

The Process of Reinventing a Job: A Meta–Synthesis of Qualitative Job Crafting Research

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ABSTRACT

Two different research streams are encountered in the job crafting literature. The first, defined as task, cognitive, and relational job crafting by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), has predominantly applied qualitative research designs to explore how employees craft their jobs to better align them with their preferences, abilities, and motivations to enhance work meaning and identity. The second stream, characterized by crafting job demands and job resources (Tims & Bakker, 2010), focuses mostly on quantitative research designs and examines the antecedents of job crafting and whether those antecedents are related to work-related well-being and performance. Although the quantitative studies have recently been meta-analyzed (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017), the knowledge that is captured in the qualitative studies has not been formally integrated. We contribute to a better understanding of job crafting by conducting a meta–synthesis of the qualitative research. Analyzing 24 qualitative studies, we developed a process model of job crafting that enhances an in-depth understanding of the processes associated with job crafting. More specifically, we highlight the motives for job crafting (i.e., proactive or reactive) and how the specific context may influence the form of job crafting in which individuals engage. Next, the process model shows that personal factors connect job crafting forms to the experienced job crafting consequences. The process model enables a better understanding of the conditions under which job crafting is most likely to generate positive or negative experiences.

Keywords: Job crafting, meta–synthesis, process model, qualitative research, literature review, individual job redesign

Introduction

Although most jobs are initially designed by managers, employees also play an important role in the way in which they perform their jobs by modifying their job characteristics based on their own specific knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivations (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This proactive behavior is intended to better align the job with the individual's personal characteristics and is deemed job crafting. Because it is so difficult for managers to design jobs that are good for all individuals (Grant & Parker, 2009), job crafting provides an interesting new perspective on job (re)design (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Through job crafting, individuals shape their jobs in a manner that better fits their unique characteristics without changing the core of their work (Bruning & Campion, 2018).

The large increase in studies focusing on job crafting is reflected in a recent meta-analysis that used 122 independent samples comprising 35,670 employees (see Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017). The meta-analysis provided a clear overview of the quantitative literature that examined relations between job crafting and a variety of individual differences, job characteristics, and work- and well-being-related outcomes. The meta-analysis focused only on those studies that used the job crafting approach developed by Tims and colleagues (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). The choice for this focus was based on the widely used job crafting scale developed by those authors. Following the publication of this scale, the number of studies that investigated job crafting expanded substantially (Rudolph et al., 2017), increasing the urgency to synthesize existing knowledge.

Even more recent, a second meta-analysis on job crafting was published (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018). This meta-analysis integrated role- and resource-based job crafting by differentiating promotion- from prevention-focused job crafting. Promotion-

focused job crafting comprised increasing job resources, increasing challenging job demands, expansion-oriented task, relational, and cognitive crafting, and prevention-focused job crafting comprised decreasing hindering job demands, contraction-oriented task, and relational job crafting. As a result, this meta-analysis included a broader range of job crafting measures, resulting in 132 studies consisting of 46,780 employees.

However, in addition to this large increase in quantitative job crafting studies, it is notable that, with some exceptions, earlier job crafting studies were primarily qualitative (e.g., Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010a; Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010b; Vuori, San, & Kira, 2012), and similar to the quantitative approach, this qualitative literature continues to grow. The uniqueness of each qualitative study renders it difficult to elucidate their contribution to extant knowledge (Estabrooks, Field, & Morse, 1994), and the inductive approach of much of the qualitative literature results in few attempts to translate themes into concepts that were previously employed by other researchers (Morse, 2001). As a result, the qualitative literature is logically more diverse and different from the quantitative literature. For example, qualitative studies have focused on identifying workers' hidden attempts to craft their jobs (Berg et al., 2010a; Lyons, 2008), capturing reactions to work transitions (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018), or capturing processes and experiences related to specific work situations (Buonocore, de Gennaro, Russo, & Salvatore, 2018; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015).

By contrast, quantitative studies have focused on, for example, more objective, measurable individual factors that may make some individuals more prone to engage in job crafting, e.g., those with an approach/avoidance temperament (Bipp & Demerouti, 2015), proactive personality (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012), and how dark personality traits (e.g., neuroticism, narcissism, and psychopathy) relate to specific forms of job crafting (Roczniewska & Bakker, 2016). In other words, different types of research questions are

answered as a result of the various methodological approaches, in which qualitative studies focus on underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations, while quantitative studies focus on measuring defined variables to test hypotheses (Neuman, 2006). It is also notable that most qualitative studies followed a theoretical perspective different from the quantitative studies: the quantitative studies mostly followed the operationalization of job crafting as defined by Tims and Bakker (2010), while the qualitative studies mostly followed Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) task, relational, and cognitive crafting perspective as applied in the qualitative study of Berg et al. (2010b). The differences between the two perspectives appear large and resulted in researchers selecting one of the two job crafting perspectives in their specific studies.

One such important difference between the two job crafting perspectives is related to the aspect of cognitive crafting that is introduced by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) but is not a component of Tims and Bakker's (2010) approach. The latter authors reasoned that changing how one views tasks or relationships is not a way to actively change concrete aspects of work. At the same time, there are also similarities because task and relational crafting could represent changes in job characteristics (e.g., adding tasks could result in more variety or learning new skills; increasing the quality of relationships at work could be perceived as crafting social resources such as support and feedback). In sum, due to the differences between the two research streams and the lack of a systematic approach to distill the knowledge present in the qualitative literature, we argue for the relevance of systematically summarizing the qualitative job crafting studies to explore the knowledge that they can provide about job crafting beyond the quantitative literature.

We therefore sought to contribute to this field by conducting a meta-synthesis (Hoon, 2013) of qualitative job crafting studies. A meta-synthesis is a combination and interpretation of the results from a series of systematically selected qualitative studies with a

common theme (Douglas et al., 2008), closely approximating its quantitative equivalent, the meta-analysis. Drawing on 24 qualitative studies, we focused on distilling the process by which job crafting is motivated, shaped, and connected to specific outcomes. Hence, we not only describe the specific job crafting forms that emerged in the qualitative literature but also embed these forms of job crafting in a process model.

Although job crafting is often measured as a general behavior (e.g., by measuring how often individuals engaged in it in the previous week, month, or in general), job crafting is more accurately described as a process by which individuals initiate and create change over time (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). A process model abstracts patterns from the available data that can model a sequence of events without losing the connection with the particularities of the individual study (Tsoukas, 2009). Thus, we do not focus on explaining and predicting effects, but on describing the patterns present in the qualitative studies (Cornelissen, 2017).

This meta-synthesis contributes to the job crafting literature in two important ways. First, we integrated the knowledge present in qualitative job crafting studies, which allows a better understanding of the job crafting process. This integration is important because the personal experiences that are reported in these studies provide a rich description of the reasons why individuals engage in job crafting and provide information about the outcomes of job crafting behaviors. This approach may, for example, help to develop a better understanding of factors that may explain the negative consequences that job crafting can generate for individuals. Currently, this lack of knowledge is perceived as an important limitation in our understanding of job crafting (cf. Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Rudolph et al., 2017). Because job crafting originates from a personal goal, the changes made by individuals may not always be consistent with the needs of others (colleagues, supervisors). For example, reducing or adding activities or relationships could, in specific situations, lead

to undesired results because coworkers need to take over or feel that they missed out, respectively. Qualitative research may provide better insights into this important aspect of job crafting because it captures the specific experiences and thoughts of individuals within their specific situational context.

A second contribution of the current study is that we organized the various forms of job crafting encountered in the literature according to the recently proposed “approach” and “avoidance” forms of job crafting (Bruning & Campion, 2018). The large increase in interest in job crafting has paralleled an increase in new forms of job crafting that, on closer inspection, appear to be similar to and to overlap with existing forms of job crafting. Our integration of the different forms of job crafting as approach and avoidance crafting helps to clarify the overall pattern of when which forms of job crafting are utilized by employees and what result these employees experience following this type of job crafting.

Moreover, we also uncovered the situations in which individuals did not engage in job crafting although they wanted to. This information can provide insights for managers and trainers who seek to enhance job crafting in their workforce. In sum, this study supplements the knowledge generated by the quantitative meta-analysis of job crafting and enriches the field with a process view on job crafting.

