negatively related to work engagement (- .255, p<.001). Specifically, as shown in Figure 4.3, avoidance crafting was negatively related to work engagement, and the relationship was stronger when individuals have high approach crafting (vs low). This finding is in contrast with the initial hypothesis. Furthermore, after introducing approach crafting as moderator, the relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement become negative (in contrast in findings of Study 1). This finding suggests the positive relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement in Study 1 cannot be explained by the appearance of approach crafting. The results from Study 1 may be explained by individual's concern of avoidance crafting from a long-term concern or sample bias.

Discussion

The interacting effect between approach crafting and avoidance crafting suggests a new future study direction. As Zhang and Parker (2018) proposed, individuals have the ability to tackle obstructive demands in an approach-oriented approach. In other words, individuals can proactively employ problem-solving strategies to overcome hindering demands. They advocated for further research into the interconnectedness of different types of crafting. For interpreting the positive effect of avoidance crafting on work engagement, scholars can also conduct a longitudinal study in which avoidance crafting and work engagement are measured

at both short-term and long-term. Also, future studies can investigate if approach crafting moderates the effect of avoidance crafting and other work outcome variables.

Figure 4.3 The moderating effect of approach crafting on the relationship between avoidance crafting and work engagement



CHAPTER 5 (STUDY 2) DOES JOB CRAFTING MAKES ME FEEL MORE IDENTIFIED WITH MY WORK?

The objective of this chapter is to address the research question "What is the impact of employees' job crafting on their work identity?". By formulating two models based on research in approach-avoidance crafting and identity theories, and task-, relational-, cognitive crafting model. First, drawing on social identity and role identity theory, I argued that employee's approach and avoidance crafting as well as task, relational, cognitive crafting are associated with shaping individual work identity. Second, I tested work identity as a mediator between job crafting (in approach-avoidance forms, and task, relational and cognitive forms) and proactive service performance. This chapter proceeds by detailing the hypotheses, methodology, and the corresponding results. It concludes with discussing the findings derived from Study 2 and providing reflections on its limitations and implications.

5.1 Introduction

An individual's work can serve as a label they use to introduce themselves to others. Indeed, scholars recognized one's organizations and occupations contain specific information and meanings that are related to cognitive schema (Kihlstorm et al., 2003). Work can be an important source for individuals learn and develop various identities (Pratt et al., 2006). Scholars referred the set of multiple identities derived from workplace as work identity, or work-related identities, or identities targeted at work. This concept reflects one's self-definition at workplace (Ibarra, 2003). Recently, there is an increasing attention on this topic which can be seen by the number of publications on this subject (Miscenko & Day, 2016). Current work

investigated the formation (Kirpal, 2004; Petriglieri& Stein, 2012), antecedents and the outcomes of work identity (Witt et al., 2002; Braine et al., 2014; Welbourne & Paterson, 2017). Studying identity has great significance as it is a fundamental concept within the fields of management and applied psychology. (Caza, Vough & Puranik, 2018). It also serves as a framework to interpret discursive activities that individuals engaged in at workplace (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Nonetheless, the exploration of work identity as a significant outcome of job crafting has not been extensively investigated, leaving a gap in the existing literature.

In the work design domain, scholars advocate designing smart jobs that contributes to the enhancement of meaning of work and identity development (Hall & Heras, 2010; Parker, 2014, p. 673; Parker et al., 2017). Work can affect job autonomy and resources that help to shape identity, that is, one's goals, traits and interactions with the environment (Parker, 2014). Individuals can experience identity development from enriched jobs as they provide opportunities to growth, successful development experience and openness (Bosma & Kunnen, 2001). Similarly, Wang et al. (2018) found job crafting has a positive relationship with positive work attachment, and this relationship is stronger for low-performers and insecure employees. As indicated by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), individuals changing work boundaries can enhance the positive meaning of work and may foster stronger work identity. Seeking resources and avoiding demands involves organizing, making sense of and manipulating one's psychological state, which are associated with identity cultivation (Bruning and Campion, 2018). However, there is no evidence supporting the direct links between job crafting and work identity.

This study aims to investigate the impact of various forms of job crafting, including task, relational, cognitive, and approach-avoidance forms, on individual work identity. This study extends the literature in two key ways. First, this work clarified work identity in the healthcare context and examined its relations with key work outcomes. While prior research shown the effect of work-related identities on employee performance and well-being, this study extends the literature by providing a proactive performance as an outcome. Second, this research is the first to explore the relationship between different types of job crafting (approach-avoidance crafting, and task, relational, cognitive crafting) and work identity. The findings of this study contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the outcomes of job crafting by shedding light on how crafting behaviors influence individuals' self-perceptions in the workplace. Moreover, it extends Study 1 by investigating the relationships between paternalistic leadership (specifically benevolence and authoritarianism) and task, relational, and cognitive job crafting besides approach-voidance crafting. By presenting a comparative analysis of different types of job crafting, this study also contributes to the synthesis and integration of job crafting theories. Overall, this study would provide insights into how organizations can better motivate employees to take extra responsibilities or focus on current works.

5.2 Hypotheses of the approach-avoidance crafting model

5.2.1 A model consistent with Study 1

Consistent with Study 1, I argued:

H1. Benevolence is positively related to approach crafting (H1a) but negatively related to avoidance crafting (H1b).

H2. Authoritarianism is negatively related to avoidance crafting (H2a) but negatively related to approach crafting (H2b).

H3. Learning goal orientation serve as a moderator of the relationship between benevolence leadership and approach crafting (H3a) / the relationship between benevolence and avoidance crafting (H3b) / the relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting (H3c) / the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting (H3d).

H4. Performance goal orientation serves as a moderator of the relationship between benevolence leadership and approach crafting (H4a) / the relationship between benevolence and avoidance crafting (H4b) / the relationship between authoritarianism and approach crafting (H4c) / the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting (H4d).

5.2.2 Approach, avoidance crafting and work identity

In the job crafting literature, individuals proactively change job boundaries for a positive meaning and sense of self (Wrzesniewski, et al., 2013). Job crafting represents how individuals actively shape their work by expanding or restricting their claims about what to do and who to interact with (Zhang & Parekr, 2019). In this sense, job crafting is related to work identity as it expands or restricts role boundaries. Dadich et al (2015) found general practitioners enrich their understanding of general practice and customize their work content to relieve professional identity tension under healthcare reforms. Wang et al (2018) discovered

that job crafting facilitates individuals develop higher work attachment and psychological ownership toward job. To interpret the relations between job crafting and work identity, I borrow the integrated identity work model (Lepisto et al., 2015) to discuss the process of work identity development and the relationships between job crafting and work identity. I propose job crafting, no matter in approach-avoidance approach, or task, relational, cognitive forms, is linked with work identity as it serves as verbal, physical and cognitive tactics for individuals develop work identity.

Individual identities are viewed as inherently unstable, flexible, and continuing changing that require active development (Currie, et al., 2010; Albert et al., 2000). Employees can from, repair, maintain, strengthen, or revise their identity through an identity work process (Sveningsson and Alvesson, 2003). Followed the research of Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003), the literature discussed identity work from different perspectives such as narrative identity (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010), identity construction (Alvesson, 2010), identity threats (Brown & Coupland, 2015) and identity work tactics (Kreiner, Hollensbe & Sheep, 2006). These studies suggested that individuals can learn a new identity or gain an identified membership from daily work activities and interactions with others.

Lepisto, Crosina and Pratt (2015) proposed an extended model of identity work in which they illustrated four core elements to present why, when, what and how identity developed (i.e., the triggers, motives, tactics & process, and outcomes). To begin with, individuals are motived to shape their identity for achieving continuity, authenticity, distinctiveness, belonging, self-esteem, efficacy, coherence, and meaning (Lepisto et al., 2015, p. 17). The contextual change (organization or work change) and strong situations (motives of

authenticity, self-efficacy, self-esteem) are two main triggers for individuals to engage identity shaping. Afterwards, individuals add, retain or subtract identities via verbal, physical and cognitive tactics. Tactics are individual responses toward triggered identity motives (Kreiner et al., 2006). Narrative is the work-and life-related experience, interpersonal relationships, and work roles (Knez, 2016). Verbal tactics involves of using narrative or discourse to claim and grant identity (Lepisto et al., 2015). Physical tactics involve individual performance or the value attached to work outputs (Lepisto et al., 2015). Cognitive tactics involves efforts to integrate or differentiate identities (Lepisto et al., 2015; Kreiner et al., 2006).

Cardador and Pratt (2006) argued that individuals gain identity from behavioral basis such as self-schema and role-performing. According to Markus and Wurf (1987), self-schemas can be seen in an attempt to explain one's own behavior in a specific domain. Identity present partly self-concept in role-related activities (Burke & Reitzes, 1981). It evolves during the process of discovering "who and what I am" through role-taking practice (Styker & Serpe, 1982). By claiming the role boundaries, that is, to define what activities belong to the role and what do not, it facilitates the articulation of identity (Ashforth, 2001). Through engaging in these tactics, individuals can offset the imbalance caused by identity demands and tensions (Kreiner et al.,2006).

Kira and Balkin (2014) explained that individuals tend to maintain or strengthen their identity if they experience alignments between their job and preferred identity yet avoid or transform identity if feel misalignments. The assess process of the alignments between job and preferred identity is referred to as work-identity integrity (Pratt, et al., 2006). The work-identity integrity implies to compare what you do and who you are. It leads people to improve

performance or engage in identity splinting, patching, or enriching. When individuals engage in activities to satisfy their need for competency, autonomy and relatedness, they are more likely to incorporate that activity into identity (Aron, Aron & Smolan, 1992). After a process of appraisal of their job and expected identity, individuals who perceive more alignments tend to add or retain their current identity, otherwise they tend to delete, or altering their identity.

Employees substantial job resources are highly engaged and feel strongly identified with their work (Braine & Roodt, 2011). According to Kirpal (2004), job resources play an important role in constructing work identification. Different organizational contexts provide employees various scopes, resources, and support for identity construction (Brown, 2015). Approach crafting represents the individual's efforts to seek resources and challenges that are potentially good for their own personal-fit. Approach crafting serve as verbal, physical, and cognitive tactics for individuals to develop their identity. Identity is formed in the act of doing in a role-taking process (Lerpold et al., 2007; Turner, 1991). Individuals both perform and customaries their identity under certain social environments. The process that one "being" someone involves sense-making through acting and reacting, interactions with others and constructing narratives (Pratt, et al., 2012). The "doing" is the heart of identity formation. By completing routine tasks, employees fabricated their identity and attach meaning to their work (Brown & Lewis, 2011). During the process of seeking resources and challenges, employees are acting their work role and thus serve as verbal and physical tactics to shape identity. Also, seeking challenges suggests individuals alter their cognition of demands from extra workload to opportunities for self-improvement. Approach crafting facilitate employees to expand resources and utilize challenges to add and sustain identity. Thus,

H5. Approach crafting is positively related to work identity.

On the other hand, avoidance crafting refers to a reduction of work tasks and interactions with people. Employees refused hindering demands are contracting their job boundaries, and therefore, decreasing their experience of identity enactment. If employees see demands as hindering, they may appraise a discrepancy between their job and preferred identities (Kira & Balkin, 2014). If employees cannot change the misalignments between job and preferred identity, they may experience identity withering. The identity withering indicated a psychological status where individuals are over identified with their preferred identity and reject or avoid other possible identities (Kira & Balkin, 2014). Although job crafting is legitimate proactive behaviors by employees, it may not in line with the benefits of company or supervisors (Hornung et al., 2010; Fong, et al., 2021). The avoidance crafting tends to stimulate withdrawal-oriented behaviors and is "inactive" in operation (Zhang & Parker, 2019). By denying tasks or demands, individuals are getting away from opportunities to try and play possible identities (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010). Therefore,

H6. Avoidance crafting is negatively related to work identity.

5.2.3 Approach-avoidance crafting and proactive healthcare service performance

Research has shown that individuals who engaged in proactive behaviors participate in self-initiated activities that go beyond and above prescribed work, take a future-oriented perspective, and are more likely to benefit positive experience from changes in the workplace

(Bateman & Crant, 1993; Fay & Frese, 2001). Proactive service performance indicated to what extent employees conduct self-started, long term-oriented, and persistent behaviors for service-delivery to customers beyond prescribed job requirements (Rank, et al., 2007). Examples of proactive service performance are communicating with clients, seeking feedback from customer, and anticipating customer needs beyond leader or customer commands. For individuals who would like to expand their work boundaries and take extra responsibilities, they are likely to have a better proactive service performance. Approach oriented crafters are motivated to tailor their job for personal growth and achievement (Bruning & Campion, 2018). If they seek resources and challenges for a self-enhancement, they are likely to anticipate customer needs and find better ways to complete tasks. In other words,

H7. Approach crafting is positively related to proactive service performance.

On the contrary, avoidance crafting was based on individual's tendency to avoid workload and stress. Employees are thus less inclined to go above and beyond their work descriptions to reach a better degree of customer satisfaction. Therefore,

H8. Avoidance crafting is negatively related to proactive service performance.

5.2.4 A serial mediation via job crafting and work identity

Building on prior hypotheses, I argue that approach crafting / avoidance crafting and work identity may serially mediates the leadership variable and proactive service performance. For example, when leaders demonstrate benevolence, employees are motivated to conduct more

approach crafting, and foster a stronger work identity, which lead to higher proactive service performance. An indirect effect of benevolent leadership on proactive service performance through approach crafting and work identity is, therefore, expected. Also, an indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on proactive service performance through avoidance crafting and work identity might exist. Accordingly, I hypothesized:

H9. Approach crafting and work identity serially mediates the relationship between benevolence and proactive service performance (H9a), and the relationship between authoritarianism and proactive service performance (H9b).

H10. Avoidance crafting and work identity serially mediates the relationship between benevolence and proactive service performance (H10a), and the relationship between authoritarianism and proactive service performance (H10b).

5.3 Hypotheses of the task-relational-cognitive crafting model

5.3.1 Paternalistic leadership and task-, relational-, cognitive crafting

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified individuals are motivated to change their task, relational, and cognitive boundaries. Task crafting refers to changes of task types, increase or decrease the number of tasks. Relational crafting involves choosing the person to interact with and changing the nature of interactions in work. Cognitive crafting means to change the perception of work. A recent work by Zhang and Parker (2018) indicated the task, relational, cognitive crafting can be categorized into either approach or avoidance forms. The associations

between task-, relational-, and cognitive crafting with approach-avoidance crafting model can be recognized by their measurements.

Benevolent leaders are expected to provide positive feedback, kindness and suggestions that help employees to solve problems. They provide employees with sufficient resources and support and enable individuals to experiment with new techniques to completing tasks while maintaining a minimum amount of control over the process. When leaders demonstrate benevolence, followers are granted with more social resources (support) and material resources (coach and suggestions) to complete tasks. In other words,

H11a. Benevolence is positively related to task crafting.

Given that benevolent leaders express concern and feedback to followers, the social interactions of leader and follower dyads are increased. Employees are guaranteed with more opportunities to seek feedback, suggestions, and social networks. Thus,

H11b. Benevolence is positively related to relational crafting.

Leadership plays an important role in shaping the meaning of work (Rosso, et al., 2010). The leader's interpretations of, communications about, and responses to diverse work events have a significant impact on the meanings employees create for their job (Podolny et al., 2004). Benevolent leaders who demonstrate kindness are concerned about subordinate's work and non-work lives (Farh et al., 2008). Benevolent leader help employees foster a positive meaning of their work by combining employee personal goals and needs with collective mission and purpose. In doing so, individuals feel a correspondence between their self-definition and the

virtuous content (Dutton et al., 2010). In this sense, benevolent leadership motivate individuals conduct cognitive crafting to gain a positive self-definition.

H11c. Benevolence is positively related to cognitive crafting.

The purpose of paternalistic leaders to use authority is to make sure their control and decision-making over followers (Chen, 2014). Even though authoritarianism can be effective for improving team efficiency, especially during crisis time (Harms, et al., 2018), it does not encourage followers try different approaches to complete tasks. An authoritarian leader often establishes strict restrictions on resources, norms and hierarchical structures. If employees have limited control (low autonomy and decision-making), they have minimal independence to choose work method (Brockner et al., 2004). Thus, authoritarian leaders execute a dominant style that restricts employee's ability to experiment new work methods which then weaken employee participation in task crafting.

H12a. Authoritarianism is negatively related to task crafting.

Authoritarian leadership was found negatively related to employee voice behaviors (Li & Sun, 2014). Speaking up to an authoritarian leader is often perceived as an action of challenge to authority, even if the content is unthreatening (Detert & Trevino, 2008). Authoritarian leaders expected subordinates to comply with leader's command and show respect to a vertical hierarchy (Redding, 1990). Expressing opposition or disagreement to authoritarian leaders in public is understood as disrespectful and blameworthy. Based on these norms and beliefs, individuals tend to hide their opinions and avoid interactions with their leaders to escape

negative judgements. In this sense, authoritarianism will constrain employees extend their social networks.

H12b. Authoritarianism is negatively related to relational crafting.

Authoritarian leaders emphasize their authority over followers (Tsui, et al., 2004), and their discretion to use threat or punishment for disobedience (Aryee et al., 2007). Authoritarianism would trigger negative emptions such as fear, anger, and anxiety (Frieder, Hochwarter & DeOrtentils, 2015). Therefore, individuals are less likely to attach value or positive meaning to their work. In other words,

H12c. Authoritarianism is negatively related to cognitive crafting.

5.3.2 Task, relational, cognitive crafting and work identity

Task crafting indicates employee's initiate changes on the quantity or type of activities that are favorable for work completion. The task crafting involves introducing new tasks to suit one's interests, take additional work tasks, change procedures to improve work efficiency and so on. Making changes in work tasks is favorable for problem-solving and enhances work meaning and identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Crafting tasks involves performing work roles in daily life and thus perform as a physical tactic that shapes identity. Task crafting also attach positive meaning to work, thus it is a cognitive tactic for identity adding and retaining.

H13a. Task crafting is positively related to work identity.

Employees can modify their social environments by expanding or contracting their relational networks (Grant and Parker, 2009; Rofcanin, et al., 2019). Since job crafters adjust their relationships with others, they actively choose who to interact with during identity sense-making process. The relational partners provide social feedback as a validation for identity learning (Pratt et al., 2006) and role models grant more opportunities for individuals to try "possible selves" (Ibarra, 1999). The interpersonal relationships can influence one's identity (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Methot, Rosado-Soloman & Allen, 2018). For example, Grant (2007) illustrated the relational job design can affect individual identity. By making prosocial difference (e.g., contacting with beneficiaries), individuals are likely to construct identity as competent, self-determined and socially valued. Dobrow and Higgins (2005) found individuals gain both professional and psychological support from social networks and advance their professional identity. Also, individuals adopt "vocabularies of motives" as rhetorical device to express identity (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010). One example is individuals crafting self-reflective job titles to attach meaning to their identity (Grant et al., 2014). Employees may foster their identity by wearing work uniform, wearing work uniform, entering one's office building, greeting to clients (Ashforth, 2001, p.11). Therefore, relational crafting facilitates work identity construction as it changes the relational networks and helps individuals to redefine themselves during social life.

H13b. Relational crafting is positively related to work identity

Wrzesniewski et al (2013) indicated that cognitive crafting is likely to foster a positive meaning of work. They argued that individuals reframe their work to answer a spiritual calling

and thus attach positive meaning to their work. The effect of cognitive crafting on positive meaning is clear on low-grade professions. For example, Styhre et al (2010) indicated that consultants moving back and forth between their role identity as "expert" and "speaking partner" to guide everyday behaviors in organizations. Consultants build their identity based on previous experiences and the current scenario. They actively develop an identity as "speaking-partner" to support their agency position for communication with clients. Fuller and Unwin (2017) spotted NHS hospital porters were reframing their work to resist an identity characterized by "dirty-work" and creating a more positive identity around providing caring service to patients. Through attaching a positive meaning to work, crafters suit themselves with their job. The cognitive crafting is a cognitive tactic for individuals to identify with their profession or organization.

H13c. Cognitive crafting is positively related to work identity

5.3.3 Task, relational, cognitive crafting, and proactive service performance

Task crafting aims to improve the task completion procedure or arrangement for a better person-job fit. However, even when individuals engage task crafting in order to benefit themselves rather than customers, the crafting process enhances employee's capacity to respond to consumer needs in the long term. It is expected that task crafting facilitates proactive service performance.

H14a. Task crafting is positively related to proactive service performance.

By definition, relational crafting involves seeking comments and feedback from beneficiaries (customers or people outside organization). During this process, crafters are improving their ability to deliver service as well as forecast customer demands in advance. Thus,

H14b. Relational crafting is positively related to proactive performance.

Cognitive crafting involves making claims of what work is and what is not. These claims shape the meaning and value attached with jobs. Employees may use cognitive crafting to change their perception of job for obtaining a more positive work identity and a greater sense of meaning and purpose (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Research indicates if employees realize the positive meaning of their work, they are more likely to participate activities that are benefit for other's good (Grant, et al., 2008) and take initiative in community service (Bartel, 2001). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) cited an example that physicians reframe their work as a "healing" to provide patient advocacy as well as high-quality service. These studies suggest cognitive crafting enhanced the positive meaning of work and motivate individuals engage in activities that improve service performance.

H14c. Cognitive crafting is positively related to proactive service performance.

5.5 Methodology

5.4.1 Participants and Procedures

Participants for Study 2 were recruited from a Chinese online survey platform (https://www.wjx.cn/). An invitation link was sent to registries who worked at healthcare industry, after given consents, respondents were asked to complete two surveys. Survey 1 collected individual demographics and items of job crafting (approach-avoidance crafting, task-, relational-, and cognitive crafting), goal orientation, and control variables. Survey 2 collected items of work identity and proactive service performance. The reason to split the survey collection at 2 times is to reduce the withdrawal rate from long questionnaires as well as to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Survey 2 was collected after 1 week of Survey 1 collection. Both surveys were collected during 2019 within 1 month. Respondents given consent to the platform to use their anonymized data for research purpose. They received monetary compensation after completion. The study design was approved by the Durham University review board as participation in this study was voluntary. 306 healthcare employees were invited in this study. After removing participants who failed to pass attention check or who completed the survey in an unrealistically short or long time, there were 103 valid respondents in the end. Of the final sample, 46% were male, and 58% were female. 6.7% of the participants were in the age range between 18-25 yrs old, 42.3% of the participants were 26-30 yrs old, 27.9% were 31-35 yrs old, 17.3% were 36-40 yrs old, and 5.8% were 40 yrs old and above. Most of the participants were doctors (57.3%), followed by nurses (20.2%), pharmacist (9.6%), cleaning staff (6.7%), and medicine retailors (5.8%). 46.2% of them were employees

without any supervision responsibility, and 38.5% were leaders who supervise 1-3 followers, 12.5% leaders of 4-6 subordinates, and 2.9% who lead more than 6 employees. Majority of the respondents have a tenure in the current organization of 5-10 years. As healthcare employees, nearly 52.9% of them need to interact with patients every day, 23.1% interact with patients every week, 19.2% interact every month, and 4.8% interact with patients once in more than one month. Most participants work 5-7 hours by contract a day. The average working overtime is 1.4 hours per day (SD 1.36).

5.4.2 Measures

Paternalistic leadership. Benevolence, morality and authoritarianism were assessed with the same scale as in Study 1. The reliability is .88 for benevolence and .84 for authoritarianism.

Work identity. As discussed in Chapter 3, work identity scale consists of organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identity, professional identification, and the work-identity relevance. The full work identity scale has 38 items, with a reliability of .84.

Task, relational, cognitive crafting. The job crafting in forms of task, relational, and cognitive crafting was measured by 19-items of Slemp and Brodick (2013). The scale was rated from (1) "never" to (6) "always". Task crafting was measured with 7 items. A sample item for task crafting is "I introduce new approaches to improve my work". Relational crafting was accessed by 7 items. One example item is "I engage in networking activities to establish more relationships". Cognitive crafting has 5 items. An example is "I think about how my job gives

my life purpose". The reliability for task crafting is α= 77, for relational crafting is α=.85, and for cognitive crafting is α=.73.

Proactive service performance. I evaluated proactive service performance with the proactive service performance scale developed by Rank et al (2007). The original scale was designed to rate employees' self-initiated, long-term-oriented service behaviors beyond prescribed requirements in financial industry. To match it with our research context, I modified the scale to make it rated by subordinates rather than supervisors. I also adapted items to make it suitable for healthcare industry. For the full scale, see Appendix 2. The scale was rated from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). An example item is "I proactively share information with my patients to meet their meets". The reliability for this scale is α= .78.

Control variables. To eliminate potential alternative explanations for our results, I include several control variables in our study. I controlled for employee gender, age, education, organizational tenure, occupation, and management level. I also controlled for time spent with patients, interaction frequency with patients, work hours and overtime work hours per week. Consistent with previous research (e.g., Crant, 2000; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach; 2018), to minimize the possible confounding effect, I controlled for employee's proactive personality, work autonomy and work interdependence. A 10-item 5-point Likert proactive personality scale of Seibert, Crant, and Kraime (1999) was used. A sample item is "I am constantly on the lookout for the new ways to improve my life". The reliability for this scale is 76. I assessed work autonomy and interdependence by using scale invented by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). A sample item is "I can schedule my own work". The reliability for work autonomy and interdependence are .80 and .85 separately.

5.4.3 Data analysis strategy

Descriptive statistics was analyzed in SPSS 22.0. Hypotheses testing was completed through path analysis in Mplus 7.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 1997-2005). Given the small sample size, I parceled items for each construct (Hall et al., 1999). In specific, I followed Landis et al.'s (2000) suggestions and adopted a single-factor method to parcel the items. That is, to pair off items with highest and lowest loadings as first composite based on a single-factor solution till the items are exhausted. Prior to hypotheses testing, a series of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to test for discriminant validity of studied variables. Model fit was evaluated based on 1) the chi-square test, 2) the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), 3) the root means square error of approximation (RSMEA), and the (4) the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Based on recommendations of Kline (2005), I considered values of CFI/TLI above .90 to represent adequate fit, RMSEA and SRMR values below .08 were to be acceptable.

To test hypotheses, I conducted a series of path analysis. Hypotheses related to approach-avoidance crafting and hypotheses relevant to task, relational, cognitive crafting were tested in separate models.

5.5 Results

5.5.1 Preliminary analysis

Table 5.1 presents the mean, SD, reliability, and correlations of the focal variables in our study. As expected, benevolence was positively related to approach crafting (r = .486, p<.01). However, benevolence was not found related to avoidance crafting (r = .052, p<= .602).

Benevolence also found significantly positively related to task crafting (r = .449, p<.01), relational crafting (r = .391, p<.01) and cognitive crafting (r = .295, p<.01). Authoritarianism was found positively related to avoidance crafting (r = .250, p<.05) and relational crafting (r = .248, p<.01).

Even though not hypothesized, approach crafting and avoidance crafting were both positively related to task-, relational-, and cognitive crafting. Approach crafting was positively related to avoidance crafting (r = .257, p<.01). These results suggest different forms of crafting may occur simultaneously. A more detailed discussion is presented in the future studies section.

As for the correlations between job crafting and work identity, approach crafting was positively related to work identity (r = .440, p<.01). Task, relational, cognitive crafting were all positive related to work identity (r = .247, p<.01; r = .324, p<.01; r = .442, p<.01).

Approach crafting was found positively related to proactive service performance (r = .496, p<.01). However, different from hypothesis, avoidance crafting was positively related to proactive service performance (r =. 230, p<.05). Also, task crafting, relational, crafting and cognitive crafting were positively related to proactive service performance. Work identity was positively related to proactive service performance (r =.652, p<.01).

Since control variables such as age, tenure and interdependence were not significantly related to the study variables, I excluded them in the following analyses. Control variables for this study include gender, occupation, management level, interaction frequency with patients, work hours, and overtime work hours.

Table 5.1 Descriptives and correlations for variables in Study 2

		Mean	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Gender				1									
2	Age				-.234*	1								
3	Occupation				-0.061	-0.136	1							
4	Management level				-0.161	.296**	-0.022	1						
5	Tenure				-.204*	.823**	-.279**	.244*	1					
6	Interaction with patients				.374**	-0.064	-.435**	-0.01	0.083	1				
7	Work hours				-0.044	-0.09	-.222*	0.122	0	0.088	1			
8	Overtime working hours				-0.05	-.242*	-.248*	-0.028	-0.124	0.067	.267**	1		
9	Proactive personality	5.37	0.57	0.76	0.148	-0.187	-0.165	-0.047	-0.174	0.066	0.03	0.056	1	
10	Autonomy	3.92	0.53	0.8	0.038	0.065	-0.149	0.101	0.016	0.038	0.015	-0.155	.421**	1
11	Interdependence	3.15	0.86	0.85	0.073	0.005	-0.174	0.109	0.079	.241*	0.136	0.026	-0.023	0.006
	Benevolence	4.22	0.65	0.88	-0.016	0.083	-0.18	0.148	0.17	0.042	0.15	0.161	.389**	.292**
13	Authoritarianism	3.52	0.8	0.84	0.054	-0.107	-.197*	-0.055	-0.063	0.031	-0.031	0.117	-0.018	-0.112
14	Approach crafting	3.74	0.43	0.77	0.04	0.057	-.209*	.209*	0.023	0.142	0.172	0.066	.509**	.284**
15	Avoidance crafting	3.57	0.57	0.61	0.023	-0.008	-0.132	-0.013	-0.098	0.046	-0.098	0.022	.269**	0.107
16	Task crafting	3.94	0.71	0.76	-0.038	-0.052	-0.147	0.174	-0.103	-0.105	0.045	0.079	.532**	.254**
17	Relational crafting	4.26	0.81	0.73	-.206*	0.046	-.327**	0.094	0.09	0.002	.229*	.250*	.373**	0.104
18	Cognitive crafting	3.8	0.9	0.85	-0.009	0.028	-.339**	0.120	-0.023	0.061	.243*	0.168	0.156	.443**
19	Work identity	4.15	0.31	0.84	-.212*	0.051	-.331**	0.101	0.094	-0.005	0.154	.237*	.257**	.374**
20	Proactive performance	5.74	0.57	0.81	-0.018	-0.062	-.286**	0.158	-0.026	.302**	0.181	0.142	0.091	.375**

(Continued)

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
11	Interdependence	1									
12	Benevolence	0.107	1								
13	Authoritarianism	0.091	-.305**	1							
14	Approach crafting	0.094	.486**	0.01	1						
15	Avoidance crafting	0.071	0.052	.250*	.252*	1					
16	Task crafting	-0.059	.449**	0.03	.656**	.269**	1				
17	Relational crafting	0.032	.391**	.248*	.506**	.219*	.582**	1			
18	Cognitive crafting	-0.098	.297**	0.068	.650**	.234*	.660**	.499**	1		
19	Work identity	0.143	.259**	-0.047	.440**	0.182	.247*	.324**	.442**	1	
20	Proactive performance	0.166	.281**	-0.045	.496**	.230*	.324**	.397**	.456**	.652**	1

Notes. N=104, p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05*

5.5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Before running the structural models, I ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ensure items in the scales were indicators of presumed constructs. A model (Model 1) consists of approach crafting, avoidance crafting, benevolence, authoritarianism, work identity, performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation and proactive service performance provides a fit of (χ2(419) =713.439, RMSEA=.082, CFI/TLI=.806/771, SRMR=.085). The fit for this model was poor indicated by a relatively large RMSEA>.08 and SRMR>.08. This can be explained by a relatively small sample size compared to large parameters. This limitation will be discussed in the discussion part. Considering most of the constructs in this study were well-established theoretically and empirically in previous research, I adopt the hypothesized model. As Table 5.2 shows, alternative models did not provide a superior model fit compared to the baseline model.

Another model (Model 2) consists of task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting, benevolence, authoritarianism, work identity, performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation and proactive service performance was conducted. This model has a superior fit compared to other alternative models with a fit of (χ2(419) =713.439, RMSEA=.082, CFI/TLI=.806/771, SRMR=.085, see Table 5.3).

Table 5.2 Fit comparison of alternative models in Study 2 for approach-avoidance crafting model (Model 1)

	X^2	df	$\triangle X^2$	$\triangle$df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
Baseline Model (Model 1)	713.439	419	-	-	.082	.06/.771	.085
Model A	805.494	428	92.055	9	.092	.752/.712	.095
Model B	739.550	428	26.111	9	.084	.795/.763	.091
Model C	787.505	428	74.066	9	.090	.764/726	.089
Model D	1276.449	464	563.01	45	.130	.466/.429	.125

Notes. N=104

Model A: combining benevolence and authoritarianism as a paternalistic leadership factor

Model B: combining approach and avoidance crafting as a general job crafting factor

Model C: combining performance and learning goal orientation into one factor

Model D: combining all items into one factor

Table 5.3 Fit comparison of alternative models in Study 2 for task-, relational-, cognitive crafting model (Model 2)

	X^2	df	$\triangle X^2$	$\triangle$df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
	X^2	df	$\triangle X^2$	$\triangle$df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
Baseline model (Model 2)	591.986	341	-	-	.084	.826/.793	.088
Model A	701.014	349	109.028	8	.098	.757/.717	.107
Model B	677.635	356	85.649	15	.093	.778/.746	.095
Model C	669.485	349	77.499	8	.094	.778/742	.091
Model D	1197.294	377	605.308	36	.145	.433/.389	.133

Notes. N=104

Model A: combining benevolence and authoritarianism as a paternalistic leadership factor

Model B: combining task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting as a general job crafting factor

Model C: combining performance and learning goal orientation into one factor

Model D: combining all items into one factor

5.5.3 Hypotheses testing

Figure 5.1 presents the path coefficients for hypothesized model. H1a predicted that benevolence positively related to approach crafting, this was supported by a positive path coefficient (b = .246, p<.001). H1b stated that benevolence is negatively related to avoidance crafting. Similarly, I indicated the path from benevolence to avoidance crafting and constrained other paths to be zero. This hypothesis was rejected by a non-significant path (b = .014, p=.877). H2a stated a positive relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting, this was (b = .146, p<.05). Authoritarianism was not found related to approach crafting thus rejected H2b (b= .084, p= .063).

H3a predicted PGO moderates the relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. PGO weakens the positive relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. The interaction term between performance goal orientation and benevolence was found significantly related to approach crafting (b= -. 199, p<.05). Figure 5.2 presented the interaction effects of benevolence and performance goal orientation on approach crafting. At low benevolence, employees conduct more approach crafting if they have high PGO compared to those with low PGO. However, when leaders demonstrate high benevolence, employees conduct more approach crafting if they have low PGO compared to those with high PGO. This supported H3a.