Theoretical Background

Job Crafting: Two Perspectives

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) defined job crafting as any changes an individual makes related to the task and/or relational boundaries of the job. These changes can be physical or cognitive; physical changes refer to changes related to tasks and work relationships, and cognitive changes refer to changing the way one views the job. More specifically, task crafting is defined as those job-related changes that result in a different number, scope or type of job tasks, while relational crafting involves initiatives to change the

quality and/or quantity of interactions with others at work. For example, a job crafter may take on additional tasks because s/he finds them interesting, and/or may engage in less interaction with those persons who divert attention from work or are emotionally demanding. Cognitive crafting regards changing the way one views the job, which changes how individuals approach their jobs. For example, employees who reframe the purpose of their work to align it with their passions (Batova, 2018), or who cognitively emphasize the positive aspects of their jobs (Vuori et al., 2012), engage in cognitive crafting.

This theoretical perspective on job crafting results in a focus on how job crafting can help individuals reframe the purpose of the job and results in a job that is more meaningful and satisfying for the individual (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Examples of outcomes studied in research following this conceptualization of job crafting are a change in one's work identity, self-image, and the meaningfulness of work (Berg et al., 2010b; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015; Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). Studies following this job crafting approach have been predominantly qualitative, with some exceptions (e.g., Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016).

Building on the notion of job crafting as introduced by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), Tims and Bakker (2010) used the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) to study job crafting behaviors because that model includes provisions for examining individual job redesign from the perspective of a well-known theoretical job design framework. More specifically, in the JD-R approach, two overarching job characteristics are distinguished, namely job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), that function differently. Job demands refer to aspects of the job that require the employee's effort, and job resources refer to aspects of the job that help individuals address job demands and provide opportunities for learning and development.

Using the distinction between job demands and job resources, job crafting was conceptualized as comprising four forms: increasing structural job resources (i.e., mobilizing job characteristics that help to achieve work goals and develop the self, such as autonomy, variety, and opportunities for development); increasing social job resources (i.e., mobilizing job characteristics in the relational sphere, such as feedback, social support, and coaching); increasing challenging job demands (i.e., creating access to job demands that require effort but are rewarding when attained (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005), such as volunteering to start new projects); and decreasing hindering job demands (i.e., making sure one's work is less demanding by, for example, reducing emotional or cognitive demands; Tims et al., 2012).

In their meta-analysis, Rudolph and colleagues (2017) organized the quantitative job crafting literature using an integrative perspective based on general models of proactive work behaviors (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2011). As such, the authors examined personality characteristics, work characteristics, and demographics as antecedents of job crafting and work performance, job attitudes, and work-related well-being as outcomes of job crafting. Common antecedents and outcomes studied in this approach are proactive personality (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012), general self-efficacy (see Rudolph et al., 2017), work engagement (e.g., Mäkikangas, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018), job performance (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Gordon, Demerouti, Le Blanc, & Bipp, 2015), and job satisfaction (e.g., De Beer, Tims, & Bakker, 2016).

Bridging the Two Job Crafting Approaches

Recently, an attempt was made to better integrate the two research streams by developing a job crafting taxonomy. Bruning and Campion (2018) first classified the two job crafting perspectives as “role crafting” (i.e., Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), which relates to the task and social boundaries of work, and “resource crafting” (i.e., Tims et al., 2012),

which relates to increasing job resources and managing job demands. Although this distinction may eloquently capture some differences between the two job crafting approaches by stating that role crafting leads to personal enrichment and resource crafting leads to increased efficiency, the differences may not be that black and white in practice.

For example, the role-based perspective, in which task and relationship crafting are positioned, may also result in a more efficient job, as evidenced by improvements in work processes that involve the job crafter (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013), while the resource-based perspective is not predominantly concerned with increased efficiency, as evidenced by the relation between this crafting approach and a better work experience, such as person-job fit or work engagement (Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016). Bruning and Campion (2018) then introduced approach and avoidance behaviors as two general themes in job crafting activities. Approach crafting is directed toward solving problems, improving the work situation, and accepting and interpreting stressors in a positive way, whereas avoidance crafting seeks to reduce or eliminate aspects of the job. Similarly, Bipp and Demerouti (2015), using the JD-R approach to job crafting, found that employees with an approach temperament, that is, a general sensitivity to positive stimuli (Elliot & Thrash, 2010), were most likely to increase their job resources and challenging job demands, indicating that they actively added resources and challenges to their jobs. By contrast, employees with an avoidance temperament (i.e., a general sensitivity toward avoiding negative or undesirable stimuli) tended to engage in decreasing hindering job demands; these individuals attempted to reduce specific aspects of the work.

Rudolph and colleagues (2017) also meta-analytically examined how well the four job crafting dimensions proposed by Tims et al. (2012) fit together, shedding important light on the overall job-crafting construct. More specifically, although all four job crafting dimensions loaded significantly on the same factor, decreasing hindering job demands

loaded much lower (.047) than the other three job crafting dimensions (i.e., increasing social job resources: .482; increasing structural job resources: .641; increasing challenging job demands: .811) and explained scant variance in the overall job crafting factor. Furthermore, this job crafting dimension indicated opposite relations with outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work engagement compared with the other three job crafting dimensions. These findings also indicate the value of the idea of distinguishing between approach and avoidance types of job crafting, which were also reflected in expansion-oriented and reduction-oriented discussions of job crafting (Laurence, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and promotion- and prevention-oriented forms of job crafting (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018).

Building on this earlier work, Zhang and Parker (2018) propose that job crafting can indeed be organized as approach or avoidance crafting at the highest hierarchical level, followed by whether the job crafting is behavioral or cognitive (i.e., job crafting form), and whether it involves changing job demands or job resources (i.e., job crafting content). This hierarchical structure seems to be the first one to actually bring the different job crafting perspectives together and also reviews the literature accordingly.

Together, these findings strongly align with the idea that job crafting can be represented by an approach and avoidance dimension. We therefore deem the distinction between approach and avoidance crafting to be informative to categorize the different forms of job crafting we encounter in the qualitative studies and to describe the processes that determine when individuals are most likely to engage in approach/avoidance job crafting and what outcomes they experience following these forms of crafting.

Method

To construct an evidence-informed summary of the qualitative job crafting literature and to build a process model, we conducted a meta-synthesis of the qualitative evidence

(Hoon, 2013; Walsh & Downe, 2005). A meta-synthesis is concerned with understanding and describing issues, key points, and recurring themes within a research stream (Dixon-Woods, Booth, & Sutton, 2007). Similar to a meta-analysis, meta-synthesis integrates and combines studies on a specific topic to produce comprehensive and interpretive findings. However, unlike a meta-analysis, which combines data from different studies to evaluate an overall effect, a meta-synthesis develops and expands the results by evaluating the uniqueness of a study within a comprehensive and interpretive whole (Clemmens, 2003).

Drawing on the meta-synthesis method proposed by Hoon (2013) and Walsh and Downe (2005), our study involves six sequential steps of synthesizing the qualitative findings to build a process model, which we outline below.

Step 1: Framing the research question. Using the existing job crafting literature, we set out to meta-synthesize the qualitative research that may provide insights into the processes that motivate job crafting and its relations to outcomes. Informed by the qualitative literature review, it was noted that an in-depth overview of all factors related to the occurrence and consequences of job crafting was lacking because many studies focused on specific components of the job crafting process (e.g., job crafting forms and their antecedents or outcomes). We therefore guided the meta-synthesis using the following research question: What processes can be identified that illustrate when and how individuals engage in job crafting, and with what consequences?

Step 2: Locating relevant research. The second step was about identifying studies that may be considered relevant to our meta-synthesis by a computerized search using scientific search engines (e.g., Scopus, Web of Science) and databases (e.g., EbscoHost Business Source Complete, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Google Scholar) to find citations containing the primary keyword “job crafting”. Moreover, the search string included the following additional keywords: “qualitative study”, “interview”, “case study”, “focus

group”, “ethnography”, and “process”; we also searched the literature with the secondary keywords “individual job redesign” and “proactive behaviors at work”. Finally, we searched for publications (published and unpublished) using scientific networks, reference lists, and active authors in the field of job crafting to further identify job crafting studies. The search focused on published and unpublished studies because a synthesis of the literature should be comprehensive and exhaustive on the subject by selecting the maximum number of primary resources (Kisamore & Brannick, 2008) and this also limits the potential of publication bias (Kepes, Banks, McDaniel, & Whetzel, 2012).