H3b predicted that PGO moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting, this was not supported. H4a and H4b indicated the moderation effect of

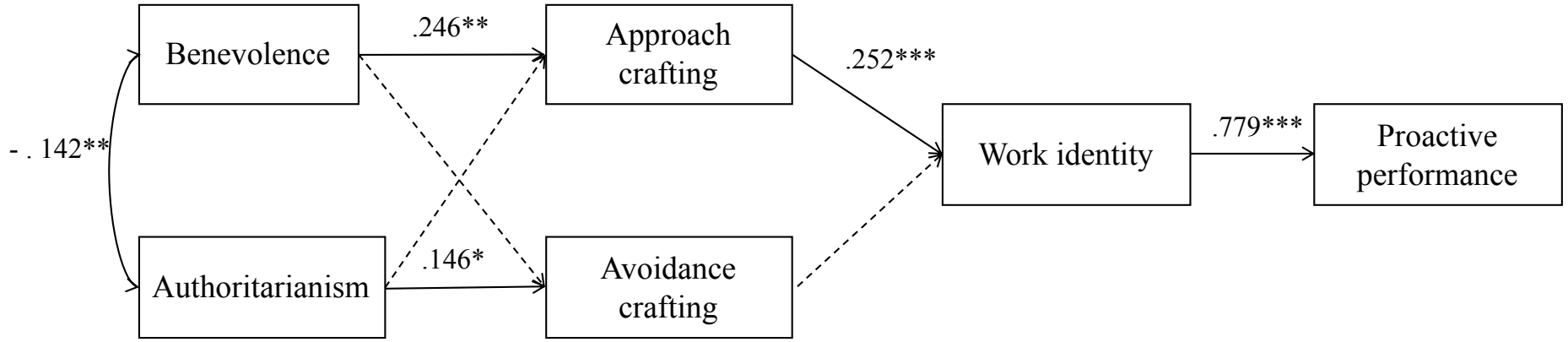
learning goal orientation on the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting. Both hypotheses were rejected.

H5 predicted that approach crafting is positively related to work identity, this was supported with a significant positive path coefficient (b= .252, p<.001). H6 assumed a negative relation from avoidance crafting to work identity, this was not supported (b= .017, p= .783). The result shown a positive path from approach crafting to proactive service performance (b= .299, p<.05), thus supported H7. However, avoidance crafting was not found related to proactive service performance (b= .085, p=.257), thus rejected H8.

H9a indicated a serial mediation between benevolence and proactive service performance via approach crafting and work identity, this was supported (indirect b = .048, p<.05). However, H9b stated the serial mediation between authoritarianism and proactive service performance via approach crafting and work identity was not supported (indirect b = .016, p= .113).

H10a assumed avoidance crafting and work identity subsequently mediates the relationship between benevolence and proactive service performance, this was rejected (indirect b = .000, p=.888). Also, H10b stated the serial mediation from authoritarianism to proactive service performance via avoidance crafting and work identity was rejected (indirect b = .002, p= .742).

Figure 5.1 Path estimates for the hypothesized model with approach-avoidance crafting



Notes. N=104, p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05*

Figure 5.2 Interaction effects of benevolence and performance goal orientation on approach crafting

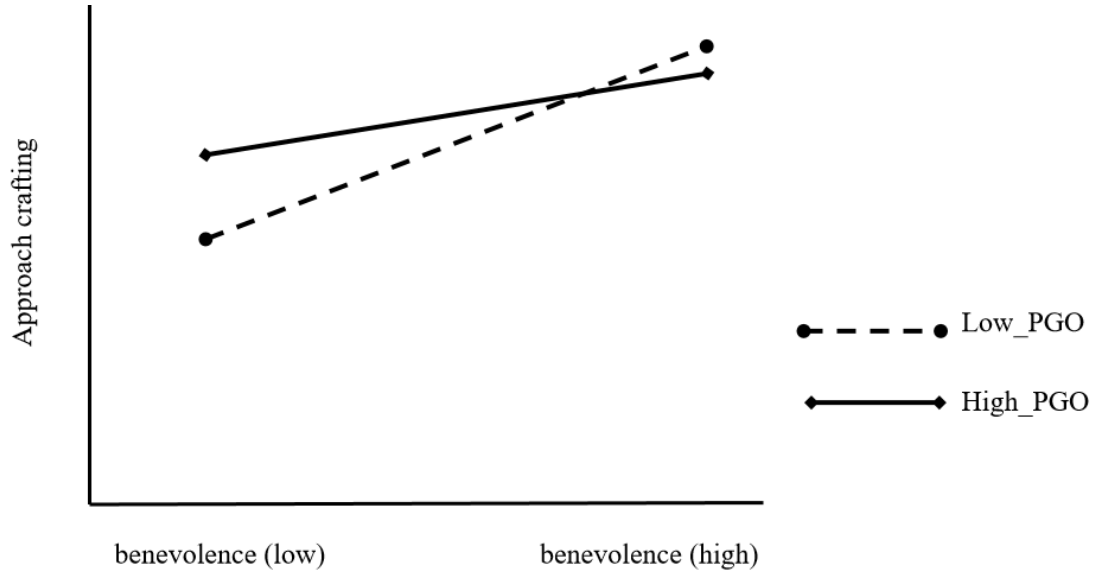
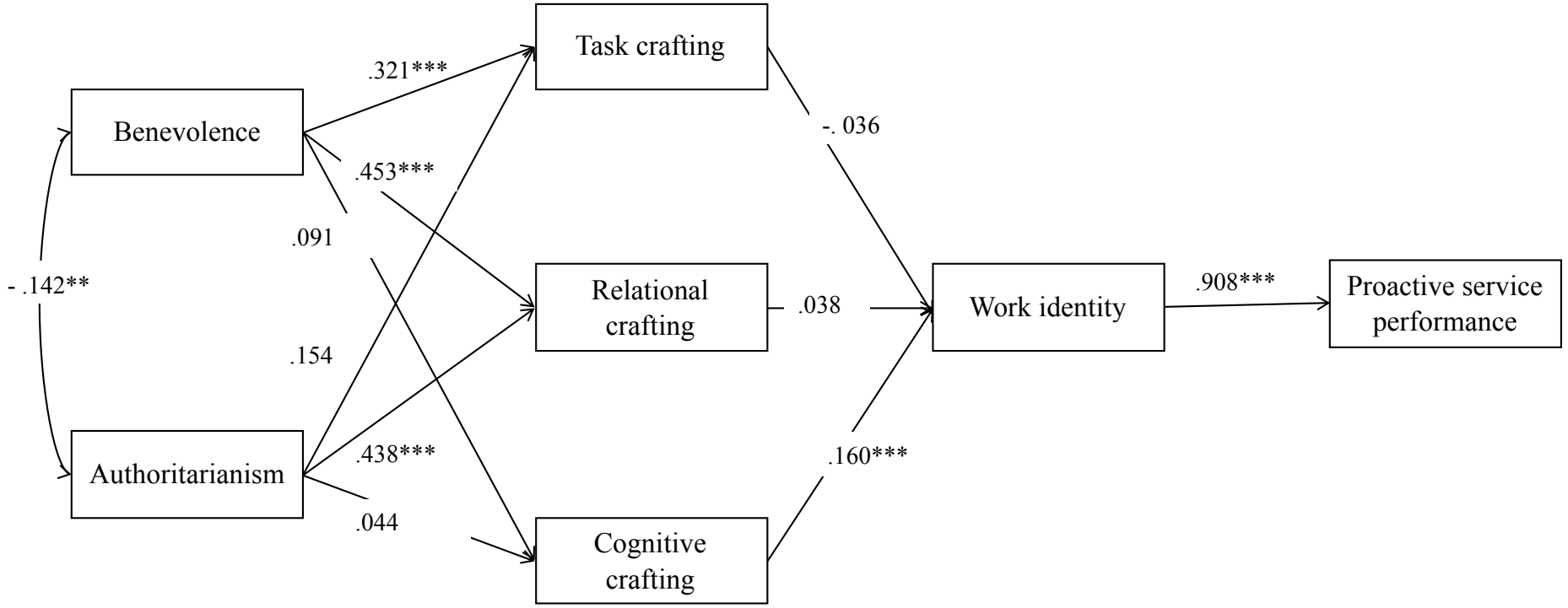


Figure 5.3 presented the path estimates for the model with task-, relational, cognitive crafting (Model 2). H11a predicted that benevolence is positively related to task crafting. This was supported by a positive path (b= .316, p<.0). H11b indicated benevolence is positively related to relational crafting was supported (b= .433, p<.001). H11c assumes benevolence positively relates to cognitive crafting, this was not supported. H12a-H12c predicted the relationships between authoritarianism and task crafting (H12a), relational crafting (H12b), and cognitive crafting (H12c). Only H12b was supported by a significant positive path (b= .438, p<.001). H13a-H13c predicted the positive relation from task (H13a), relational (H13b), and cognitive crafting (H13c) to work identity. Only H13b indicated the positive relation from cognitive crafting to work identity was supported (b= .160, p<.001). As for the effect of task, relational, cognitive crafting on proactive service performance (H14a-H14c), task crafting was found positively related to proactive service performance (b=. 241, p<.001); relational crafting was positively related to proactive service performance (b=. 206, p<.001). Also, cognitive crafting was positively related to proactive service performance (b=. 272, p<.001). Therefore, H14a, H14b, and H14c were supported.

Table 5.4 presents a summary of the hypotheses and testing results

Figure 5.3 Path estimates for the hypothesized model for task, relational, cognitive crafting



Notes.N=104, p<.001***, p</01**, p<.05*

Table 5.4 Hypotheses acceptance table for Study 2

Dependent variable	Independent variables	Hypothesis	Results
Model 1			
benevolence	**approach crafting**	**H1a**	**Supported**
benevolence	avoidance crafting	H1b	Not supported
authoritarianism	approach crafting	H2a	Not supported
authoritarianism	**avoidance crafting**	**H2b**	**Supported**
LGOxbeneovlence	approach crafting	H3a	Not supported
LGOxbeneovlence	avoidance crafting	H3b	Not supported
LGOxauthoritarianism	approach crafting	H3c	Not supported
LGOxauthoritarianism	avoidance crafting	H3d	Not supported
PGOxbenevolence	**approach crafting**	**H4a**	**Supported**
PGOxbenevolence	avoidance crafting	H4b	Not supported
PGOxauthoritarianism	approach crafting	H4c	Not supported
PGOxauthoritarianism	avoidance crafting	H4d	Not supported
approach crafting	**work identity**	**H5**	**Supported**
avoidance crafting	work identity	H6	Not supported
approach crafting	**Proactive service performance**	**H7**	**Supported**
avoidance crafting	**Proactive service performance**	**H8**	**Supported**
Indirect effect			
benevolence-approach crafting- proactive service performance		**H9a**	**Supported**
authoritarianism-approach crafting- proactive service performance		H9b	Not supported
benevolence-avoidance crafting- proactive service performance		H10a	Not supported
authoritarianism-avoidance crafting- proactive service performance		H10b	Not supported
Model 2			
benevolence	**task crafting**	**H11a**	**Supported**
benevolence	**relational crafting**	**H11b**	**Supported**

benevolence	cognitive crafting	**H11c**	Not supported
authoritarianism	task crafting	**H12a**	Not supported
authoritarianism	**relational crafting**	**H12b**	**Supported**
authoritarianism	cognitive crafting	H12c	Not supported
task crafting	work identity	H13a	Not supported
relational crafting	work identity	H13b	Not supported
cognitive crafting	**work identity**	**H13c**	**Supported**
task crafting	**Proactive service performance**	**H14a**	**Supported**
relational crafting	**Proactive service performance**	**H14b**	**Supported**
cognitive crafting	**Proactive service performance**	**H14c**	**Supported**

5.6 Discussion

Study 2 extends the knowledge of job crafting by introducing work identity as outcome of approach-avoidance crafting and replicating the tests with task-, relational- and cognitive crafting. Some of the results were consistent with Study1: benevolence shown consistent positive effect on individual approach crafting but not avoidance crafting; authoritarianism demonstrated positive effect on individual avoidance crafting but not approach crafting.

However, different from Study 1, the moderation role of performance goal orientation (PGO) demonstrated different effect. In Study 1, PGO was not found moderating the relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. In Study 2, when leaders demonstrate low benevolence, individuals with low PGO conducted more approach crafting compared to those with high PGO. However, when leaders present high benevolence, individuals with high PGO conducts more approach crafting compared to those with low PGO. This is different from the original hypothesis. One explanation could be the resources employees have to cope with work tasks are different with high or low benevolent leaders. If there are not sufficient resources,

employees with high-performance orientation might be more threatened by the risks of making mistakes. Leader's benevolence may attenuate the negative effect of performance goal orientation on individual performance as employees are more likely to complete a task successful.

As an extension of Study 1, results of Study 2 revealed the role of job crafting on work identity. Specifically, approach crafting was found positively related to work identity. Also, cognitive crafting had a direct positive association with work identity. Results of this study also indicated approach crafting and work identity can be mechanisms to explain the relationship between benevolence and proactive service performance.

Benevolence was found related to task, relational, and cognitive crafting. These findings were consistent with previous studies (e.g., Martin et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017; Wu & Parker, 2017) which indicated leaders who demonstrate support and concern to subordinates promoted employee's job crafting. Interestingly, authoritarianism was found positively related to relational crafting. This finding may suggest employees may take proactive actions to attenuate the negative effect of authoritarian leadership. I will discuss this in the following future studies section.

5.6.1 Theoretical implications

This study provides several important theoretical implications. First, Study 2 extends the results of Study 1 and enhanced the understanding of paternalistic leadership. Benevolence and authoritarian shown distinct effects on employee job crafting behaviors. Benevolent leaders may encourage employees conduct more approach crafting, while authoritarian leaders are

associated with employee avoidance crafting. Also, both benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership were not found related to cognitive crafting. This suggests leaders are not involved in the cognition process for employees. This study also provides an explanation for the effect of benevolent leadership to employee proactive performance by indicating the serial mediation via approach crafting and work identity.

Secondly, this study extends the identity research by showing that individual can shape or change their work identity with redesigning their work activities. Prior research on identity has long suggested that job characteristics shape employee self-concept, which further influence employee performance (Parker, 2014). However, little research discussed the effect of job crafting on individual work identity at workplace. This study extends the theoretical understanding of job crafting in forms of approach and avoidance, as well as in task, relation, cognition and work identity. This study is among the first to provide empirical evidence supporting Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) arguments about job crafting and work identity. Specifically, Individuals can improve their work identities by undertaking approach crafting, that is, to experiment with new work methods, expand new roles, and expand tasks and visions. This finding is consistent with Stobbeleir et al.'s (2019) study in which they found employees try different tasks beyond their prescribed jobs through an app can explore new professional ties and claim stronger professional identity. Additionally, cognitive crafting shown a positive relationship with work identity, indicating that employees can enhance their affiliation with work by reframing the meaning of their work. This extends the knowledge of the behavioral and cognitive aspects of job crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2019). Despite tangible changes in forms

of increasing or decreasing the number of tasks or interactions, employees may conduct intangible crafting, that is to change the scope of their work.

5.6.2 Practical implication

This study has several implications for healthcare organizations, which are as follows: First, managers should allow employees to expand or contract their work boundaries in order to strengthen their identification with their jobs. Second, because of the nature of the healthcare work, employees' primary attention is not only on accomplishing assigned work tasks, but also on giving a complete and dedicated service to patients. As a result, healthcare managers need to recognize the importance of healthcare personnel's skill and incentive to craft in order to create meaningful experiences for both employees and patients. The use of job crafting enabled staff to increase their work productivity while decreasing extraneous burdens, so enabling them to provide better patient service. During the course of a hospitalization, the head doctor or nurse supervises subordinate doctors or nurses based on their daily clinical practice. In order to encourage employees to undertake more job crafting, the head doctor/nurse should offer support and consideration to their subordinates and behave like a role model in order to urge subordinates to take on additional work responsibilities. Hospitals could provide paternalistic leadership training to the head doctor or nurse in order to raise their recognition of the importance of assembling a proactive medical team in their facilities. Third, the findings of the study revealed that not all types of crafting are equally helpful in increasing work performance. Employees are likely to provide a dedicated service to patients if they are allowed to expand

themselves. Thus, organizations are encouraged to provide workshops for employees who would like to acquire new work methods and improve their overall capacity.

5.6.3 Research limitations and future research

Several methodological limitations should be kept in mind. First, the data for this study was collected at two-time points without longitudinal design. Thus, the findings cannot be used to draw causal inferences. Based on identity work theory, the interactions of job and identity change can be spiral and mutual influenced (Kira & Balkin, 2014). Identity work theory explained how individuals form, repair, maintain, strengthen, or revise their identity (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Principally, Pratt, Rockmann, and Kauffman (2006) illustrated the interplay between work and identity learning cycles in work-identity customization. They indicated that during an identity learning cycle, work content and process made individuals develop wok-identity through integrity assessments, then customize identity via identity splinting, patching, and enriching strategies. Subsequently, individuals experience a social validation stage where they receive feedback from others or learn from a prototype (a role model). At that time, the social feedback led to another loop starting from the identity integrity assessment. Therefore, the relationship between work identity and job crafting might be mutually influenced. Future scholars can conduct longitudinal studies to interpret more on the work-identity interplay process.

Second, the data was self-rated and thus common method bias may exist. In this study, I split the data collection into 2 times, and the mark variable indicated that the common method

error was acceptable. However, the sample size is limited and result in a poor measurement model fit. Further study need a larger sample size.

I proposed the following future directions for consideration. The current study is designed at the individual level. Given the practical clinical work in hospitals are usually organized in teams, a multilevel study is needed. The team-level factors, such as team climate can impact employee's attitudes and tendency to proactively tailor their job. Future research should include team-level predictors that may influence individual-level outcomes.