Step 3: Making decisions about inclusion/exclusion criteria. To ensure that the sample of articles used for the analysis was appropriate, we applied the following inclusion criteria (based on recommendations from Atkins and colleagues (2008), who established an overview of criteria for evaluating qualitative data): (1) a qualitative research design with data collected from focus groups, interviews, observations, ethnographic reviews, or narrative approaches; (2) the main theme of the study was related to job crafting; (3) use of primary data; (4) clearly stated research questions; (5) appropriate and justified qualitative approach related to research questions; (6) clear description of the study context; (7) clear description of the role of the researcher; (8) clear description of the sampling method; (9) clear description of the data collection; (10) clear description of the method of analysis; and finally, (11) consistent with our research question, we only included studies that focused on the process related to job crafting instead of just one aspect.

The initial search of published qualitative job crafting studies yielded a set of 76 published contributions. This search was extended with 39 unpublished studies obtained via cross-checking of reference lists, scientific networks, and active researchers in the field. After a first screening of titles and abstracts, we found 33 studies to be false positives since job crafting was not their main topic of investigation (e.g., job crafting was used to explain

results). Then, after obtaining the studies' full text versions, all authors independently reviewed all the papers and together reached a final agreement on the dataset for this study, excluding studies if they were quantitative ($n = 21$); failed to state the research method, the theoretical framework, or the study context ($n = 15$); focused on only one aspect of the job crafting process ($n = 8$); did not provide an adequate description of the research question ($n = 4$), the appropriateness of the qualitative methodology ($n = 4$), or the role of the researcher ($n = 3$); or did not use purposefully collected data (instead they used, for example, existing data that functioned as an illustrative example) ($n = 3$). Overall, 81 studies (70% of the total number of contributions) were read in their entirety, and 24 of these met the inclusion criteria and were ultimately incorporated into the meta-synthesis.

Step 4: Extracting and coding data. The fourth step in the meta-synthesis approach was to extract, code, and classify evidence from the selected studies (Noblit & Hare, 1988). Because our objective was to develop a process model, we content-analyzed the source material and coded for two types of information: (1) forms of job crafting, and (2) processes surrounding job crafting that described why individuals crafted their jobs and the resulting experience after crafting.

We used an open-coding approach (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to classify insights generated by the researchers of the primary studies especially focusing on the Results and Discussion sections (Hoon, 2013). During this stage, we were mindful of the different settings in which primary studies were conducted and initially coded each primary study for the descriptive characteristics (e.g., setting, sample, data sources; see *Supplementary Online Material*) and then developed a list of open codes. All the coauthors read through the same three randomly selected studies to identify relevant codes. Then, two researchers independently coded the remaining articles according to the defined criteria.

Working with two coders reduces mistakes in data recording and avoids omitting relevant constructs (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

We followed an iterative approach (Locke, 2001), continuously iterating between our data and the emerging conceptualizations and comparing codes by engaging in a discussion when disagreements emerged. We used Cohen's kappa coefficient (κ ; Cohen, 1972) to estimate the level of agreement between the coders. Initially, when all the coauthors codified the first three studies, a fair level of agreement was reached: $\kappa = .38$ (Landis & Koch, 1977). By discussing the reasons for our disagreements, particularly regarding terminological differences, we were able to identify and correct differences in the encoding process. Following this phase, in the final coding process, the observed agreement, that is, the percentage of agreement between the judgments of two raters when they independently coded the same data, reached a value of $\kappa = .85$; by calculating the amount of the chance agreement, that is, the probability that two coders classified data in the same way by chance, within this coefficient ($\kappa = .60$), the final consensus reached the value of $\kappa = .61$, reflecting a substantial agreement between the raters (Artstein & Poesio, 2008; Landis & Koch, 1977).

Step 5: Analyzing different conceptualizations and comparisons. Because our first-order codes highlighted specific patterns, we started to place concepts and themes identified in the previous phase into reciprocal relations to create a link among them. Whereas the initial concepts mainly represented job crafting forms and process variables related to when and how job crafting occurs, we moved back and forth between our data and existing theory and developed a set of more generalizable categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). We grouped our concepts into theoretical categories so that the emerging constructs were grounded in our data but were elaborated on with the help of extant theory. In doing so, we lifted the data to a more theoretical level and moved from a case-specific level to a cross-study level of analysis.

Indeed, after settling on a set of theoretical categories, we identified key aggregate theoretical dimensions. These dimensions were “approach crafting”, “avoidance crafting”, and “crafting in other domains” for the job crafting conceptualizations and “motives”, “context”, “personal factors”, and “consequences” for the job crafting process variables. Moreover, the resulting aggregate dimensions served as the basis for our job crafting process model. To evaluate which events, patterns, and factors facilitate or hinder job crafting, we used a causal network approach (Miles & Huberman, 1994). We created a within–case processual matrix in which each row represented a study in our dataset and each column represented the categories resulting from the preliminary coding stage. This matrix thus provided a summary of the types of variables that were consistent with or constrained other variables and revealed underlying themes and patterns.

The final step was to connect specific variables and relations in an overarching model. To move to a cross–study level of analysis, we created meta-causal network sequences of the variables identified in each study. Using a compare–and–contrast exercise at the cross–case study level (Miles & Huberman, 1994), we matched each case–specific causal network to determine how specific relations performed across the complete set of studies. To ensure the validity of these relations, two researchers conducted this analysis jointly and divergent judgments regarding potential relations were assessed and resolved to capture the relevant issues emerging from the studies. Moreover, to obtain an outsider perspective and thereby verify our ideas, we engaged in informal (e.g., internal seminars with fellow department members) and formal (e.g., conference session) meetings with other researchers not involved in the study to discuss emerging patterns and solicit critical questions regarding the data collection and analytical procedure (Corley & Gioia, 2004).

Step 6: Synthesizing findings. The last phase synthesized the concepts that had emerged to systematize specificities related to qualitative job crafting research and to

formulate a job crafting process model. Overall, a process model emerged that connected motives, context, personal factors, and consequences of job crafting based on the distinction between approach and avoidance behaviors. Notably, the data also revealed patterns that could explain both the inability to craft and crafting outside the job in other domains. The findings are explained in detail in the following sections.

Results

Job Crafting Conceptualizations

Due to the large number of job crafting conceptualizations encountered in the data, we discuss these results here before we present the process model. A complete overview of all forms of job crafting is presented in Table 1. Below, we describe examples of approach crafting, avoidance crafting, and crafting in other domains.

Insert Table 1 about here

Approach crafting. In the approach crafting domain, we identified forms that were previously adopted in the job crafting literature and identified several new forms. In some cases, new forms of job crafting overlapped with old ones. In other situations, new job crafting forms emerged. Within the task-crafting subdomain, examples of strategies identified in previous work (e.g., Berg et al., 2010b; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) were *adding extra tasks, altering the scope or nature of tasks, and developing skills and abilities*. However, in the qualitative literature, authors also proposed more nuanced labels or descriptions of crafting strategies to fit the specific study contexts. For example, Fuller and Unwin (2017) described a specific form of “altering the scope or nature of tasks” in the context of hospital porters, who expanded their job by making conversation or “entertaining” patients and directly practicing healthcare although that was not prescribed in their job. The authors defined these job crafting behaviors as *caring moves*. Meged (2017) described certified guides who spent the low season *maintaining and upgrading their qualifications* or

who lived abroad to be closer to the host country's culture as practicing a specific crafting form of developing skills and abilities. Similarly, other scholars (Renkema, Broekhuis, Ahaus, & Tims, 2018; Vuori et al., 2012) discussed *developing oneself professionally*, which refers to developing skills and knowledge to address work situations more effectively. Although labeled at a more specific level, these job crafting behaviors overlap with task crafting.

Others, instead, have integrated new elements into previously existing conceptualizations, thereby further advancing them. For example, the so-called *work role expansion* (Bruning & Campion, 2018) strategy combines elements of task crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), increasing challenging job demands (Tims et al., 2012), and job expanding techniques (Berg et al., 2010a), and refers to incumbents' not only changing their tasks by including elements not originally prescribed in the job description but also integrating personal and work domains. Among the newest task-crafting forms, the *work organization* tactic addresses reshaping systems and strategies to organize the tangible elements of work—e.g., setting deadlines, organizing tools and procedures in a certain order, and creating behavioral protocols and regulations, which can involve managing behavior or physical surroundings (Bruning & Campion, 2018). A more specific form of work organization is *prioritizing tasks*, which refers to the prioritization of certain tasks over others to improve efficiency and task execution (Cohen, 2013; Singh & Singh, 2016). Other authors discussed *innovation practices* (Kossek et al., 2016) as a general crafting strategy to undertake new activities to generate greater involvement; others go further in the innovation process by introducing *recognition of job-expanding ideas* (i.e., an increase in existing responsibilities and activities) and *recognition of new business ideas* (i.e., an injection of new management philosophies and thinking) as new forms of task crafting (Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015).