Also, this study focused only on the subordinate's crafting. It is not clear if leaders are willing to conduct crafting and how does this affect their performance or identity. As employee's crafting was found related to work identity, leader's crafting may have associations with their leader identity. Research can investigate whether leader's crafting behaviors are associated with their leader identity.

Authoritarian leadership was found positively related to relational crafting. This suggests that authoritarian leaders may invoke employees to take proactive steps to alleviate stress at their workplace. Relational crafting involves increasing or reducing social interactions with others. By conducting such behaviors, individuals achieve a control of themselves (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 200), which may further reduce the possible stain caused by mistreatments. In support, Frieder et al. (2015) found individuals may take proactive voice to reduce the negative effect of authoritarian leadership. Employee speaking up and helping voice are beneficial to reduce strain and work performance (Ng & Feldman, 2012; Whiting et al., 2008). A future research for the study of authoritarian leadership and employee's proactive actions for seeking other sources of networking is needed.

Future studies may also interpret more on the associations and differences between task/ relational / cognitive crafting and approach/ avoidance crafting. For example, Bindl et al. (2019) invented a job crafting scale in which they categorized task / relational / cognitive crafting into prevention- or promotion-oriented forms. Scholars can adopt other job crafting measures to integrate these two job crafting models for a holistic and systematic understanding of different forms of job crafting.

In this study, work identity was conceptualized as organizational-related, professional-related, and general work-related identities. Future research can study work identity from different perspectives (such leader and follower identity). Individuals can shape their identity by modifying their activities, relationships with others, and making sense of work events. This process that individuals learning "possible selves" vary from role transition stages (Ibarra, 2005). For newcomers, they learn a new identity by becoming participants in the practices of a group. If individual's primary work changes, this may challenge their perception of who they are and also who they want to be (Pratt et al., 2006). Therefore, as newcomers begin to identify with a new group, gatekeepers may experience integration or conflicts of different identities. Future research may explore more on the differences of work identity between old and new employees.

CHAPTER 6 STUDY 3 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION AND MULTILEVEL TEST OF PRIOR WORK

This chapter extends the theoretical model of Study 1 and 2 by looking it from a multilevel perspective. In addition to test the links between paternalistic leadership an approach-avoidance crafting, this chapter conceptualized paternalistic leadership from individual-level perception of and team-level perception of leadership. Also, approach-avoidance crafting is assumed as individual-level crafting and tam-level crafting. I hope, therefore, to advance a more complete depiction of the effect of paternalistic leadership on employee job crafting and the interplay of individual characteristics (performance and learning goal orientation), and to stimulate more coherent thinking and research in this regard. Study 3 adopts a multilevel perspective to study the key constructs.

In sum, this chapter among with Study 1 and Study 2 takes an encompassing and integrative approach towards paternalistic leadership, job crafting, work identity and employee outcomes. In the following, I will first discuss the elements of paternalistic leadership, outlining the respective conceptual framework. Then, I will turn towards job crafting and work identity describing the respective theoretical model. Lastly, I present the results and discuss its contributions, its limitation and future research.

6.1 Introduction

In modern organizations, the use of teams as an organizational unit for learning and accomplishing work has been well-documented. (Knapp, 2010; Illgen, et al., 2006). Leaders are representative of teams and their actions are often imitated by team members (Aquino et al.,

1999). To rapidly response of changes in technology and markets, leaders are expected to design work that facilitate follower's learning and development as well as achieving a balance between control and flexibility (Zhang & Parker, 2019). Leadership has been defined as a process that leaders influencing the activities of a team toward the task accomplishment (Chemers, 1997). Scholars asked for more research to study leadership effect on not only individual-level but team-level process and outcomes (Yammarino, et al., 2005). Paternalistic leadership is a popular leadership style in non-western countries that needs more research attention (Bedi, 2020). Researchers called for more research on paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Chen, et al., 2014; Bedi, 2020). The current literature of paternalistic leadership suggests several gaps.

First, the vast majority of paternalistic leadership research has focused on the effect of individual-level outcomes, while neglecting the effect on team, unit, or organizational-level outcomes (Hiller, et al., 2019). Previous studies suggest paternalistic leadership can influence employee individual-level job crafting behaviors (Tuan, 2018). Scholars pointed out that individual job crafting might be transferred to team level crafting (Leana, et al., 2009; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015). In job crafting literature, the team-level crafting has been rare (Tims, et al., 2013; Niessen, 2016). Little research has done testing the effect of leadership on team-level crafting and team-level outcomes.

Second, leadership inherently is a phenomenon that occurs in teams with hierarchical structure (i.e., leader and follower) (Dansereau & Yammarino, 1998). Over decades, scholars called for leadership research to identify the levels-of-analysis (Yammarino, et al., 2005). The present perspective of studying leadership seek to explicitly identify the levels of analysis and

align theory and data (Dionne, et al., 2014). Paternalistic leadership can be conceptualized at individual level, which refers to individual perception of leader's traits; or at team-level, which indicates the management practices and accompanying climate (Farh, et al., 2008; Hiller, et al., 2019). Individual perceptions of leadership might differ people to people due to the fact that leaders may treat subordinates within the same team differently. More research is needed to investigate if the individual evaluation of leadership for a given leader is consistent or homogeneous with the team's evaluation (Farh & Cheng, 2000).

Third, past job crafting research reveals that individuals can modify their role boundaries and give meaning to their work, so altering their work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Employees can change job resources and demands to participate a process called identity work, which is to add, maintain or subtract their identity (Braine & Roodt, 2011). As leadership can influence individual job crafting behaviors (Dash & Vohra, 2019; Tuan, 2018; Thun & Bakker, 2018; Esteves & Lopes, 2017; Wang et al., 2017), it may further change their work identity and influence employee outcomes.

To address these limitations in the current literature, this study aims to examine the effect of paternalistic leadership on individual and team crafting, as well as outcomes across multilevel levels of management through application of a multiple level-of-analysis perspective. By investigating the effect of paternalistic leadership on individual and team job crafting, I extend the leadership literature as testing employee job crafting as an outcome. This study also contributes to job crafting literature as it bridges links between individual job crafting to work identity, also explores the team crafting and team-level outcomes.

6.2 Literature and hypotheses

6.2.1 Individual-level perceptions of paternalistic leadership and outcomes

Prior research of paternalistic leadership mainly focused on the individual-level analysis. Paternalistic leadership is conceptualized as the employee's perception of their supervisor's benevolent and authoritarian leadership (e.g., Chan, 2014; Tian & Sanchez, 2016; Wang & Guan, 2018; Zheng, et al., 2019). However, individual perception of their supervisor may vary from people to people. Farh et al (2008) argued that paternalistic leadership at the upper level of team refers to an overall management practice (such as top-down decision-making style, a centralized hierarchy structure) that create whether a supportive or dominant climate in workplace. Based on their proposed multilevel model (Figure 5.1), the lower-level paternalistic leadership impacts follower outcomes through a cognitive-motivational process (fear, gratitude and identification), while the upper-level functions through creating organizational climate. Farh et al (2008) stated that upper-level paternalistic leadership can leave an impact on team-level results, and lower-level paternalistic leadership affects individual outcomes. This multilevel approach supports the proposal to investigate the influence of leadership behaviors from the perspective of both individual employees' idiosyncratic experiences and the collective experience of work-unit members (e.g. Dansereau and Yammarino, 1998; Liao and Chuang, 2007). Based on their framework, I conceptualize paternalistic leadership from individual- and team-level.

Benevolence of paternalistic leadership focused on providing both social resources (networks, feedback and individualized care) and structural resources (work opportunities and

autonomy). At individual-level, benevolent leadership refers to a follower's perception of their leader's benevolent behaviors that taking care of followers within and beyond workplace. Similar with the function of transformation leadership (Dash & Vohra, 2019), benevolent leadership relies on a supportive leadership style that encourages employees expand themselves as a reciprocal return.

H1. Individual perceptions of benevolence are positively related to individual's approach crafting.

Authoritarian leaders are inclined to exert control by issuing rules and threatening punishment for disobedience (Aryee et al., 2007). They frequently enforce strict discipline on their subordinates' work and exhibit authority over decision-making. (Wang et al., 2013). Individuals who are requested to comply with leader's command yet disagree with their leaders may experience negative emotions (Farh et al., 2006). Previous studies suggested that authoritarianism is negatively associated with work outcomes (Farh & Cheng, 2000; Jiang, et al., 2017). However, Scholars argued authoritarianism can exert positive effects on employees (Wang & Guan, 2018; Tian & Sanchez, 2017). When a leader demonstrates authoritarian behaviors, employees are feared to experiment different work methods and take extra work tasks as they may make mistakes. In this sense, authoritarianism constrained followers expand work boundaries. As a buffer, subordinates tend to reduce their tension and anxiety by stepping away from challenging demands. Thus,

H2. Individual perceptions of authoritarianism are positively related to individual's avoidance crafting.

6.2.2 The mediating role of job crafting and work identity

Work identity refers to a combination of identities toward organization and profession targets. On the early research of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), the link between job crafting and work identity has been proposed. Several authors suggest job crafting involves changes in individual identities (e.g., Strauss & Parker, 2012; Welbourne & Paterson, 2017; Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Rogiers et al., 2019). As Wrzesniewski and her colleagues (2001; 2013) noted, employees change their task, relational and cognitive boundaries and directly attach new meanings to their work. Recent research also indicated that individual proactively change their job resources and demands to alter or sustain their identity for achieving a balance between job activities and their preferred identity (Chen & Reay, 2020; Bentley, et al., 2019; Kira & Balkin, 2014). Approach crafting emphasized on the increase of resources and interactions with others, and thus help to strength the alignments between job and preferred identity. Thus, it enhances work identity. Avoidance crafting on the contrary, focused on withdrawal from possible opportunities to experiment future work selves, and thus lead to a relatively weak work identity.

H3. Individual approach crafting is positively related to work identity.

H4. Individual avoidance crafting is negatively related to work identity.

According to the previous studies, job crafting is a key predictor of burnout and work engagement (Tims et al.,2013; Harju et al., 2016). Additionally, individual identification toward their organization and profession may alleviate emotional exhaustion (Avanzi, et al., 2015) and enhance work engagement (Arshad, et al., 2022; Adamovic,e t al., 2022). Given that

benevolence and authoritarianism are proposed to influence approach-avoidance crafting, they may further affect work identity and burnout, work engagement. In specific:

H5a. Individual approach crafting and work identity mediate the relationship between benevolence and burnout in a serial fashion.

H5b. Individual approach crafting and work identity mediate the relationship between benevolence and work engagement in a serial fashion.

H6a. Individual avoidance crafting and work identity mediate the relationship between authoritarianism and burnout in a serial fashion.

H6b. Individual avoidance crafting and work identity mediate the relationship between authoritarianism and work engagement in a serial fashion.

6.2.3 Team-level perceptions of paternalistic leadership and outcomes

Early scholars have argued that job crafting can be composed at team-level that is distinct from individual-level job crafting (Leana, 2009). People working together in teams jointly determine how to alter their work to achieve common objectives (Brown & Duguid, 1991). Leana (2009) referred this jointly activities as collaborative crafting. She contended that the term collaborative crafting might apply to either an explicit agreement of work arrangement, or an implicit informal process of completing a task. The difference between individual crafting and collaborative crafting lies in the fact that the latter requires team member's joint effort. This can happen on a dyad or group context with members of team working collaboratively to change work boundaries. Individuals can engage in both crafting. At the team level, behaviors

of a given leader may vary from followers to followers. Based on Farh et al's (2008) framework, the team-level benevolence indicated an overall climate that leaders support followers within and beyond workplace while the team-level authoritarianism refers to an overall climate that employees are encouraged to obey leader's command. As individuals in the same work group are likely to have shared visions and engage in similar work process, it is reasonable to expect they collaborate on changing work environment (Ghitulescu, 2006). At the team level, if individuals are engaged to share knowledge and experiment different tasks, they have more opportunities to conduct job crafting (Niessen et al., 2016). The team-level benevolence and team-level authoritarianism may affect team job crafting. I propose:

H7. Team-level perceptions of benevolent leadership are positively related to team approach crafting.

On the other hand, when the team requests members restrained themselves and focused on their own tasks, individuals have less opportunity to decide how to do a task and try possible challenges. The team members accordingly have less decision-making power on work methods and arrangements. Thus,

H8. Team-level perceptions of authoritarian leadership are positively related to team avoidance crafting.

Team performance is an important indicator for appraisal team effectiveness. In the healthcare industry, clinical professionals collaborate to provide patients with quality treatment. Previous research has confirmed that job crafting can facilitate team performance (Demerouti,

et al., 2015; Tims et al., 2015) yet little research tested the relation of job crafting and proactive performance. The proactive service performance indicates to what extant employees constantly take effort to anticipate and satisfy patient's demands (Rank, et al., 2007). During the process of conducting approach crafting, employees are more inclined to view customer requests as challenging demands that are potential opportunities to gain personal growth and development. Thus, they are more eager to improve their capacity to carry out and take tasks goes beyond their job description. At team level, a team with overall high-level approach crafting is more likely to inspire its members to collaborate in order to deliver better service. Thus, I expect a positive relationship between team-level approach crafting and team proactive performance. In contrast, a team with overall high-level avoidance crafting means team members are less likely to anticipate patient's extra demands as to avoid extra responsibilities and possible negative feedback. Thus,

H9a. Team-level perceptions of approach crafting are positively related to team proactive performance.

H9b. Team-level perceptions of avoidance crafting are negatively related to team proactive performance.

6.2.4 The moderating effect of performance and learning goal orientation

As discussed in Chapter 4 (Study 1) and Chapter 5 (Study 2), performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation is believed to moderate the relationships between paternalistic leadership and job crafting. In specific,

H10a. At in individual level, performance goal orientation moderates the relationship between benevolence and individual approach crafting. The relationship of benevolence with approach crafting will be weaker when individuals have high PGO.

H10b. At individual level, performance goal orientation moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and individual avoidance crafting. The relationship of authoritarianism with approach crafting will be stronger when individuals have high PGO.

H11a. At individual level, learning goal orientation moderates the relationship between benevolence and individual approach crafting. The relationship of benevolence and approach crafting will be stronger when individuals have high LGO.

H11b. At individual level, learning goal orientation moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and individual avoidance crafting. The relationship of authoritarianism and avoidance crafting will be weaker when individuals have high LGO.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Participants and procedure

Data were collected from supervisor-employee dyads in China, 2020. The participants for study 3 were full-time employees working for a public hospital. We initially established

contact with the HR department for the hospital and offered a specific research report in exchange for study participation. Together with the HR staff, I randomly choose available clinical team leader and their followers to participate this study[3]. The HR department informed all participants the academic purpose and the confidentiality of the survey. Participants were asked to complete the survey sealed in an envelope during their weekly team meeting. Each envelope contains codes to match employees with their clinical team. The HR staff hand-delivered enveloped survey to 400 employees from 80 clinical teams. In the end, 365 employees responded (a response rate of 91.3 %) and 80 supervisors participated. The group size ranges from 3 to 12 followers with an average group size of 4.57 employees. The employee sample were fairly divided by gender (48 % were male) and were mostly young people (29.6% under 25 years old and 26.8% of 26-30 years old). Most of them were doctors (45.8%), work 8 hours per day (45.75%), and often contacted with their supervisor (52.6%). The supervisor sample consists of 44 males and 36 females. Most of the supervisors were chief doctor (66.3%) followed by chief nurse (30%), with tenure more than 20 year (36.3%).

6.3.2 Measures

Paternalistic leadership. I measured benevolence and authoritarianism from the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Cheng, Chou, and Farh (2000). Respondents rated from 1 "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree". I changed the referent from "my supervisor"

[3] Some clinical departments are not available for contact due to hospital policy. Some departments were excluded from contact list as its tense workload may reduce the survey completion rate, for example, the ICU and emergency departments.

of the original scale to “the chief doctor/nurse” to suit our research context. A sample item for benevolence is “The chief doctor/nurse is like a family member when he/she gets along with us”, a sample item for authoritarianism is “The chief doctor/ nurse scolds us when we can’t accomplish our tasks”. Previous research showed that leadership can be treated as either an individual or group-level construct (e.g., Liao & Chuang, 2007; Liang, Knippenberg & Gu, 2020). I treated benevolence and authoritarianism as individual-level variables as the perception of and treatment from benevolent/authoritarian leaders may vary from person to person (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Cronbach’s alpha for benevolence and authoritarianism was .95 and .92, respectively.

Approach and avoidance crafting. Employee’s job crafting in form of approach crafting was measured by 15-items from Tims et al’s (2012) job crafting scale. Approach crafting consists of three dimensions of Tim et al’s scale, which are increasing structural resources, increasing social resources, and increasing challenging demands. A sample item was “I try to develop my capabilities”. Cronbach’s alpha for approach crafting is .94. Employee’s avoidance crafting was measure by 6-items from Tims et al’s (2012) hindering job demands scale. A sample is “I make sure that my work is mentally less intense”. Cronbach alpha is .76.

Work identity I composed the work identity scale by adopting Organizational Identification Scale (Mael and Ashforth, 1992), Organizational Identity Strength Scale (Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004), Importance to identity scale (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). I conceptualize work identity into 3 parts: organization-related identification and identity strength, profession-related identification and identity strength, and identity-work relevance. To test the validity of this composed measurement, we conducted a series of CFA models and compare our

hypothesized model (in which work identity is composed of organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, identity-work relevance) with other alternative models. The hypothesized model provides a model fit of (X^2 =1307.539, df=345, RMSEA=.088, CFI/TLI=.845/.830, SRMR= .067). Cronbach alpha for work identity scale is .94. For the full scale, see Appendix.

Work engagement is measured by Schaufeli & Bakker's (2006) work engagement scale. A sample item is "At my work, I feel bursting with energy". The scale consists of 10 items, with a reliability of .94.

Team proactive performance. I adapted Rank et al.'s (2007) 10-item proactive service performance scale by changing the referent from "customers" to "patients". A sample item is "I proactively share information with my patients to meet their needs". The Cronbach alpha is .95.

Control variables. To enable generalizability of study findings, I controlled for team size, age, gender, occupation, tenure, work hour, and their contact frequency with supervisors which may influence their perception toward paternalistic leadership leadership (Hiller, et al., 2019) and job crafting (Rudolph, et al., 2017; Boehnlein & Baum, 2019). To make sure the leadership variable leave influence beyond and above personal and work characteristics, I controlled for proactive personality, job autonomy and job interdependence as those variables were found significantly influence job crafting (Bakker et al.,2012; Demerouti, et al., 2019; Diedorff & Jensen, 2018). The proactive personality was measured by 5 items (Seibert et al.,1999) with a Cronbach alpha of 84. An example item is "I constantly looking for new ways to improve myself". I measured job autonomy and interdependence by using 6 items from

Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) job characteristic scale. An example item for autonomy is "I can decide on my own about how to do my work". Cronbach alpha for autonomy scale is .82. An example item for interdependence is "Unless my job gets down, other jobs cannot be completed." The reliability for interdependence is .84.

The study data was collected during Covid-19 period at China. Participants for this study were influenced by the pandemic such as work time changes, more strict work procedures and limited contact with patients. To interpret the influence of Covid-19, I controlled individual perceptions of the impact of Covid-19 (1= less busy, 2= very little influence, 3= much busier).

6.3.3 Analytic strategies

Descriptive analysis was conducted with SPSS 23. Because of the nested data structure (i.e., employees at level 1 were nested with teams at level 2), I analyzed data with using multilevel path analysis in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). Items was parceled based on single-factor method (Landis et al., 2000; Hall, 1999). Following Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang, (2010), I established a model that contained individual-level factors (benevolence, authoritarianism, approach crafting, avoidance crafting, burnout, and work engagement), and team-level factors (team benevolence, team authoritarianism, team approach crafting, team avoidance crafting, team proactive service performance). For testing the indirect effects, I computed the total indirect effect by multiplicate the path estimates from (1) X variable to M1, (2), M1 to M2, and (3) M2 to outcome variable (based on Model I 1-1-1 mediation with fixed slopes MSEM, Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010). For testing the within-level moderation (with predictor, moderator, and outcome at individual-level), I adopted a random slope to examine

the effect of moderator on the raltionship between predictor and outcome. Followed Chen, Liu, and Portnoy (2012)'s suggestion, I group-mean centered the predictor and moderator to avoid detecting a spurious cross-level interactive effect. For model estimates, I followed Hu and Bentler (1999)'s suggestions and adopted the following indices: the chi-square statistic, the comparative fix index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR). According to Kline (2005), a good model fit is indicated by a small ratio (<3) between the chi-square and the degrees of the freedom, by a CFI and TLI above 0.90, an RMSEA below 0.05 and an SRMR under 0.10.

6.4 Results

6.4.1 Preliminary analysis

Table 6.1 shows the mean, SD, reliability, and correlations of study variables.

Table 6. 1 ***Descriptives and correlations of variables in Study 3***

Individual-level variables

		Mean	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Team size				1									
2	Gender				.147**	1								
3	Age				0.016	-.153**	1							
4	Profession				-0.099	-0.081	-.480**	1						
5	Tenure				0.081	-0.073	.829**	-.408**	1					
6	Work hours				-0.086	-.244**	.320**	-0.095	.191**	1				
7	Overtime work hours				-0.091	-.170**	.327**	-.184**	.388**	.378**	1			
8	Contact with patients				-.118*	-.218**	0.017	0.083	-0.063	.183**	0.031	1		
9	Tenure with the same manager				0.057	-0.014	.625**	-.438**	.737**	.211**	.365**	-0.069	1	
10	Impact of Covid19				0.093	.113*	-0.059	0.032	0.032	-.110*	0.046	-0.03	0.047	1
11	Proactive personality	4.91	0.93	0.84	-0.088	-.316**	.138**	0.091	0.035	.252**	0.095	.315**	0.071	-.154**
12	Autonomy	3.97	0.9	0.82	-.113*	-.252**	.151**	0.01	.125*	.131*	0.025	.141**	.169**	0.011
13	Interdependence	3.07	1.12	0.84	-0.09	-0.049	0.087	-0.084	0.046	0.072	-0.046	-0.071	0.096	-0.027
14	Benevolence	5.26	0.88	0.96	-0.085	-.234**	-0.066	.133*	-.128*	0.032	-0.054	.291**	-0.097	-0.066
15	Authoritarianism	3.73	1.29	0.92	-.128*	-.224**	.115*	-0.02	0.06	.206**	.119*	-0.027	0.049	-.106*
16	Approach crafting	4.37	0.59	0.94	-0.056	-.324**	0.075	.121*	0.009	.143**	0.043	.249**	0.016	-0.034
17	Avoidance crafting	4.02	0.71	0.76	-.134*	-.205**	.178**	0.022	.138**	.114*	0.076	.157**	.158**	0.03
18	Learning goal orientation	4.43	0.62	0.93	-0.022	-.258**	-0.028	.153**	-.112*	0.097	-0.028	.319**	-0.085	-.115*
19	Performance goal orientation	4.18	0.63	0.85	-0.029	-.200**	.104*	0.029	0.057	.164**	0.079	.178**	0.079	-.125*
20	Work identity	4.51	0.5	0.94	-0.006	-0.101	0.013	0.046	-0.009	0.002	0.022	.236**	0.014	0.089
21	Burnout	2.36	1.61	0.97	0.003	.172**	0.081	-.167**	.146**	-0.01	0.016	-.153**	0.088	.148**
22	Work engagement	4.27	0.77	0.94	-0.013	-.285**	0.035	.172**	-0.018	.123*	-0.011	.325**	-0.016	-0.084

(continued)

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
11	Proactive personality	.445**	1										
12	Autonomy	.194**	.389**	1									
13	Interdependence	.530**	.403**	.146**	1								
14	Benevolence	.131*	.251**	.364**	0.022	1							
15	Authoritarianism	.635**	.540**	.147**	.679**	.143**	1						
16	Approach crafting	.460**	.457**	.207**	.349**	.224**	.549**	1					
17	Avoidance crafting	.664**	.398**	0.045	.582**	0.057	.700**	.358**	1				
18	Learning goal orientation	.580**	.521**	.313**	.465**	.279**	.561**	.446**	.571**	1			
19	Performance goal orientation	.444**	.403**	.173**	.535**	.139**	.664**	.445**	.509**	.524**	1		
20	Work identity	-.311**	-.226**	.128*	-.374**	.312**	-.399**	-.116*	-.462**	-.251**	-.275**	1	
21	Burnout	.622**	.468**	.118*	.635**	0.029	.707**	.361**	.680**	.543**	.601**	-.475**	1
22	Work engagement												

(Continued)

Team-level variables

	Team-level	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	Team benevolence	5.26	.54	1				
2	Team authoritarianism	3.73	.91	.139**	1			
3	Team approach crafting	4.37	.41	.853**	.211**	1		
4	Team avoidance crafting	4.02	.44	.625**	.225**	.676**	1	
5	Team proactive performance	6.12	.58	.791**	0.065	.725**	.526**	1

*N=365. p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05**

6.4.2 Multilevel Confirmatory factor analysis

To ensure the use of multilevel-analysis technique for this data, I first calculated the ICC (1) value of paternalistic leadership and outcome variables (i.e., benevolence, authoritarianism approach crafting, avoidance crafting, work identity, burnout, work engagement, and team proactive service performance). The ICC (1) value ranges from .17 to .31, indicating 17%-31% variance of the outcome variables can be explained by membership. This provides evidence to use a multilevel model (Hofmann, 2002). To ensure the conceptual distinctiveness of level-1 variables, I conducted a series of multilevel confirmatory factor analysis. I run a model which indicated benevolence, authoritarianism, approach crafting, avoidance crafting, work identity, burnout and work engagement, team proactive service performance at level 1. To be noted, I included employee proactive service performance as a level-1 variable as it was originally collected from individuals before aggregation. Results of a series of MCFAs suggest that the proposed 10-factor model provided a better fit (X^2=1000.521, df=419, RMSEA=.062, CFI/TLI=.926/.913, SRMR within=.089, SRMR between=.000) than a 9-factor model with benevolence and authoritarianism loaded on a single factor (X^2=1670.271, df=428, RMSEA=.089, CFI/TLI=.843/.818, SRMR within=.0114, SRMR between=.000), or a 1-factor model where all level 1 variables loaded on a single factor (X^2=4498.520, df=464, RMSEA=.154, CFI/TLI=.489/.454, SRMR within=.123, SRMR between=.000). Thus, MCFA results establish the conceptual distinctiveness of our study variables.

6.4.3 Aggregation

Given the multi-level structure of the data, this study involves within-level and between-level analysis. The within-level variables include individual perceptions of benevolence and authoritarianism, individual approach crafting, individual avoidance crafting, work identity, burnout, OCB and work engagement. The between-level variables are team-level perceptions of benevolence and authoritarianism, team-level perceptions of approach crafting, team-level perceptions of avoidance crafting, and team proactive service performance). To justify the aggregation of the between-level variables, I calculated rwg and inter-member reliability (ICCs) by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results shown: team perceptions of benevolence (mean rwg = .81; ICC1= .20; ICC2=. 54; $F(79,285) = 2.15$, $p<.001$), team perceptions of authoritarianism (mean rwg= .64; ICC1=.35; ICC2=.71; $F(79,284) = 3.49$, $p<.001$), team perceptions of approach crafting (mean rwg= .88; ICC1= .31; ICC2= .68; $F(79,285) = 3.08$, $p<.001$), team perceptions of avoidance crafting (mean rwg= .82; ICC1= .23; ICC2=. 57; $F(79,285) = 2.33$, $p<.001$), and team proactive service performance (mean rwg= .82; ICC1=.18; ICC2= .50; $F(79, 283) = 1.98$, $p<.001$). The ICC (2) values were lower than the traditional .70 criterion because of the small group sizes (M=4.57) in this sample; however, data aggregation is still justifiable by high rwg(j) values and significant between-groups variance (Chen & Bliese, 2002).

6.4.4 Hypotheses testing

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of focal variables are illustrated in Table 2. The path model analysis results for our study are depicted in Figure 6.1. H1 describes the

positive relationship between individual perception of benevolence and approach crafting, which was supported (b= .290, p<.000). As H2 predicted, the positive relation from individual perception of authoritarianism to avoidance was supported (b= .067, p<.05). H3 predicted a positive relation from approach crafting to work identity, this was supported (b= .532, p<.001). H4 assumes avoidance crafting is negatively related to work identity, this relation presents an opposite effect from prediction (b= .087, p<.01).

H5a indicated that approach crafting, and work identity mediates in sequence the relation from benevolence to burnout, this was not supported. H5b predicted a serial mediation from benevolence to work engagement via approach crafting and work identity and was supported (indirect b = .061, p<.001). H6a stated a serial mediation from authoritarianism to burnout through avoidance crafting and work identity and was rejected. H6b predicted a serial mediation from authoritarianism to work engagement through avoidance crafting and work identity, and this was rejected.

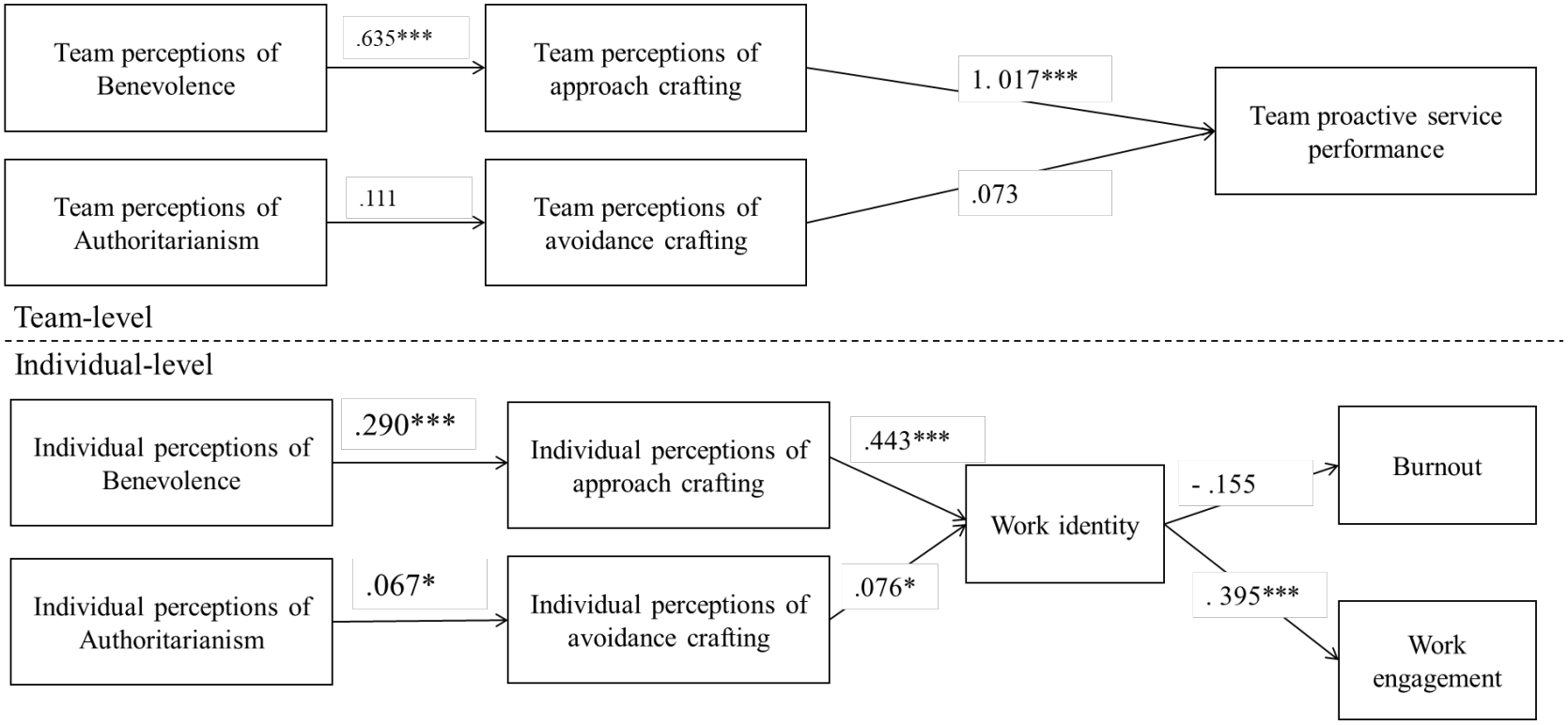
H7 indicated that team perception of benevolence is positively related to team approach crafting, this was supported (b= .624, p<.001). H8 predicted a positive relationship between team authoritarianism and team avoidance crafting, this was rejected. H9a indicated team approach crafting is positively related to team proactive service performance, this was supported (b=1.017, p<.001). However, H9b assumes that avoidance crafting was negatively related to team proactive performance is not confirmed.

Hypothesis 10a proposed that individual performance goal orientation moderates the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and approach crafting, such that the relationship is stronger when performance orientation is relatively low compared to when it is

high. To test this hypothesis, I conducted a lelve-1 moderation test. Predictors (benevolence and performance goal orientation) were group mean centered. As shown in Figure 6.2, the interaction between benevolent leadership and performance orientation is significant in predicting approach crafting (b= - .039, p<.05). Results shown when performance orientation is low (1 SD below the mean), benevolent leadership is more positively related to approach crafting compared to when performance orientation is high (1 SD above the mean). This supported H10a.

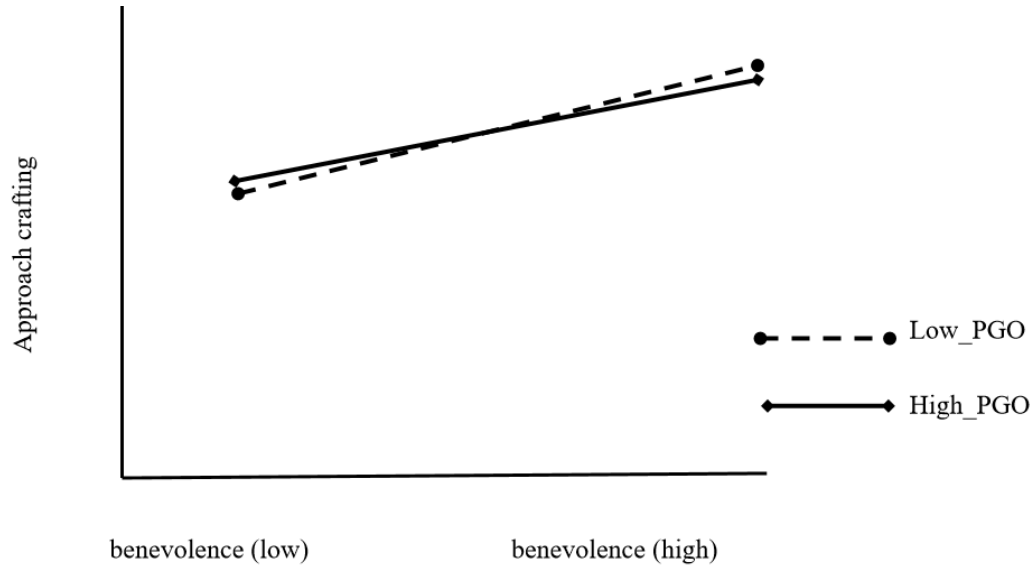
H10b indicated that performance goal orientation moderates the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting, this was not supported. H11a and H11b predicted that learning goal orientation moderates the relationship between benevolence and approach crafting, and the relationship between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting, both were rejected.