Moreover, an emerging topic within the job crafting literature is making proactive changes related to the adoption of specific technologies. *Adoption* involves the use of technology or other information systems to change the work process (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Similarly, other scholars mentioned the proactive use of technology to maintain increased flexibility (Sturges, 2012) or performing one's own tasks in more innovative ways (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017) although they did not define any specific technology-related crafting forms.

In the relational crafting subdomain, the notions of *actively changing relationships with others at work* (e.g., Berg et al., 2010b; Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017; Piekkari, 2015) and *creating additional relationships* (e.g., Batova, 2018; Murray, 2014; Piekkari, 2015) were the most cited behaviors, although additional relational forms of crafting emerged. For example, Bruning and Campion (2018) introduced *social expansion* as workers' attempt to systematically seek feedback, change interactions with others or take on self-adopted team roles. Similarly, *asking colleagues for feedback and advice* or *building personal relationships* with partners, purchasers, customers, or colleagues represent a means of receiving support and assurance from colleagues (Renkema et al., 2018); gaining confidence and appreciation (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017; Lyons, 2008; Piekkari, 2015); setting the stage for future relationship building (Lyons, 2008); and finding new meaning at work (Singh & Singh, 2016). In a similar vein, the idea of proactively *creating a network* is especially important for self-employed professionals or those whose jobs are characterized by high autonomy or job insecurity (e.g., Buonocore et al., 2018; Meged, 2017) and is useful for those seeking *emotional and instrumental support* (Kossek, Piszczek, McAlpine, Hammer, & Burke, 2016). Furthermore, some individuals experience a reciprocal social exchange through *quid pro quo* (Kossek et al., 2016), which is suggested as a type of relational crafting, in which individuals decide to dedicate part of their time to performing the activities of other colleagues and

expect them to return the favor in the future. Finally, *persuading others to take over tasks* or coordination of projects (Murray, 2014) was mentioned as a new form of relational crafting.

With regard to the cognitive crafting domain, results showed that incumbents make psychological changes to the perception of their jobs by either *redefining their view of the type/nature of tasks or relationships involved in their own jobs* or *reframing them as a meaningful whole that positively impacts others rather than remaining a collection of separate tasks* (Berg et al., 2010b). Piekkari (2015) described individuals who *focus on the impact of their job on other people's lives or on overall organizational success*. In some cases, people may *reframe the purpose of their jobs* (Batova, 2018; Singh & Singh, 2016) or *of the work role* (Berg et al., 2010b). Additionally, managers were perceived as cognitively crafting their jobs by *changing their mental relationships* (Kira, Balkin, & San, 2012). Employees also actively focused on *making one's work emotionally less intense* (Renkema et al., 2018). Moreover, individuals may use cognitive crafting to forge an "esteem enhancing" identity (Fuller & Unwin, 2017), or to create and define a new socially accepted work identity (Janssen, Wallenburg, & de Bont, 2016).

Another cognitive activity is called *metacognition* (Bruning & Campion, 2018), which is characterized by cognitive changes and involves sensemaking, organization, and the manipulation of one's own psychological states. A specific form of metacognition may be *stakeholder prioritization* (Kossek et al., 2016), which refers to the prioritization of certain groups over others when making decisions. Similarly, the *construction of fairness* emerged as a cognitive crafting form concerning beliefs about fairness through which employees interpret and enact their roles and make decisions (Kossek et al., 2016). Moreover, people may *emphasize the positive qualities of work* to find the pleasant side of the job (Piekkari, 2015; Vuori et al., 2012).

Avoidance crafting. Task crafting may not only have an additive effect (e.g., adding tasks and activities); individuals may also decide not to perform some activities by *reducing the number of tasks, responsibilities, requirements, and effort expenditures*, hence engaging in avoidance task crafting (e.g., Bruning & Campion, 2018; Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018; Sturges, 2012). Broadly speaking, *reducing one's workload* (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018) is a common way of engaging in avoidance crafting; other types may be more specific, such as *reducing non-critical or non-routine tasks* to increase efficiency and reduce resource constraints (Singh & Singh, 2016) or *avoiding risky situations/cases* (Renkema et al., 2018). Moreover, individuals may avoid some activities by *delegating* tasks to subordinates and peers (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018). Another similar form is called *work role reduction* (Bruning & Campion, 2018), which involves managers delegating tasks or formal responsibilities because they want to avoid a specific task. Furthermore, individuals may engage in avoidance task crafting by demonstrating rigidities and *rule-bound interpretations* of their jobs, which implies strictly applying formal rules and procedures at work and being inflexible or closed to any exceptions (Kossek et al., 2016). In other situations, they may just say “no” when some unwanted activities are requested (Kira et al., 2012).

Avoidance relational crafting also takes different forms. For example, individuals may attempt to *decrease meetings and time devoted to socializing with colleagues* (Sturges, 2012). Similarly, *social reduction* is an alternative avoidance job crafting form adopted by those who try to reduce unnecessary interactions at work to help them achieve work-life balance (Sturges, 2012) or when the level of competition is high and people are reluctant to share information with colleagues (Meged, 2017). People may also *reduce interaction* as a form of self-protection in cases of risky situations by not disclosing or reporting critical information (Renkema et al., 2018). Otherwise, reducing interaction with management and coworkers can be a strategy aimed at saving time and being more efficient with customers

(Rafaeli, 1989). More specifically, employees may *ignore customers* who attempt to influence their jobs as an attempt to maintain control over them (Rafaeli, 1989).

Finally, *avoidance cognitive crafting* is the most passive way to address one's own job. In this subdomain, individuals use the traditional form of *cognitive job crafting* (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) by accepting a situation (Van Wingerden, Derks, Bakker, & Dorenbosch, 2013) or reducing cognitive demands (Bruning & Campion, 2018). A new form of avoidance cognitive crafting is *withdrawal crafting*, which involves distancing oneself either mentally or physically from a person, situation, event, or environment (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Another new form is *offloading of responsibility* for incidents or critical situations onto colleagues (Renkema et al., 2018).

Crafting in other domains. The last aggregate dimension refers to “other domains” because it is related to broader aspects of a job, such as the spatial (i.e., where to perform the job) and temporal (i.e., when to perform the job) dimensions or life spheres (e.g., leisure time, work-life balance) that are not strictly work-related. For example, Sturges (2012) discussed *choosing a job* as a crafting strategy related to decisions made before applying for a job on the basis of aspects such as workplace location, time requirements, or allowed flexibility. *Locational crafting* refers to employees' managing where to spend work time by either opting for conducting some activities at home to improve work-life balance and well-being (Sturges, 2012), or preferring to stay at work even when the task can be performed at home to cooperate with colleagues (e.g., teachers correcting homework at school; Van Wingerden et al., 2013). Moreover, individuals may focus on *reducing travel time* to save time and economical resources by moving closer to their workplaces (Sturges, 2012). In some situations (e.g., early stages of career), people may engage in the crafting strategy of *prioritizing work* for a certain period in return for potential future benefits (e.g., career opportunities or stability), but in other phases, they may attempt to negotiate the contents of

their work by *defining work-life balance crafting* (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018) and choosing to *invest more time and effort in relationships with family and friends* (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017) or *meeting colleagues during free time* (Piekkari, 2015).

Another crafting conceptualization identified in the analyzed papers concerns *temporal crafting* (Sturges, 2012), referring to the way people manage their workloads during the day (i.e., the pace and intensity of the work time). Finally, *leisure crafting* refers to the way in which individuals craft their free time. Berg and colleagues (2010a) suggested two forms: *vicarious experiencing* considers seeking fulfillment by the involvement of other people (friends, family or even famous people), not necessarily by a first-hand experience; conversely, *hobby participating* involves directly engaging in activities outside the work domain to increase one's sense of joy and meaning.