Figure 6.1 Path estimates for main effects in Study 3



*Notes: N=365, p<.001***, p<.01**, p<.05**

Figure 6.2 Interaction effect of benevolence and performance goal orientation on approach crafting



6.5 Discussion

6.5.1 Theoretical implications

This chapter is among the first and second studies that attempt to test the effect of paternalistic leadership on employee job crafting. The first contribution of this study is to provide empirical evidence for a multilevel model of paternalistic leadership, job crafting, and follower outcomes. This study answers the call for multilevel research on paternalistic leadership (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Hiller, et al., 2019). Through a multilevel test, the study results shown individual perception of benevolence and authoritarianism of their leaders leave different impact on employee job crafting. A benevolent leader encourages followers to expand work boundaries whereas an authoritarian leader stimulates employees to constrain their work roles. This study extends paternalistic leadership literature by investigating employee job

crafting as employee behavioral outcomes. The finding responds to calls for more research on examining leadership as a contextual factor that predict employee job crafting beyond and above individual characteristics (Parker, 2010).

Furthermore, this study contributes to the job crafting literature by demonstrating the effect of both approach and avoidance crafting on work identity. This is the first study directly examine the relation from job crafting in forms of approach and avoidance focus and work identity. The findings provide empirical support for Wrzesniewski and her colleagues' (2001; 2013) arguments regarding the effect of employee job crafting on positive identity construction. The results indicated individuals can mold and alter their work-relevant identities through approach and avoidance crafting. To be noted, different from my proposition, the avoidance crafting shown a positive relation with work identity. This means employee's effort to reject part of job activities or undesired identities leaves positive effect to work identity construction. To understand this, Kira and Balkin (2014) argued that when individuals experience identity withering, they are redefining themselves narrowly only in their preferred identities and focused on thoughts, actions and collaborations that match with their desired work identities. By preferred identity, I mean the normative identity narratives that reflects who one would like to be and how one desires to be seen by others (Kahn, 1990). Another research supports this finding is a qualitative study by Brown, Lewis and Oliver (2021). They found identity loss and threat can be employed to author preferred identity as individuals can use losses to reinforce current identities (Conroy & O'Leary-Kelly, 2014). When comes to job crafting, avoidance focused employees focused on developing abilities that directly correspond to the meaningful elements that attach value to their work. Those employees favor from only specific social

relationships and reject interactions with others who may bring negative feelings. When this occurs, employees abandon to some meaning and realignment new meanings to their work. My study enriched the understanding of the effect of approach-avoidance crafting and suggested a positive effect of avoidance crafting on identity construction.

This study also insights for the job crafting literature by exploring the undiscovered path between approach crafting and task proactive performance. Although a growing body of research has examined the role of job crafting on employee proactivity and performance, prior research has mainly focused on proactive behaviors that are benefits to oneself while ignoring the proactive behaviors benefits to others and organization (Crawford et al., 2010). This study demonstrates the positive ramification of approach crafting on team-level proactive service performance. Complementing the extant body of research on leadership, I found a serial path from benevolent leadership to team proactive performance via approach crafting and work identity. This finding integrated leadership, job crafting and identity theory and contributes to the mechanism to explain leadership effectiveness. The results also help broaden understanding of approach-avoidance crafting by empirically examining outcomes of work engagement and burnout.

In finding an interaction between benevolence and performance goal orientation, this research makes contributions to the mechanism to interpret the effect of leadership on job crafting. I found that the extent to which benevolence promoted employee approach crafting depended on individual performance goal orientation. Specifically, when low performance goal-oriented employees receive benevolence from their leaders, they are more likely to conduct approach crafting compared to those with high performance goal orientation.

6.5.2 Practical implications

The present study has numerous important practical implications for organizations, managers and individuals. This study suggests that healthcare organizations may need to consider the overall opportunity for employees to play with and experiment new roles, activities and identities. In healthcare organizations, especially some clinical teams that needs frequently communication with patients, clinical staff are expected to satisfy diverse patient demands. To motivate employees proactively enhance their capacity to respond complex tasks, organizations can provide trainings for individuals that help to expand interactions with peers, increase expertise knowledge and start-up new projects. In addition, healthcare organizations need to be "strategic" in leadership training. As different clinical team varies in expertise and work environment, organizations can provide different training according to the team requirements. For teams that requires strict and precise clinical treatment, organizations can train team leaders to be more authoritarian that focus on decision-making and control. So that employees are more like to follow leader's instructions and avoid unnecessary job activities that may impede their work progress. For teams that committed to providing diverse customized clinical treatments, their leaders may need to receive training to be more benevolent. By expressing individualized concern and kindness to followers not only at work but also in personal life, leaders can facilitate employee's effort to try new things and take extra tasks voluntarily.

Leaders can benefit from this study's finding by gaining insight into how their benevolent and authoritarian behaviors play a role in the employee's job crafting activities. A paradox-based paternalistic leadership style can help leaders to better lead their clinical team

to achieve better engagement and well-being. In learning to enact benevolent behaviors such as coaching in a supportive way and expressing kindness to personal life, leaders can grant their followers a safe space to adjust themselves with job activities. An authoritarian-dominate leadership style is beneficial for controlling employees focused only on their current activities.

This study also serves as a reminder for individuals to adjust themselves at workplace. The findings demonstrate that approach crafting is favorable to improve work engagement, enhance service performance as well as to reduce burnout. Even if employees are unable to modify the overall content and structure of their jobs, they can proactively expand or constrain job resources to improve end-states.

6.5.3 Limitations and future research

The study is subject to several limitations and suggest directions for future research. First, the study is limited to make casual inferences from the data collection strategy as many of the hypotheses were tested using variables collected at the same point of time. The study results suggest approach crafting and avoidance crafting leave positive influence on identity construction, however, there might be a reserve causation. The positive work-identity may reciprocally stimulate individuals engage in job crafting behaviors. Researchers conclude an adaptive approach to understand the development of work identities (Dutton et al., 2010). According to this view, individuals are motivated to create new identities to achieve a more appropriate fit with internal and external resources. Individuals would create a provisional self when experiencing possible but not fully developed roles (Ibarra, 1999). Strauss and Parker

(2012) found individual's salient hoped-for identities motivate their proactive career behaviors. They argued when individuals experience discrepancy between one's ideal and current self, individuals are motivated to rethink about the future and need a core identity to give meaning for future-focused behaviors. When individuals experience transitions into new identities, they commonly seek information to anticipate a set of meanings with the new identity (Mertopn, 1957). As job crafting can alter or create new meanings to identity, this implies individuals may use job crafting as behavioral or cognitive strategies to respond identity threat (Petriglieri, 2011). Future research can conduct longitudinal study for interpreting the mutual effect between job crafting and identity changes. Particularly, one potential avenue is to investigate the impact of time on the relation from avoidance crafting to work identity. As avoidance crafting implies a stepping away from unfavorable activities, it may help to clarify identity boundaries in a short term. However, individuals engaging in avoidance crafting can reduce the optimal effect of job challenges and miss positive opportunities for growth and development (Petrou, et al.,2012). This may lead to an identity threat or loss in a long term.

The conceptualization and measurement of focal variables such as paternalistic leadership and job crafting may limit the generalizability of the study results. This study collected data from employees and examined paternalistic leadership as an individual-level variable. However, scholars suggest possible avenue to access paternalistic leadership as a higher-level construct such as paternalistic climate (Hiller, et al., 2019; Farh et al., 2008). Future research can access both leader's and employee's perception toward paternalistic leadership and compare if these two constructs different in impact on team performance. For employee's job crafting, Leana (2009) argued team members' job crafting corporate and contribute to a

team-level crafting, which she referred as collaborative crafting. Whether individual approach and avoidance crafting contributes to a higher-level crafting is an interesting topic for future studies.

I only tested performance and learning goal orientation as moderators between paternalistic leadership and job crafting, but other factors may provide similar moderating effects. Researchers indicated employees who tend to appraise demands as opportunity to gain growth and development conduct more approach crafting and who view demands as hindering burden conduct more avoidance crafting (Crawford et al., 2010). Individual characteristics that influence their perception of demands may influence their willingness to craft works. Other factors (i.e., team learning climate, knowledge-sharing) that influence employee's access to resources and demands may also moderates the relationship between leadership and job crafting.

The use of same-source data for the independent and dependent variables introduces the possibility that common-method bias inflated relationships among these variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Also, the group sample size for this study is small compared to the large size of parameters. This may result in errors in data analysis. I suggest future research examine potential alternative variables in this study with longitudinal data, objective performance measures and other relevant variables with substantial sample size to help determine if there are other complexities that I did not investigate. Future study may also attempt to include measure to access paternalistic leadership and job crafting from a higher level from leaders or teams to provide an even more nuanced picture of relations between leadership and team job crafting.

CHAPTER 7 GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the role that leaders play in shaping employee job crafting. It provides a richer understanding of the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting in forms of approach-avoidance and task-relational-cognitive crafting. Additionally, the thesis constructs a work identity scale and examines its relationships with job crafting and employee outcomes such as burnout, work engagement, and proactive service performance. It reiterates the thesis's central research questions and summarizes its key findings. It outlines the major contribution to literature and practices, the crucial limitations, and the implications for future research. I will provide a comprehensive review of the overall findings and implications that may be drawn from this work.

7.1 Summary of studies

This thesis provides a comprehensive understanding of the job crafting model. By 3 independent but relevant studies, I interpret the links of paternalistic leadership, job crafting, work identity and employee outcomes. I also test individual goal orientation as a boundary condition of job crafting. To begin with, I found paternalistic leaders in either benevolent- or authoritarian-dominant style play an important role in employees' job crafting. Leaders' benevolence encourages employees conduct more approach crafting while leaders' authoritarianism motivates employees take proactive actions to avoid hindering demands. Furthermore, this thesis is the first to test the links between job crafting and work identity. Derived from work identity literature, I construct a work identity measure for healthcare

employees. The work identity scale provides a reliable tool for accessing this construct and enriches the understanding of work identity theory. Additionally, the thesis increases the knowledge of job crafting outcomes by investigating the relationships between job crafting and burnout, work engagement, OCB, and proactive service performance.

In Study 1, I examined a leader's benevolence and authoritarianism as antecedents on individual approach-avoidance job crafting beyond and above individual proactive personality and job autonomy and interdependence (see Chapter 4). As outlined in Chapter 4, prior empirical work is limited to the knowledge of paternalistic leadership and the approach-avoidance crafting. Also, the approach-avoidance job crafting model remains in the early stages of development and needs further exploration (Hiller, et al., 2019; Zhang & Parker, 2019). Understanding the associations between leadership and job crafting help to identify factors that may motivate employees proactively take extra responsibilities and further improve their well-being (Parker et al., 2010). I developed research hypotheses to build links between paternalistic leaders' benevolence and approach crafting, as well as between leader's authoritarianism and avoidance crafting. To test these hypotheses, I conducted a study with 318 healthcare employees. I aim to promote a better understanding of the associations of paternalistic leadership on employee approach-avoidance crafting with empirical support. Results of Study 1 shown leaders' benevolence is positively related to employees' approach crafting but not to avoidance crafting. Furthermore, employees' approach crafting boosts their work engagement and OCB. Surprisingly, avoidance crafting was found help to reduce burnout and improve work engagement and OCB. These results advance the knowledge of the antecedents, mechanisms, and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting. Specially, the avoidance crafting was found

beneficial to employees' work engagement and OCB. This is consistent with Harju et al's (2016) study but different from meta-analysis (Rudolph, et al., 2017; Lichtenthaler & Fishbach, 2019). One possible explanation is that approach crafting satisfies short-term needs while the effect of avoidance crafting may need longer time to demonstrate (Parker & Zhang, 2019).

Study 2 extends Study 1 by introducing the concept of work identity as a mechanism that links job crafting and outcomes. To access work identity, I develop a work identity instrument (See Chapter 3). Prior theorizing has pointed out the relevance of job crafting and work identity. However, as presented in Chapter 6, empirical evidence in this regard is scarce. I extended Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) task, relational, cognitive crafting model and argued job crafting is related to individual job crafting. Approach-avoidance crafting is also believed to associated with work identity. This study tests hypotheses on these associations based on a sample of 104 healthcare employees. Consistent with Study 1, benevolence is found positively related to approach crafting. Different from Study 1, authoritarianism is found positively related to avoidance crafting. Furthermore, approach crafting is positively related to work engagement and proactive service performance. Both approach and avoidance crafting are positively related to work identity. Among task-relational-cognitive crafting, only cognitive crafting is found significantly and positively related to work identity. Study 2 also found work identity is negatively relating to burnout, but positively relating to work engagement and proactive performance. Approach crafting and work identity serve as mechanisms linking the relation from benevolence to burnout, work engagement, and proactive service performance.

Finally, Study 3 develops an integrated and core model from paternalistic leadership, approach-avoidance crafting to work identity and employee outcomes (see Chapter 7). Apart

from the considerations put forward in Study 1 and 2, comprehensive conceptual knowledge on the effect of paternalistic leadership on approach-avoidance job crafting, work identity has not yet been well investigated from a multilevel perspective. To address this issue, I use a sample of 365 employees from a Chinese hospital and adopt a multi-level analysis method to examine relevant hypotheses. The conceptual model intends to provide an overview of the effect of paternalistic leadership on individual outcomes via influencing approach-avoidance crafting and work identity. Overall, the results of this present study supported many of the proposed hypotheses. I found individuals' perceptions of benevolence

In the following sections, I will present the main findings of this thesis and discuss the implications, limitations, and future studies.

7.2 Findings

7.2.1 The role of paternalistic leadership on employee approach-avoidance crafting

One of the primary objectives of this thesis was to examine the influence of paternalistic leadership on employee approach-avoidance crafting. Among studies 1, 2, and 3, results consistently indicated a positive relationship between benevolence and approach crafting and between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting. These results support Parker et al.'s (2010) contention that leadership plays an organizational factor that influences employee job crafting behaviors. Parker and her colleagues (2010) argued that leadership influences the overall resources, vision and task completion of a team. Along with individual characteristics, contextual factors jointly affect the "can do", "reason to", and "energised to" be motivational, which further leads employees to exhibit proactive behaviors. Previous studies on the social

and organizational factors of proactive work design are imbalanced (Parker et al., 2010). One explanation is that the job crafting model adopts an agentic view toward employees (Lazazzara et al., 2019). Results from this thesis demonstrates that after removing variance of individual proactive personality and work characteristics such as autonomy and interdependence, paternalistic leadership still significantly influences individual job crafting. Similar conclusions were drawn from Tuan's (2018) study, which indicated that benevolent leadership facilitates job crafting while authoritarian leadership undermines job crafting. An interesting finding in this present research is that authoritarianism was positively related to avoidance crafting. Few studies examined the effect of authoritarian leadership on individual job crafting. However, similar findings are found in other studies related to authoritarian leadership. Li et al. (2019) found that authoritarian leadership thwarts follower proactivity. Guo et al. (2018) indicated that authoritarian leadership restricted the creative process in that follower use their own decisions and develop new ideas. An explanation might be found in the job crafting behaviors. The literature on job crafting suggests that individuals tailor jobs to achieve a better person-job fit (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Authoritarian leadership can invoke employees' fear and uncertainty (Wu, et al., 2012), which reducing employees' willingness for organizational changes (Du et al., 2020). Increasing levels of uncertainty makes the interpretation of task feedback ambiguous (Ashforth et al., 2003). It is reasonable that employees take proactive actions to reduce the negative impact of authoritarian leadership. By doing so, individuals reduce the level of uncertainty. This further makes it possible for employees identify the requirements of work roles and take proactive behaviors to improve effectiveness (Griffin et al., 2007).

Additionally, Frieder et al. (2015) found that employees conduct more proactive voice behaviors and perceive higher resource management ability to attenuate abusive leadership's negative effects. This finding provides a further basis for explaining the positive association between authoritarianism and avoidance crafting.

In comparison to prior studies in this field, the results revealed that leadership styles that bring resources, social networking, and support to employees could indirectly facilitate job crafting. This study's findings align with the outcomes of other studies. Hu et al. (2020) found that commitment HR practices favour employee job crafting while strict HR practices impede job crafting. Previous studies have shown transformational leadership (Wang et al., 2018), transactional leadership (Esteves & Lopes, 2017), empowering leadership (Dash & Vorha, 2019; Thun & Bakker, 2017), and employee-oriented leadership (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018) facilitate job crafting. These leadership styles share some conceptual overlap and thus may lead to similar effects on individual outcomes (Avolio, 2007; Day & Antonakis, 2012). For example, transformational and transactional leadership provide positive psychological contracts for employees to gain growth and development (Goodwin et al., 2001). Empowering leadership and transformational leadership both motivate individual change (Cox et al., 2003). The benevolence dimension of paternalistic leadership captures leaders' support and caring behaviors and shares some degree of conceptual similarity with transformational and empowering leadership (Hiller et al., 2019). The above leadership styles capture leaders' different types of supportive behaviors. This implies that a supportive leadership is more stimulating to job crafting. However, Parker et al. (2010) argued that supportive leadership does not significantly influence individual proactivity, but the leader's attitude toward proactivity

might be more critical. In summary, numerous factors may explain the mechanism of the associations between paternalistic leadership and job crafting.