Overall, our data suggest that all the job crafting conceptualizations included in our dataset can be grouped into three overarching categories: approach crafting, avoidance crafting, and crafting in other domains. Many conceptualizations are consistent with the classical threefold taxonomy of task, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001); however, new conceptualizations of job crafting that stretch, expand, or question the three traditional categories also emerged. Some of these types can be effectively captured by previously existing labels (e.g., adding extra tasks, job expanding), while others are new (e.g., metacognition, adoption), or context-dependent (e.g., caring moves, quid pro quo). Moreover, in some cases, job crafting forms are not related to the job itself but involve crafting in different life domains. After empirically deriving these job crafting categories, we integrated them into a process model that aims to describe how and why job crafting occurs and leads to specific consequences.

A Process Model of Job Crafting

Modeling a sequence of events in terms of what happens, in which contexts, and with what consequences is crucial to disentangle how job crafting occurs and to describe the underlying patterns present in the qualitative studies. In addition to Table 1, which presents an overview of job crafting forms, Table 2 summarizes the variables identified in each paper that influenced whether job crafting occurred, how it was accomplished, and what the experienced results were. Specifically, “motives” refers to factors that motivate individuals to undertake job crafting, “context” introduces the salient properties of the situation, “personal factors” relate to personal characteristics influencing individuals’ ability to attain the goals they attempt to achieve with job crafting, and “consequences” refers to positive or negative experiences resulting from job crafting. We have thus combined a pattern of sequencing variables that were determined to be meaningful across all studies and built a meta-causal network (Miles & Huberman, 1994; see Table 3).

Insert Tables 2 and 3 about here

Job crafting motives. The starting point of the job crafting process is related to the individual’s motivation to craft. We observed that those factors may be of two key types: proactive and reactive motives. Proactive motives refer to employees wanting to initiate job crafting to reach desirable goals, while reactive motives are related to the need to cope with adversity. Desirable goals in the proactive domain were determined to be individual or job-related. For example, those trying to pursue individual goals may be motivated by the need to satisfy additional callings (Batova, 2018; Berg et al., 2010a), improve self-image (Singh & Singh, 2016), increase meaningfulness (Piekkari, 2015; Vuori et al., 2012), improve person-job fit (Van Wingerden et al., 2013), create a positive occupational identity (Janssen et al., 2016), or rethink their roles (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017). Furthermore, desirable goals related to the job are adapting a part-time job by proactively reducing time and workload (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018), improving work performance (Lyons, 2008),

connecting more effectively with customers (Lyons, 2008), developing knowledge (Singh & Singh, 2016), reaching a better work–life balance (Sturges, 2012), and working toward realizing career aspirations (Batova, 2018; Singh & Singh, 2016).

In contrast, in the reactive domain, employees seek to cope with structural or job-related adversity. Structural adversity refers to a generalized situation in which employees are exposed to high competitiveness (Meged, 2017), or feel threatened by organizational changes (Vuori et al., 2012). Employees may also experience job–related adversity when low–grade status jobs provide a lack of social validation and workers feel they have to protect themselves from such negative cues (Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Rafaeli, 1989). Moreover, employees may be motivated to craft by the need to compensate for missed callings (Berg et al., 2010a) and hindrances to the experience of authenticity (Vuori et al., 2012). However, some specific negative job characteristics, such as lack of resources (Singh & Singh, 2016), lack of autonomy, high workload and pressure (Buonocore et al., 2018; Renkema et al., 2018), and the need to manage multiple demands and requests (Kossek et al., 2016) may also function as reactive motives for job crafting.

Contextual conditions. The contextual variables were ultimately central in explaining the pattern linking individual proactive and reactive motives to different job crafting forms. We identified contextual characteristics related to the organizational climate and job design components. With regard to organizational climate, the data revealed that supportive contexts are characterized by a social environment that stimulates and supports job crafting efforts, such as high social support, openness, a proactive-oriented organizational culture, and a shared organizational identity (Batova, 2018; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015; Piekkari, 2015; Rafaeli, 1989), as opposed to constraining contexts that are characterized by low social support (Batova, 2018; Piekkari, 2015; Rafaeli, 1989) and minimal collaboration (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018; Rafaeli, 1989). Similarly, the concept

of supportive job design refers to those contexts in which individuals have greater autonomy and discretion to choose their own courses of action, as indicated by codes such as weak situation, rank, and flexibility (Berg et al., 2010a; Kira et al., 2012; Kossek et al., 2016; Van Wingerden et al., 2013), unlike those situations characterized by high pressure to behave in a prescribed manner (e.g., the so-called “Ten Commandments”, the organization’s rules for cashiers in Rafaeli, 1989), which are labeled constraining job design contexts.

Notably, it appears that job characteristics play a double role: some of them may represent a proactive or reactive motive for job crafting because they activate the individual to change the work situation (e.g., improve job performance, alleviate work pressure); however, they were also observed to act as enablers of approach job crafting by creating a supportive context, or as stimulating avoidance crafting or crafting in other domains when the work environment was considered to be constraining, as discussed next.

More specifically, supportive contexts appear to enable those driven by both proactive and reactive motives to engage in approach crafting behaviors. For example, it is more likely that proactive motives are linked to approach crafting when reinforced by high recognition and social support (e.g., Batova, 2018; Cohen, 2013; Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018; Lyons, 2008). However, a supportive context also allows for the linking of reactive motives and approach crafting behaviors: In cases of a misalignment between personal values, needs, and preferences, and the job (Berg et al., 2010a) or in cases of job design constraints (e.g., lack of resources, work overload and pressure, managing multiple demands), a flexible and supportive environment still allows for approach crafting to address the reactive motives (Singh & Singh, 2016).

In contrast, the situation is slightly more complicated and nuanced when employees face constraining contexts. In this respect, the more common situation is that in which a constraining context leads people to engage in avoidance crafting regardless of whether they

are driven by reactive or proactive motives (Batova, 2018; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Kossek et al., 2016; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015; Singh & Singh, 2016). In these situations, individuals are less likely to engage in approach crafting because they perceive that this form of crafting would be more difficult or even impossible to undertake because of contextual constraints. Another finding is that because of the feeling of not being able to overcome such contextual constraints, people just stop any crafting attempts (Cohen, 2013; Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Lyons, 2008). This situation occurs, for example, when individuals must address high competition or job insecurity (Buonocore et al., 2018; Meged, 2017) or in the case of a lack of crafting opportunities (Cohen, 2013). However, there are also some rare instances in which employees initiate approach crafting even in constraining contexts.

Indeed, Berg and colleagues (2010a) suggested that in some cases, to seed the ground for job crafting, adaptive moves may be required, depending on how counter-normative those changes are. In another case, despite approach crafting representing a deviant behavior in a very strong context, employees who considered approach crafting to be a low-risk, high-gain situation because they were relatively invisible in the organization were more likely to initiate approach crafting (Fuller & Unwin, 2017). Another illustrative example is that of physicians working in public and professional accountability systems who, to react to perceived patient pressures, the necessity of applying high-risk procedures, emotional pressures, and the perceived threat of litigation, have activated both approach (e.g., task emphasizing, making one's work emotionally less intense) and avoidance crafting (e.g., avoiding risky situations/cases, offloading responsibility onto others) (Renkema et al., 2018).

Finally, we encountered instances in which employees working in constraining contexts deliberately chose to shift their crafting efforts to other domains. Individuals, for example, engaged in leisure crafting by sports to manage the intensity and the anxiety of organizational change (Kira et al., 2012).

Personal factors. Job crafting may result in both positive and negative outcomes, but the link between job crafting and its consequences appears to be dependent on what happens while individuals attempt to craft their jobs. Many participants in the primary studies described which aspects were prominent in determining positive or negative job crafting outcomes. They mentioned personal characteristics that in some cases had a supportive effect and in others had a constraining effect on the achievement of intended job crafting goals. Thus, after engaging in job crafting, employees may perceive, for example, an increase in their self-confidence, which, in turn, may lead them to invest more energy in job crafting to reach their initial goals (e.g., Batova, 2018; Buonocore et al., 2018; Janssen et al., 2016).

In other cases, people felt motivated to persist in their job crafting efforts after noticing that they had been able to influence other people by obtaining recognition for what they were doing (e.g., Batova, 2018) or by involving them in the job crafting process as well (e.g., Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015). Occasionally, personality traits or personal characteristics were mentioned as supportive factors that helped employees who had activated job crafting pursue their goals. Having a prosocial (e.g., Batova, 2018) or a goal orientation (e.g., Cohen, 2013) was considered useful in obtaining recognition while crafting a job, or in taking advantage of the new opportunities that emerged during the job crafting process. Conversely, constraining personal factors may be a result of not being able to properly manage personal resources such as time, energy, and abilities (e.g., Berg et al., 2010a; Berg et al., 2010b). For example, participants in the study by Van Wingerden et al. (2013) reported that they did not have sufficient time to coordinate a new way of working with their colleagues. Furthermore, after beginning to craft their jobs, people may realize that the goals motivating them are unattainable, and therefore they may give up or feel frustrated (e.g., Berg et al., 2010b).

Another interesting constraining factor is related to the finding that when people start thinking about crafting a job to obtain, for example, career advancement or a new position, they are not fully aware of what this entails until they experience it. Thus, difficulties managing an unexpected overload or increased responsibility may emerge along the way, rendering the expected positive outcomes more difficult to reach (Berg et al., 2010a; Buonocore et al., 2018; Kossek et al., 2016).

Job crafting consequences. Meaningfulness, esteem-enhanced occupational identity, and job satisfaction are among the most common positive experiences resulting from job crafting (Buonocore et al., 2018; Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Kossek et al., 2016; Meged, 2017). In this sense, “positive experiences” refer to the intended consequences of job crafting resulting from having been able to craft in the way one wanted. However, job crafting may also have a downside as it may lead to undesirable experiences. Indeed, regrets, overload, strain, stress, conflict at home (Berg et al., 2010b; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Sturges, 2012), health problems (e.g., sleep problems, physical injuries; Kossek et al., 2016; Meged, 2017), and job-related issues (e.g., lower interaction, career marginalization, work intensification; Batova, 2018; Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018) are examples of negative experiences resulting from job crafting. While avoidance crafting is always related to negative experiences, approach crafting can result in either positive or negative experiences according to the type of personal factors described above.

More specifically, when people perceive supportive personal factors (e.g., increased self-confidence, personality traits), approach crafting is associated with positive experiences, such as meaningfulness, esteem-enhanced occupational identity, and job satisfaction (Buonocore et al., 2018; Fuller & Unwin, 2017; Kossek et al., 2016; Meged, 2017). When people encounter constraining personal factors along the job crafting process, such as a lack of personal resources or a lack of self-confidence, even approach crafting may result in

negative experiences (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018; Kossek et al., 2016; Meged, 2017; Van Wingerden et al., 2013), or people decided to craft in other domains (Berg et al., 2010a; Buonocore et al., 2018; Sturges, 2012) because they were unable to cope with such constraining personal characteristics.

Figure 1 summarizes the sequence of events characterizing the job crafting process. The gray boxes represent the influence of contextual and personal characteristics that influence the job crafting process in determining how individuals craft and what consequences they experience. Moreover, because the analyzed sequence of events is intended to occur in a work domain, the “crafting in other domains” form was placed outside of the work domain area because it involves aspects that are not strictly job-related. Finally, the solid arrows in Figure 1 imply sequences of events that were reported quite often in the analyzed studies. The broken lines indicate more occasional links.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Discussion

The goal of this meta-synthesis was to organize the findings from qualitative studies into a process model that highlights when and how individuals craft their jobs and with what results. In doing so, we adopted the approach and avoidance distinction that Bruning and Campion (2018) and Zhang and Parker (2018) recently made and linked these types of job crafting to their motives. The qualitative studies allowed identification of contextual factors that link the specific motives to these forms of job crafting while also alluding to crafting in other domains or contexts that do not allow job crafting to occur, even though the motives for job crafting are present. We then identified the personal factors that could link the forms of crafting to certain consequences. We hope to contribute to the job crafting literature with this meta-synthesis by revealing the unique and rich contextual knowledge that is captured in qualitative studies and identifying patterns across these studies that help to better understand

why certain relationships are more likely to occur than others. The next section discusses the theoretical insights and compares them with existing job crafting overviews (i.e., Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018).

Theoretical Implications

Across the qualitative job crafting studies, several important mechanisms were observed that influence job crafting behaviors and their consequences. Consistent with job crafting theory, the job crafting process begins with a motivation to change some aspects of one's work. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) indicated that the need for control over work, the need for connections with others, and the need for a positive self-image are important motivations for individuals who want to make changes in their jobs. Indeed, across the studies, individuals reported motivations to improve self-image, to better connect with others at work, and to obtain more control over work as reasons to engage in job crafting. The meta-synthesis also identified several additional job crafting motivations. Most notable were the often-mentioned goals to improve job performance, improve knowledge and skills, and better align work with other aspects of life. These motivations for job crafting are more closely related to the need to perform well than to the psychological needs proposed in job crafting theory and emphasize work as a way to develop oneself (Parker, 2014).

In addition, given that almost all studies in our dataset applied the job crafting perspective of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as their theoretical approach, the finding that developing oneself is an important motive for job crafting corroborates the idea that efficiency and performance motivations can also be perceived as a component of this job crafting perspective and do not clearly distinguish the role- and resource-based distinctions of job crafting as proposed by Bruning and Campion (2018).

Another important finding is that the work environment also spurs job crafting that seeks to address the work situation. We have labeled this as a reactive motive for job crafting. In other words, the job crafting is not motivated by an individual desire to improve work meaning, oneself, or one's functioning; it focuses on coping with a poor work environment and thus gaining control over the job (e.g., lack of resources, work overload, conflict; Berg et al., 2010b; Sturges, 2012). This finding is consistent with Tims and Bakker (2010), who proposed that person-job misfit can motivate individuals to craft. In addition to person-job misfit, we encountered adversity at the occupational and organizational levels (e.g., dirty jobs, organizational change) that motivated individual job crafting. Comparing these findings with the findings of the meta-analyses and review (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018), we noted that the antecedents of job crafting examined in these studies (i.e., personality traits, job characteristics, demographics) were different from those reported in the present study.

The only overlap was observed in the role of job characteristics (Rudolph et al., 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018) as antecedents of job crafting. Although some studies reported a negative relationship between role overload and approach crafting (e.g., Solberg & Wong, 2016), quantitative studies mainly consider autonomy and workload as positively related to approach-oriented job crafting (i.e., increasing structural and social job resources and increasing challenging job demands) and unrelated to avoidance-oriented job crafting (i.e., decreasing hindering job demands). In our meta-synthesis, we observed workload also to represent a reactive motive for job crafting, thus providing more insight and depth as to *why* individuals want to engage in job crafting compared with quantitative studies that assessed which factors *facilitate* job crafting behaviors.

As we discuss next, the work context also emerged to be important in the job crafting process. More specifically, the second contribution of the synthesis is that the process model

sheds light on the factors that may link motivation for job crafting to the form the job crafting will assume. Although we first focused only on approach and avoidance forms of job crafting, we also encountered crafting in other domains in the job crafting studies and hence included this form of crafting in the process model. Consistent with other research (Berg et al., 2010a; Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009; Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012; Rudolph et al., 2017), a number of contextual factors were identified that, across studies, indicated that a supportive work context was more likely to link both proactive and reactive motives with approach forms of job crafting, whereas a constraining work context was linked to avoidance forms of job crafting regardless of the type of motives. This finding extends job crafting theory that has suggested an overall pattern linking motivation to obtain desirable goals to approach crafting and motivation to avoid threats to avoidance crafting (Bindl et al., 2018; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2018).

Namely, with the processes described in the qualitative studies, this relation can now be better understood. Although proactive motives relate to approach crafting and reactive motives relate to avoidance crafting, the finding that individuals engage in approach crafting despite reactive motives or engage in avoidance crafting in the case of proactive motives provides interesting insights that imply that the context may intervene in determining which job crafting forms will be activated. It is therefore not just a matter of motives, but rather of supportive or constraining contexts that determines the behavior of workers: if an individual perceives support for modifying his/her work, it is possible to actually make the changes regardless of the motive that prompted that behavior.

Moreover, contextual characteristics are considered important antecedents of proactive work behaviors (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2011; Ohly & Schmitt, 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018). At best, however, these characteristics can explain the form of job crafting

individuals engage in because the motivation to enact change impels individuals to search their surroundings for opportunities to craft (e.g., Cohen, 2013; Fuller & Unwin, 2017). Hence, we identified support for Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) notion of opportunities to craft that in fact help individuals translate their job crafting motivation into actual behavior. Additionally, we could add more nuances to predict which factors, in addition to control and task interdependence, determine which form of job crafting individuals will use (approach, avoidance, or crafting in other domains) and which factors will completely stifle job crafting behaviors.