In addition, this paper found that benevolence only relates to approach crafting but not to avoidance crafting; authoritarianism is only associated with avoidance crafting but not with approach crafting. Thinking of the definition of paternalistic leadership, both benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership provide coaching and monitoring for followers. However, the former focuses on providing support and kindness (resources), and the latter emphasized on controlling and demanding (demands). These results suggest that approach crafting is more inclined to job resources rather than job demands and avoidance crafting is more sensitive to job demands compared to resources. In a similar study on empowering leadership and job crafting, Lictenthaler and Fishbach (2017) make the same point. They argued that job resources function more favorable to the promotion-focused crafting rather than prevention-focused crafting (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). For this research, the literature on approach and avoidance motivation theory may explain these findings. Elliot (1999) proposed that individuals achieve goals by either pursuing desirable goals or avoiding unfavorable threats. This is in line with empirical evidence showing that approach-focused individuals try to increase job resources and challenges, while avoidance-focused people attempt to reduce demands (Bipp & Demerouti, 2015; Petrou, et al., 2015).

7.2.2 Moderating role of performance goal orientation

Individual goal orientation may influence their intention to conduct job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Parker et al., 2010). Performance goal orientation was found negatively related to employee proactivity (Boehnlein & Baum, 2022; Marques-Quinteiro & Curral, 2012) and learning goal orientation was believed positively related to employee proactivity (Matsuo, 2019; Bakker, et al., 2020). Based on Parker et al.'s (2010) motivational model, individual goal orientation and leadership may interact with leadership factors to influence job crafting. Accordingly, hypotheses were proposed to test the interaction effect of goal orientation (learning and performance goal orientation) and paternalistic leadership (benevolence and authoritarianism) on job crafting. Results from Study 2 and 3 provided support evidence to the moderating role of performance goal orientation. Consistent findings shown performance goal orientation weakens the positive relationship between benevolence and approach crafting. This suggests individuals focused less on performance goal are more likely to get encouraged by benevolent leaders to conduct approach crafting. In support, benevolent leadership is positively related to affective trust (Chen et al., 2014) and voice (Chan, 2014). When employees perceive their work as simple and have less chance to make errors, they have more inclined to engage in proactive work (LePine, 2005; VandeWalle, 1999). Low performance-goal oriented individuals are more likely being encouraged by benevolent leaders to expand themselves compared to high performance-goal oriented individuals.

7.2.3 The role of approach-avoidance crafting on work identity

The literature has suggested the associations between job crafting and work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2010; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Dutton et al., 2010). However, this relationship has not been well examined in previous studies. Scholars called more research in this area to interpret individual's proactive effort in identity development (Kira & Balkin, 2014). Studying the link of job crafting and work identity contributes to the work design regards of enhancing work meaningfulness and positive identity (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018; Rogiers et al., 2019). The results of Study 2 and Study 3 support the proposed positive relationship between approach crafting and work identity. The proposed negative relationship between avoidance crafting and work identity was only supported in Study 3.

Overall, the findings of this research further support the idea that job crafting is positively associated with work identity. First, the findings are in accordance with theoretical propositions in job crafting and work identity literature. In the job crafting literature, scholars argued that individuals can shape their identity through changing job boundaries (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting involves non-work and work domain identity processes (Bloom et al., 2020). This thesis focused on the work domain identities, which refers to individuals' understanding of work experience holistically. In specific, I focused on the organization-related, profession-related, and general work-related identities. Studying the link of job crafting and work-domain identities advances the influence of crafting efforts on well-being and functioning at work (Bloom et al., 2020). In the identity literature, although the term job crafting is rarely

mentioned, many related studies make similar connotations. For example, the identity work literature suggests individuals actively seek feedback and change their work content as an identity negotiating process (Pratt et al., 2006). In a recent review of work identity, Miscenko and Day (2016) proposed a static and dynamic perspective of investigating individual-, interpersonal- and collective- level of work identity. From a static view, they propose identities are attached to specific work roles and thus may change during role transitions. When individuals experience role changes, they are creating a limited space to experiment with "possible selves" (Ibarra, 1999) which may contribute to a new identity (Jarventie-Theleff & Tienari, 2016). Strauss and Parker (2012) argued that individuals derive from role transition to experience future work-selves. Approach crafting involves seeking challenges and taking extra responsibilities. Taking on temporary assignment beyond prescribed job allows individuals experience different roles and explored possible selves. For example, Rogiers et al (20 15) found employees from the U.S. federal government using an app to try different tasks establish new professional ties and claim new professional identities. Grant et al (2014) indicated employees proactively craft their self-reflective job title to express identity. From a dynamic view, Miscenko and Day indicated that individuals obtain and express their narrative self through the discourse of daily work. One example is nursing students fostering professional identity through learning and working with other disciplines, seeking feedback from others and enacting roles in clinical work (Hood, et al., 2014). As Kira and Balkin (2014) posited, an individual's perception of misalignment between work and preferred identity can influence the motivation to change the work environment through job crafting. The observed correlation between approach crafting and work identity might be explained in this way: approach crafting

creates a space for individuals experiences possible selves and helps to enact identities (e.g., creating identity title; interacting with people who give positive feedback).

Also, the findings revealed that both approach and avoidance crafting are related to work identity. The relationship between approach crafting and work identity is stronger than the relationship between avoidance crafting and work identity. This finding matches the results observed in previous studies. Braine and Roodt (2011) found that job resources play a more significant role in work-based identity compared to job demands. Approach crafting emphasizes resource accumulation whereas avoidance crafting focuses on demands reduction. In line with Braine and Roodt's study, this research supports the argument that individuals tend to foster a strong work identification when they appraise their social exchange with organizations as favorable (Rousseau, 1998). This finding also support evidence from Rogiers et al's (2019) study, in which they found federal employees who use online apps to explore temporary assignments beyond their regular jobs establish new professional ties and claim new identities. Along with this research, it is believed that stretching competencies allow individuals experience different job titles that serve as badges for identity construction (Grant et al., 2014).

7.3 Contributions to literature

The present research findings make several contributions to leadership, job crafting, and identity literatures. First, the thesis extends prior antecedent-oriented research on job crafting by investigating paternalistic leadership as an organizational factor influencing employee approach-avoidance crafting. It shows that paternalistic leaders in either benevolent-dominant or authoritarian-dominant styles affect individuals' self-initiated efforts to redesign

work. Additionally, the thesis explored a boundary condition that performance goal orientation interacts with benevolent leadership influence approach crafting. Third, the thesis broadens extant knowledge on the outcome-oriented factors of approach-avoidance crafting by investigating work identity as an outcome. It thus sheds new light on work identity development and construction theories. I will outline and summarize these specific contributions.

7.3.1 Contribution to the literature on paternalistic leadership

This paper differentiates the role of benevolence and authoritarianism as two competing dimensions of paternalistic leadership. It answers the call of Hiller et al. (2019) and Wang et al. (2018) to focus on and test the essence of paternalistic leadership (benevolence and authoritarianism) separately. Also, it replicates and extends Tuan's (2018) previous empirical work on the role of paternalistic leadership in follower job crafting by further distinct the effect of benevolence and authoritarianism on approach and avoidance crafting beyond and above individual characteristics (i.e., proactive personality) and work characteristics (i.e., job autonomy and interdependence). This thesis provides data to support the distinct effects of two dimensions in paternalistic leadership. It suggests that it is necessary to evaluate paternalistic leadership in benevolence and authoritarianism separately rather than taking it as a unidimensional construct.

Previous work has focused on lower levels of analysis of paternalistic leadership. Study 3 empirically demonstrates the relevance of team shared perceptions of paternalistic leadership and team perceptions of job crafting. The literature on paternalistic leadership suggested it can be generalized across different levels of analysis, emphasizing the importance of organizational

structure in the effectiveness of such leadership behaviors (Hiller et al., 2019; Farh, 2008). Study 3 promotes more detailed knowledge of the association between team perceptions of benevolence / authoritarianism and team perceptions of approach-avoidance crafting. This advances paternalistic leadership by empirically supporting earlier research on the levels of analysis (Farh et al., 2008; Bedi, 2020; Tian & Sanchez, 2017). It may promote a better explanation of differences in individual perceptions of leadership and the general leadership climate in predicting employee behaviors.

7.3.2 Contributions to the job crafting literature

This thesis answers Zhang and Parker's (2019) call to study job crafting from a more nuanced perspective, taking approach and avoidance crafting into account. This research is among the first to examine the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting with an approach-avoidance lens. Demonstrating the differences between approach crafting and avoidance crafting in terms of antecedents and consequences contributes to current knowledge of the category of approach-avoidance crafting.

Also, prior research in the job crafting literature focused on individual and work characteristics while neglecting the contextual influence of leadership (Lee & Song, 2020). The present thesis contributes to the antecedents of job crafting by exploring the interplay between paternalistic leadership and individual performance goal orientation. I found benevolence and performance goal orientation interplay and jointly influence the level of approach crafting. Employees with higher performance goal orientation experience a stronger relationship

between benevolent leadership and approach crafting. This supports Parker et al.'s (2010) motivational model regarding the interplay of individual and organizational antecedents of proactive work design. Further, Studies 2 and 3 constitute the first research to develop and empirically test hypotheses on the role of job crafting in proactive service performance. Study 2 shown individual approach crafting is positively relates to their proactive service performance. Study 3 identifies that team perceptions of approach crafting is positively linked with team-level proactive service performance. These results contribute to a better conceptual understanding of the boundary conditions and outcomes of approach-avoidance crafting.

7.3.3 Contribution to work identity literature

The present study provides empirical evidence and offers insights into how approach-avoidance crafting is associated with work identity. The findings of Study 2 and 3 provide empirical support to the identity learning cycle model (Pratt et al., 2006) by indicating the positive relevance between approach-avoidance crafting and work identity. It contributes to a deeper understanding of how individuals proactively pursue sense-making at the workplace (Rosso et al., 2010). Job characteristics have been shown related to a more experienced meaningfulness of work (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Scholars found work design influence the process of sense-making and attach a positive meaning to work (Rosso, et al., 2020; Grant, 2008; Grant et al., 2007). For example, individuals can read and interpret identity cues from social relations to shape the meaning of work (Wrzesniewski et al., 2003). By approaching or avoidance crafting, individuals can seek or avoid social interactions with co-workers or leaders, thus make sense what they are doing (Pratt et al., 2006). Additionally, Study 2 contributes to a

deeper understanding of the relationship between cognitive crafting and work identity. Surprisingly, cognitive crafting demonstrated a significant positive association with work identity. It implies that people can directly engage in a cognitive process that creates or alters an identity. This is in line with the identity work theory where individuals can delete or change undesired identities (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003).

7.4 Limitations and future studies

The findings of this thesis should be interpreted with several limitations in mind, highlighting essential directions for future research. The following section critically reflects on the current research and presents recommendations for future studies.

7.4.1 Theoretical limitations

In line with the thesis's general research interest, the thesis tests paternalistic leadership with benevolence and authoritarianism separately. Previous research suggests other approaches to test paternalistic leadership and may result in different findings (Hiller et al., 2019; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). For example, Aycan (2006) measured PL as a unified construct, and Chou et al. (2015) adopted a latent profile approach to compare individual response profiles to perceived paternalistic leadership styles. The theoretical models presented in Study 3 viewed paternalistic leadership from the individual level (perception of leader) and the team level (team perception of leader). Previous research on paternalistic leadership lacks theoretical and empirical insights from the perspective of levels of analysis. Studying leadership from a multilevel perspective helps to identify leaders' influence on both individual- and team-level outcomes. However, the lack of measures of paternalistic leadership from higher-level analysis

results in a gap in studying paternalistic leadership's effect on team-level outcomes. Future research needs to explore more in this regard for a better understanding of the paternalistic effectiveness on team-level constructs. Also, this thesis found that benevolent leadership is positively related to approach crafting, and authoritarian leadership is positively related to avoidance crafting.

In addition, another exciting research direction is investigating the leader's and co-worker's responses to employee crafting. As individuals conduct job crafting for their good end-state, it is not always suitable for organizational benefits. For example, Bizzi found employees' crafting is associated with network contacts' task significance. By network contacts, it refers to the person that employees to communicate with in terms of work contents and arrangements. When network contacts' task has significant impact on work and lives of others, employees' job crafting is negatively related to their performance. Also, Berg et al (2010) found individuals conduct job crafting for pursuing unanswered work callings may experience stress and regret. The unanswered work callings mean an occupation that individuals wish to pursue; expect to be meaningful; see as a central part of life; and is not formally prescribed in one's occupation (Berg et al., 2010). For example, individuals pursuing an occupation for financial reasons and social desirability (Iyengar et al., 2006), but not for satisfying personal interests. Individuals doing works with unanswered callings, they may describe their crafting experiences as undesirable (Berg et al., 2010). Scholars have noticed these potential dark sides of job crafting and started to explore others' reactions toward individual job crafting (e.g., Tims & Parker, 2020; Fong et al., 2021). Belschak et al. (2010) indicated that individual proactive behavior could be categorized into

pro-self, prosocial, and pro-organization foci. Future research is needed to determine how leaders react when individual conduct job crafting, especially avoidance crafting, which may lead to pro-self or pro-organization behaviors and consequences.

The theoretical model of approach-avoidance crafting in this study only captures the behavioral approach while not accessing the cognitive process. Future research may have a more nuanced understating of job crafting with measures that capture Zhang and Parker's (2019) approach-avoidance crafting model more comprehensively. In addition, it is possible that future theorizing will benefit from further expanding the antecedents being examined in the present models. Since the approach-avoidance crafting is based on the motivation theory, other contextual factors except leadership may influence individual motivation to take initiative. For example, Parker et al (2010) indicated organizational climate may be a factor that affects proactive work design. As for the individual and work antecedents, the current studies controlled for proactive personality, job autonomy and interdependence. Future research can specify several important antecedents relevant to research interests, and they might define and conceptualize the respective constructs in various ways. For example, Rudolph et al (2017) identified several individual characteristics (e.g., the big five personalities, regulatory focus, openness) and job characteristics (e.g., job complexity, workload) that may predict job crafting.

Another research avenue is to interpret how team-level job crafting differs from individual-level crafting. Based on Leana's (2009) study, collaborative crafting may vary in content and scope. The current research generalizes team-level crafting by computing the average score of team member crafting. Future studies can measure job crafting from different

levels and compare its functions in individual-level outcomes. Such theorizing could promote more encompassing perspectives on both the antecedents and consequences of job crafting and contribute to a more complete, holistic understanding of team-level job crafting.

This thesis considered works identity as an outcome of approach-avoidance crafting, and task-, relational-, cognitive crafting. Results shown individuals conduct approach crafting or cognitive crafting gain stronger work identity. However, there might be a potential reciprocal relationship and feedback loop between job crafting and work identity. Identity work theory provides a theoretical framework to explain this reciprocal relationship. Identity construction involves an interplay of the cognitive, affective, and social processes of information interpretation occurring in different contexts (Vignoles et al., 2006). Individuals learn their identity through a negotiating process that they enact and act upon identities (Swann, 1987). Based on social identity theory, people are more identified with organizations with values and beliefs in congruence with themselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Individuals conducting job crafting attach new meanings to their job (e.g., Fuller et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2018). This leads to an alignment between individuals' actual role-playing and their desired identity. Kira and Balkin (2014) discussed the outcomes of aligning work and identity. They indicated that the alignments between work and identity allow individuals have a positive psychological state that promotes individuals seeking to improve themselves and conduct crafting. Time-lagged or longitudinal studies are needed to interpret the interactions between job crafting and work identity development.

This thesis studies work identity by incorporating organizational, professional and

general foci. Future research may capture other aspects of work identity. For example, being a leader refers to one's perception of guiding other's work (Day & Harrison, 2007). Leader as identity focus is a part of work identity (Atewologun et al., 2017). Epitropaki et al (2017) called for more research on interpreting self-enhancement and self-expansion for a better understanding of leader and follower identity process. They argued leaders may actively seek resources and challenges to achieve desired goals and maintain a positive image. Approach-avoidance crafting involves the proactive effort to increase or decrease resources and challenges, and thus is related to leader identity process.

Furthermore, the literature on multiple identities suggests that individuals may experience conflicts and threats among work or non-work roles (Batailie & Vough, 2022; Bloom et al., 2020). For instance, a doctor can be a parent, researcher, and healthcare professional. Previous research indicated that individuals conduct leisure crafting in the non-work domain, affecting their appraisal of work demands and challenges (Berg et al., 2010; Petrou & Bakker, 2016). Future studies can interpret if job crafting relates more to work-related identities and leisure crafting relates more to non-work domain identities.

7.4.2 Methodology limitations

From the methodological standpoint, this thesis has limitations with regard to the samples and data collection. First, using hospital staff in China as the target sample was a strength that contributed to the generalizability of the research. Nevertheless, this also results in limitations of the study. Further studies in different organizational contexts and other nations would contribute to understanding the link between leadership and job crafting. It is also

possible that paternalistic leadership or job crafting practices may have a lagged effect on outcomes. Participants for Study 3 are asked to reflect on their work experience in the current three months. Longitudinal data may provide additional insights into the impact of leadership practices and job crafting behaviors.

Second, due to the relatively small sample sizes for Study 2 and 3, I ran path analysis instead of latent SEM to test the conceptual model. Likewise, the cross-sectional nature of data limits possible support for claims of causal relationships between approach crafting and work identity. Additionally, Study 3 used the perceptions of employees as its data source. Using same-source data for the independent and dependent variables introduces the possibility that common-method bias inflated relationships among the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Although Spector (2006) argued that it is acceptable to use a single method approach, it is recommended that future research gather measures of variables from different data sources to reduce response bias.