Another interesting aspect that emerged from the process model concerns a neglected aspect of the literature: the negative consequences that job crafting can generate for individuals. Although scholars have already addressed this issue (e.g., Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Petrou et al., 2012), the question, "Under what conditions are certain forms of crafting costly or likely to produce negative side effects for individuals and organizations (e.g., burnout, stress, or reduced performance)?" (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013, p. 22), has not been addressed deeply. Consistent with previous literature, our meta-synthesis confirms that avoidance crafting most likely results in negative consequences (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017; Zhang & Parker, 2018), such as work intensification, health problems, and turnover.

Moreover, the meta-synthesis also allows for a more nuanced view of why job crafting may sometimes result in positive consequences and at other times in negative consequences. The process by which these results are achieved relates to personal factors that individuals used to explain whether their job crafting activity was consistent with their initial motivation. In other words, in their explanations, individuals perceived certain characteristics that, after engaging in specific forms of job crafting, helped to explain their outcomes. Again, there were supportive (e.g., being able to influence others, realistic goals

that could be achieved with the crafting; Berg et al., 2010a; Sturges, 2012) and constraining (lack of time or energy, lack of self-confidence) personal factors that related the form of job crafting to the outcome of job crafting. Interestingly, our results suggest that approach crafting can result in either positive or negative experiences depending on factors that indicated whether the crafting was the right strategy (i.e., consistent with personal characteristics and realistic motivations that can be achieved with the crafting; supportive personal factors) or whether it was constrained by factors such as problems during the job crafting attempt (e.g., interference by other people; Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018). Indeed, the frustration resulting from not being able to meet proactive goals generates negative experiences (Kossek et al., 2016; Meged, 2017; Van Wingerden et al., 2013) or a shift towards an interest in crafting in other domains (Berg et al., 2010a; Buonocore et al., 2018; Sturges, 2012).

In sum, the process model recognizes the complexities surrounding job crafting from the initial motivation to craft to the positive/negative outcome of the job crafting and provides a better understanding of when individuals engage in which form of job crafting and with what consequences.

Future Research Directions

One of the first things that became evident after coding the qualitative job crafting papers was that there were many different and new labels used to describe the specific job crafting behaviors encountered in the study. Although authors used the task, relational, and cognitive crafting dimensions defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as their guiding framework, they added new labels under these three forms of job crafting. Providing specifications within forms of job crafting allows a better understanding of what individuals change in their work. However, we caution against calling too many behaviors job crafting.

It is thus recommended that researchers clearly indicate why they define certain behaviors as job crafting.

Bruning and Campion (2018) drew upon existing job crafting research to clearly articulate what features a behavior should have to be labeled job crafting: the behavior must be self-targeted to benefit the job crafter; the behavior must be self-initiated (volitional) and intended to make a change to one's work; the behavior should result in a significant, noticeable change in the task or the social or cognitive dimensions of the job; the change should be (semi)permanent; and the change should be different from crafting in another role. Zhang and Parker (2018) further added that job crafting does not need formal approval because it occurs in the zone of acceptance of others and that job crafting targets the intrinsic characteristics of one's job, instead of extrinsic characteristics such as pay. Applying these defining characteristics to the studies synthesized here, it became clear that researchers should be careful not to use the term "job crafting" too liberally to avoid construct drift over time (Suddaby, 2010); construct drift occurs when the original and intended meaning of the construct is lost and what remains are different constructs that carry the same name.

An example is location crafting, which indicates that the individual has the choice to work at different locations and is supported by organizational systems to do so. Although the individual decides what is best for him/her on a given day, it is unlikely that the employee made this change to the job proactively by him/herself. Similarly, the definition of work-life balance crafting is difficult to fit into the above characteristics of job crafting because some of the crafting behaviors described already occur before doing a job, such as choosing a job (Kossek et al., 2016). Finally, "new business ideas crafting" appears to be more related to the generation of innovative ideas, which is a crucial corporate entrepreneurship mechanism (Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009), rather than job crafting.

Another aspect that appears to contrast with job crafting theory concerns self-employed workers: because job crafting “occurs in the context of employees’ prescribed jobs, which are marked by prescribed tasks, expectations, and positions in the organizational hierarchy” (Berg et al., 2010b, p. 159), these workers are not often studied in the job crafting literature. However, qualitative studies have proposed job crafting behaviors also for the self-employed, people such as chartered accountants or certified tourist guides (Buonocore et al., 2018; Meged, 2017). In our sample, the self-employed all worked in well-defined contexts characterized by restrictive legislation (e.g., self-employed accountants’ activities were regulated by professional norms that limited their job discretion; certified tourist guides normally possess a specific qualification generally issued by an appropriate authority). Thus, in a broader sense, such types of professional contexts may therefore provide the self-employed with clear guidelines regarding how to behave at work, which may function similar to a job description.

Since alternative forms of work arrangements are increasing (e.g., freelancers, gig workers, crowd workers) (Deloitte, 2018), job crafting researchers may need to redefine and update some of the defining characteristics of job crafting to enable studying those workers with boundaryless, ubiquitous, and digital workplaces (Prus, Nacamulli, & Lazazzara, 2017). Indeed, the adoption of new technologies is already part of emerging job crafting forms (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2017; Sturges, 2012); however, despite the growing interest among HR professionals in new technologies, its role in shaping proactivity at work has not yet been fully explored.

Another recommendation for future research is to better account for the diverse contexts in which job crafting occurs. In the process model, contextual workplace factors appeared to be important in motivating job crafting and deciding about the form of job crafting. As such, they have a different role from the quantitative studies that primarily

examined contextual factors as antecedents of job crafting. Our findings indicate that individuals may be proactively and reactively motivated to craft to satisfy their *needs* for control (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), while the *availability* of control in the work environment (i.e., levels of existing autonomy) may help to determine the form of job crafting.

Related to this point, given that the context plays a role in determining the form of job crafting, it may be necessary to reconsider the way job crafting behaviors are examined. Especially in quantitative research, a continuous stream of new measures for job crafting are published, but none of them clearly accounts for the context in which the measure is expected to fit most effectively (but note the exception of Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012, who adapted the job crafting scale to better fit blue-collar workers). Conversely, to provide a greater in-depth understanding of how context may influence job crafting, qualitative case studies and, in particular, longitudinal case studies could help to examine whether individuals display preferences for different (combinations of) job crafting forms and how the social context may inform these preferences.

Study Limitations

Although our meta-synthesis has made progress in the job crafting literature by elaborating on a process model across a diverse set of studies and contexts, the following limitations should be considered when evaluating the findings. In a meta-synthesis study, the first risk concerns not locating papers relevant to the specific research question addressed, which results in a nonexhaustive inclusion of eligible studies (Aytug, Rothstein, Zhou, & Kern, 2012). In our search strategy, we attempted to include a heterogeneous set of studies. The selected papers included data from more than 900 participants (study range of 8-196 participants), who were either directly interviewed or shared their experiences as part of a focus group and represented a broad range of sectors, countries, and occupations (see

Supplementary Online Material). Moreover, since publication bias is a well-known problem in these types of studies (Kepes et al., 2012), we attempted to avoid this by including unpublished studies in our search.

To collect unpublished studies and to overcome the file-drawer problem, in addition to searching electronic databases, we used other search techniques, such as looking through the reference lists of published studies, citation searches, and contacting research groups known for conducting relevant research on job crafting. Furthermore, we applied a systematic, explicit, and transparent search process to guarantee rigor in the selection and evaluation of articles using relatively objective criteria. We followed Atkins and colleagues' (2008) criteria for evaluating qualitative data to determine whether a paper was relevant for the meta-synthesis, and at least two researchers evaluated each paper. However, all these precautions cannot guarantee full coverage of qualitative job crafting papers.

Another specific issue in locating relevant research for our study was that job crafting as a concept was introduced in the seminal work by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). However, as noted by Tims et al. (2012), other authors had previously asserted that employees may redesign their jobs on their own initiative even without the involvement of management (see for example Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987). Therefore, it follows that using "job crafting" as a keyword mainly resulted in papers published after the term was coined. To overcome this limitation, we used additional keywords (i.e., "individual job redesign" and "proactive behaviors at work") and cross-checked the reference list of identified papers to determine whether other authors had cited qualitative studies that were considered to be examples of job crafting behavior. We then included those that fit our inclusion criteria (i.e., Rafaeli, 1989).