Third, although the study reported the interaction of performance goal orientation on the association between paternalistic leadership and approach crafting, other moderating variables might attenuate this effect. For instance, Parker et al (2010) indicated individual openness to change may interact with leadership to influence proactive motivation process.

Lastly, data for Study 3 was collected during the COVID-19 period. Individual perception of workload, procedure and anxiety may change during COVID (Kultu et al., 2021; Pettigrew, 2021; Avery, 2020). Therefore, the findings of Study 3 need to be interpreted with caution. In specific, a demographic question from the survey of Study 3 indicated 51%

participants reported their work becomes busier during COVID times compared to normal times; 30.4% rated very little difference; 17% responded less busy during COVID times. During COVID period, the hospital for data collection in Study 3 established a strict clinical procedure, thus it increases the job complexity and demands. This may lead individuals display avoidance behaviors to protect themselves from stress and workload (Ybema et al., 2020). I assume the impact of COVID on data for Study 3 is limited and can be accepted. I acknowledge the limitations of this study and suggest that future studies explore changes in staff job crafting following the outbreak.

7.4.3 Practical implications

The present thesis provides several practical implications for organizations, leaders, and employees. It may enable healthcare organizations to facilitate paternalistic leadership and contribute to employee well-being and performance. Specifically, the present thesis offers practical implications regarding organization, the leadership and employee training, and the design of work conditions.

Modern organizations spent large funds on training programs and only a few reported satisfying effectiveness (Schwartz, et al., 2014; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Scholars argued that practitioners should identify desired outcomes before designing leadership training programs (Jiménez-Reyes et al., 2017). If organizations aim to promote employee proactivity, they may focus on training benevolent leaders. Based on the definition of benevolence (Cheng et al., 2004), leaders may learn to promote positive interactions with followers, provide positive feedback, and express individualized care within and beyond the workplace. Also, training

programs may enhance leaders' recognition of the positive effects of employee approach crafting. Leaders should realize the role of employees' motivation and ability to tailor their tasks and social networks for a better person-job fit. The present findings show approach crafting is favorable to fostering employee work identity, enhancing work engagement and proactive performance. In the healthcare industry, doctors and nurses can cultivate more meaning in work and serve patients beyond prescribed job boundaries. Therefore, leaders in the healthcare industry are expected to allow their subordinates to experiment with new tasks or roles in a limited space. This suggests they may need to balance their benevolence and authoritarianism and focus on the need of employees. Leaders should learn to provide both material and psychological support to ensure employees have adequate resources to craft. They may also encourage employees to take extra responsibilities and anticipate future demands. Leaders who focused more on obedience may provide monitoring and coaching to employees who need suggestions for task completion.

Answering the call for designing smart jobs, organizations may use HR practices to improve employee well-being and proactive performance. Based on the present findings, such practices should aim at contributing to employees' resources and challenges. With more opportunities to accumulate resources and seek challenges, employees are more likely to conduct approach crafting and therefore, have a better well-being and performance. Organizations may promote HR practices that grant employees high levels of discretion to encourage individual proactivity. In contrast, strict control HR practices that restrict employees with close monitoring and use punishment for disobedience may constrain employees' attention to prescribed jobs. The first concern for organizations is to determine if the nature of the job

allows employees to experiment with new work methods or arrangements. For instance, in hospitals, some clinical units may not encourage doctors to adopt different treatment methods from the regular procedures. Organizations may pay more attention to employee job crafting, especially avoidance crafting to make sure individuals behave in line with public benefits. For instance, doctors and nurses may not be willing to enact their managerial or research role (Doolin, 2002) so that they can concentrate on their professional role. However, this may undermine the benefits of organization.

Findings of this research found approach crafting helps to reduce burnout and enhance individual work engagement and proactive performance. However, avoidance crafting may increase individual burnout. These findings provide employees implications to adjust themselves to work conditions. First, employees may experience discrepancies between their actual work experience and desired situations (Kira & Balkin. 2014). To achieve a better balance between personal interests and work situations, employees can proactively change the way they do and think of work. Therefore, training sessions may, therefore, enhance employees' recognition of job crafting. It may outline the benefits of tailoring work and also indicate the possible threat of being judged by leaders or peers (Tims et al., 2020; Boehnlein & Baum, 2020). For better performance, employees should learn how to expand resources and seek challenges. Training sessions for employees should encourage them to explore new work methods, share knowledge across expertise, and build social networks with co-workers and beneficiaries. Additionally, training programs may contribute to employees' perception of challenges and demands. The findings of this thesis indicated that performance-goal-oriented people are more inclined to expand themselves when they receive kindness from leaders. However, learning-

goal-oriented people are not influenced by leadership when conducting job crafting. Compared to individuals with high learning goal orientation, people with high-performance goal orientation are more sensitive to negative comments. Individuals who appraise demands as opportunities to gain personal development are more inclined to take proactive actions (Plomp et al., 2019; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Crawford et al., 2010). Therefore, training programs can influence employees' positive appraisal of taking on challenges and demands by deliberately framing them as opportunities for personal growth and development.

7.5 Overall Conclusions

Prior research has gaps in studying the contextual antecedent of, and the identity outcome of job crafting. With the new nomological development of job crafting, there is a lack of empirical support for the approach-avoidance crafting model. The present thesis aims to advance extant knowledge on these issues by investigating the relationships between paternalist leadership and approach-avoidance crafting and outcomes. It demonstrated the benevolence dimension of paternalistic leadership is favorable to individual approach crafting, while the authoritarianism dimension is beneficial to avoidance crafting (Study 1). In addition, the thesis pointed to the relevance of approach-avoidance crafting and individual work identity (Study 2). Incorporating these findings, the thesis provides a comprehensive conceptual model to explain the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership on the team-level and individual-level outcomes (Study 3). Finally, the thesis extended prior knowledge of the boundary conditions on the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job crafting by testing the role of performance and learning goal orientation. The thesis provided empirical support for the approach-avoidance

crafting theoretical model and enriched knowledge of paternalistic leadership effectiveness as well as the development of work identity. The findings offer recommendations for organizational practitioners on promoting employee proactivity, well-being, and performance. I outlined the limitations of this thesis and future study directions. I hope future scholars can get insights from this thesis and extend the understanding of paternalistic leadership, approach-avoidance crafting and work identity.

CHAPTER 8 REFERENCES

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APPENDIX I MEASUREMENTS

Paternalistic leadership (Cheng et al., 2004)

Benevolence:

1. My supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us.
2. My supervisor devotes all his/her energy to taking care of me.
3. Beyond work relations, my supervisor expresses concern about my daily life.
4. My supervisor ordinarily shows a kind concern for my comfort.
5. My supervisor will help me when I'm in an emergency.
6. My supervisor takes very thoughtful care of subordinates who have spent a long time with him/her.
7. My supervisor meets my needs according to my personal requests.
8. My supervisor encourages me when I encounter arduous problems.
9. My supervisor takes good care of my family members as well.
10. My supervisor tries to understand what the cause is when I don't perform well.
11. My supervisor handles what is difficult to do or manage in everyday life for me.

Authoritarianism:

1. My supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely.
2. My supervisor determined all decisions in the organization whether they are important or not.
3. My supervisor always has the last say in the meeting.
4. My supervisor always behaves in a commanding fashion in front of employees.
5. I feel pressured when working with him/her.
6. My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates.
7. My supervisor scolds us when we can't accomplish our tasks.
8. My supervisor emphasizes that our group must have the best performance of all the units in the organization.

9. We have to follow his/her rules to get things done. If not, he/she punishes us severely.

Goal orientation (Button, et al., 1996)

Learning goal orientation:

1. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.
2. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.
3. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.
4. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me
5. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.
6. I try hard to improve my past performance.
7. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.
8. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.
9. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.
10. Your performance on most tasks or jobs increases with the amount of effort you put into them.

Performance goal orientation:

1. I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.
2. I'm happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I won't make any errors
3. The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.
4. The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.
5. I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.

6. I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.
7. I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.
8. I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.
9. Even if I know that I did a good job on something, I'm satisfied only if others recognize my accomplishments
10. It is important to impress others by doing a good job.

Burnout (Malach-Pines, 2005)

1. I feel tired.
2. I feel disappointed with people.
3. I feel hopeless.
4. I feel trapped.
5. I feel helpless.
6. I feel depressed.
7. I feel physically weak /sickly.
8. I feel worthless /like a failure.
9. I feel difficulties in sleeping.
10. I feel "I've had it" / frustrated.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB, Spector et al., 2010)

1. I took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co- worker.
2. I helped my co-workers learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. I helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. I lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
5. I offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. I helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. I volunteered for extra work assignments.
8. I worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.

9. I volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
10. I gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.

Work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2006)

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
4. I am enthusiastic about my job.
5. My job inspires me.
6. I am proud of the work that I do.
7. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
8. I am absorbed when I am working.
9. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.

Proactive personality (Seibert et al., 1999)

1. I am constantly on the lookout for the new ways to improve my life.
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against other's opposition.
7. I excel at identifying opportunities.
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

Job autonomy and interdependence (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006)

Autonomy:

I can schedule my own work.

1. I can decide which tasks should be completed first on my own.
2. I can plan my work on my own.
3. During work, I make lots of decisions on my own
4. During work, I use my personal judgments and initiative to make decisions
5. My work gives me autonomy in making decisions.
6. I have freedom to choose my working method.
7. I have freedom and independence in work.
8. I can decide on my own about how to do my work.

Interdependence:

1. My job requires me to finish my work before others complete their job.
2. Other jobs depend directly on my job.
3. Unless my job gets down, other jobs cannot be completed.
4. My job activities are greatly affected by work of other people.
5. My job depends on the work of many different people for its completion.
6. My job cannot be done unless others do their work

Work identity scale

Organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1992)

1. I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes my hospital.
2. I am very interested in other's comments about my hospital.
3. When I talk about my “workplace”, I usually say "we" or "our organization” instead of the name of the hospital.
4. I am proud of the success of my hospital.
5. I am happy when someone praises my hospital.

Organizational identity strength (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004)

6. There is a common sense of purpose in the hospital I worked in.
7. My hospital has a clear and unique vision.

8. There is a strong feeling of unity in my hospital.

9. My hospital has a specific mission shared by its employees.

Professional identification (Mael & Ashforth ,1992)

10. I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes my medical work.

11. I am very interested in other's comments about my medical work.

12. When I talk about my medical work, I usually say "we" instead of "those doctors/nurses/or any other professions ".

13. I am proud of the success and developments made in my professional field.

14. I am happy when someone praises my profession in general.

Professional identity strength (4 items, adapted from Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004)

15. There is a common sense of purpose of my profession.

16. My profession has a clear and unique vision.

17. There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.

18. My profession has a specific mission shared by its members.

The importance of identity (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)

19. Overall, being a medical employee relates to how I feel about myself.

20. Being a medical employee is an important reflection of who I am.

21. Being a medical employee is relevant to who I am as a person.

22. In general, being a medical employee is an important part of my self-image.

The need for identification (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2014)

23. Without my medical work, I would feel incomplete

24. My work as a medical employee gives me a sense of success or failure.

25. An important part of who I am would be missing if I didn’t do this medical job.

26. Generally, I feel a need to identify with my medical work.

27. Generally, the more my goals, values, and beliefs overlap with my medical work pursuit, the happier I am.

28. I'd rather say "we" rather than "they" when talking about my medical work.

29. No matter where I am, I'd like to think of myself as representing medical work.

Task, relational, cognitive crafting (Slemp & Brodick, 2013)

Task crafting:

1. I introduce new approaches to improve my work
2. I change the scope or types of tasks that I complete at work
3. I introduce new work tasks that better suit my skills or interests
4. I choose to take on additional tasks at work
5. I give preference to work tasks that suit my skills or interests
6. I change the way I do my job to make it more enjoyable for myself
7. I change minor procedures that I think are not productive
8. I think about how my job gives my life purpose
9. I remind myself about the significance my work has for the success of the organization

Cognitive crafting:

1. I remind myself of the importance of my work for the broader community
2. I think about the ways in which my work positively impacts my life
3. I reflect on the role my job has for my overall well-being
4. I engage in networking activities to establish more relationships
5. I make an effort to get to know people well at work

Relational crafting:

1. I organize or attend work related social functions
2. I organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)

3. I introduce yourself to co-workers, customers, or clients I have not met
4. I choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)
5. I make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests

Proactive service performance (Rank et al.,2017)

1. In my department, I proactively share information with patients to meet their needs.
2. In my department, I anticipate issues or needs that patient might have and proactively develop solutions.
3. In my department, I use judgment and understanding of risk to determine when to make exceptions or improvise solution.
4. In my department, I take ownership by following through with patient interactions and ensures a smooth transition to other teams if needed.
5. I actively create partnership with my colleagues to better serve my patients.
6. In my department, I take initiative to communicate patient's requirements to other medical areas (such as colleagues from other departments or hospitals) and collaborate in implementing solutions.
7. In my department, I proactively check with patients to verify that their expectations have been met or exceeded.
8. In my department, I proactively reflect patients' concerns.
9. In my department, I actively interact with patients to decrease their tensions.
10. In my department, I actively reflect on the feedback that received from patients.

APPENDIX II TRANSLATION OF COVER LETTER

Cover Letter in English

Dear respondent:

The objective of this survey is to examine the influence of work

relationships on work performance. The results of the survey will be used only for academic purpose. Your answer is important to provide feedback and to improve the work condition for medical staff.

Please read each question carefully and answer it based on your personal feeling and work condition. There are no RIGHT or WRONG answers. Your responses will be completely CONFIDENTIAL.

If you have any questions regarding the survey, please contact: xiao.liu@durham.ac.uk

Thank you!

Sincerely,

Xiao LIU

Cover Letter Translated in Chinese

您好！

本问卷的目的是研究医疗团队合作对工作感受的影响。问卷的结果将仅用于学术研究目的。您的回答不仅能提供工作感受的反馈，更有助于提高医疗工作者的工作情况关注度。

请您阅读每个问题，根据实际情况作答。问卷问题不存在“对”或“错”的选项，您的回答为匿名。完成本问卷大概需要 10 分钟。您可以选择合适的时间段完成问卷。

如果您对问卷有疑问或想了解更多，请联系问卷作者：xiao.liu@durham.ac.uk

感谢您参与！

谢谢！

APPENDIX III WORK IDENTITY SCALE VALIDATION FOR STUDY 2 AND STUDY 3

Data from Study 2 consists of 38 items which are hypothesized to load on organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength, and work-identity relevance. Results shown the model fit for the hypothesized model has a poor fit indicated by low CFI and TLI values, and relatively high SRMR, and high RMSEA values. This may because of the poor sampling issue (same-source, small sample size). Table 8.1 presents the model fit results. For data of Study 2, Model B that indicated organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, and professional identity strength, work-identity relevance as separated constructs have a better fit. However, due to the small sample size and response bias, there are misspecifications of the model fit indicated by low CFI/TLI values and high RSMEA and SRMR values.

Table 8.1 Model fit comparison of CFA test for work identity scale for Study 2

	$\chi 2$	df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
1.Hypothesized Model	664.920	345	.094	.522/.476	.106
2.Model A	645.560	347	.091	.554/.514	.104
3.Model B	605.848	340	.087	.602/.558	103
4.Model C	This model cannot converge properly				
5.Model D	686.356	350	.096	.497/.457	.102
6.Model E	This model cannot converge properly				

Note:

Hypothesized: alternative higher-order model, organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identification, and professional identity strength, work-identity relevance loaded on a higher-order work identity factor

Model A: combined organizational identity and organizational identification as one factor, and professional identification and professional identity strength as one factor, and work-identity relevance loaded on a higher-order work identity factor

Model B: oblique lower-factor model, items loaded on organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identity, and professional identity strength separately

Model C: orthogonal first-order model, items loaded on organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identity, and professional identity strength without freely estimates

Model D: single-factor model, all items loaded on 1 factor

Model E: bi-factor model, items loaded on organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength separately, and all items loaded on work identity at the same time

For Study 3, summary fit statistics for all examined models are presented in Table 8.2. A comparison of the hypothesized model with alternative models shows that hypothesized model exhibited poor fit than other models as indicated by both sequential χ2difference tests and the difference in CFI values. These results provide support for the existence of a general work identity factor.

Table 3.7 Model fit comparison of CFA test for work identity scale for Study 3

	$\chi 2$	df	RSMEA	CFI/TLI	SRMR
2. Hypothesized model	1591.489	345	.100	.795/.775	.083
1. Model A	1295.238	347	.087	.847/.834	.070
3. Model B	1656.953	340	.103	.783/.759	.159
4. Model C	2705.745	350	.136	.612/.581	.323
5. Model D	1827.934	350	.108	.762/.743	.077
6.Model E	This model cannot converge properly				

Notes:

Hypothesized model: higher-order model, organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identification, and professional identity strength loaded on a higher-order work identity factor

Model A: combined organizational identity and organizational identification as one factor, and professional identification and professional identity strength as one factor, and work-identity relevance loaded on a higher-order work identity factor

Model B: oblique lower-factor model, organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identity, and professional identity strength

Model C: orthogonal first-order model, items loaded on organizational identity, organizational identification, professional identity, and professional identity strength without freely estimates

Model D: single-factor model, all items loaded on 1 factor

Model E: bi-factor model, items loaded on organizational identification, organizational identity strength, professional identification, professional identity strength separately, and all items loaded on work identity at the same time