Another inherent limitation of a meta-synthesis is that data from primary studies can be incorrectly extracted or interpreted (Aytug et al., 2012). To correctly extract data, we

applied a set of techniques and procedures (i.e., coding, causal network approach) that guide researchers in synthesizing data and allow an iterative comparison across qualitative data sources (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Moreover, because of the large number of included studies, each identified construct was based on an adequate number of papers. Finally, since the findings are derived from the perceptual assessment of job crafting by participants from primary studies, the risk that the meta-synthesis multiplies any bias in the primary studies through the synthesizing process remains. However, we attempted to mitigate this possibility by coding all data with more than one person and engaging in continuous discussion within our team of trained researchers regarding what was coded in each study and how to ensure sensitivity toward the contextual considerations (Hoon, 2013).

Practical Implications

As evident from our meta-synthesis, job crafting manifests itself in many different activities that can all be grouped under approach crafting, avoidance crafting, and crafting in other domains. Moreover, the results indicated that approach crafting in particular is linked to positive experiences and likely to result in successfully attaining the intended goals of the crafting. It is therefore recommended that this type of job crafting be facilitated among employees. Building on our results, managers can play an active role in motivating individuals to undertake proactive behaviors by promoting initiatives and supporting experimentation (e.g., Lazazzara, Quacquarelli, Ghiringhelli, & Nacamulli, 2015) or assisting them in pursuing their unanswered callings (Berg et al., 2010a). Social support and organizational culture play an important role in the implementation of these practices, which often represent an under-the-radar type of self-training (Lyons, 2008) that is difficult to identify but strongly affects organizational outcomes. Organizations can offer more latitude at both an individual (Lyons, 2008) and collective (Mattarelli & Tagliaventi, 2015) level,

also seeking out appropriate and innovative solutions with employees (Van Wingerden et al., 2013).

At the same time, employees could be made aware of the potential negative results of approach and avoidance crafting: even though these behaviors allow one to move toward desired states or reduce perceptions of employees' strain (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Rafaeli, 1989), both may generate unintended consequences (e.g., work intensification, stress, turnover), rendering it necessary for managers to play the role of coach in this process (Lazazzara et al., 2015) to direct these proactive behaviors in the right way. Several intervention studies have described how job crafting can also be stimulated among employees and guided in such a way that individuals are most likely to reap positive outcomes (Gordon et al., 2015; Van Wingerden et al., 2013).

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Numbers in superscript indicate studies included in the meta-synthesis.

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Figure 1. The Job crafting process model.

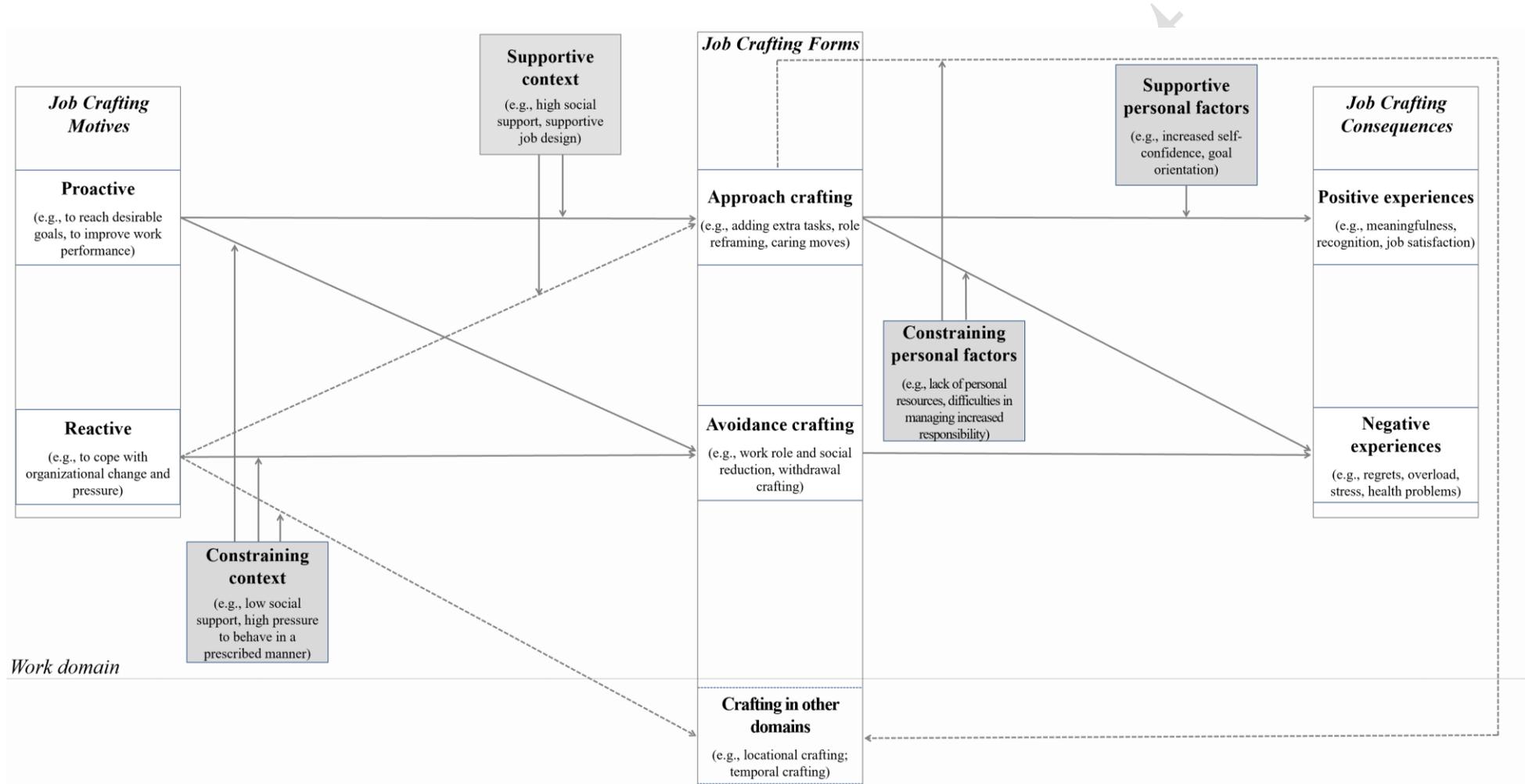


Table 1. Job crafting conceptualizations.

First-order Categories	Second-Order Themes	Aggregate Dimensions
<p>Adding extra tasks (3; 5; 7; 16; 18; 21); altering the scope or nature of tasks (2; 3; 6; 7; 15; 17); developing skills and abilities (3; 5; 9; 14; 16); developing oneself professionally (20; 24); caring moves (responding to requests, practising care) (7; 12); work role expansion (4; 14; 17); task emphasizing (2; 6; 20); work organization (4; 6; 21); job expanding (2; 12; 15); (technology) adoption (4; 9; 13; 22); altering the form of activities (2; 4; 12); altering the number of activities (3; 4; 5; 8; 12; 22); specialization (10); additional responsibilities (2; 4; 5; 9; 10; 12; 15; 20; 21; 24); collaborative crafting (8; 13; 15; 19); prioritizing tasks (4; 6; 9; 11; 12; 21; 22; 23); creating innovative practices (9; 12; 13; 17; 23); recognition of job expanding ideas (2; 12; 15); recognition of new business ideas (15); (collective) refinement of job expanding ideas crafting (2; 12; 15); (collective) refinement of new business ideas crafting (15); organizational crafting (3; 11; 13; 14; 24); redesigning tasks (6; 8; 13); simplifying (21); influencing work content (1; 2; 4; 8; 23; 24); increasing structural support resources (16; 23).</p>	<p>Approach Task Crafting</p>	<p>Approach crafting</p>
<p>Actively changing relationships with others at work (3; 4; 9; 11; 18); creating additional relationships (1; 5; 17; 18); social expansion (4); building personal relationships (9; 10; 14; 16; 20); creating a network (5; 8; 16; 21); tailoring relationships (1); altering the extent or nature of relationships (3; 4); altering the quality of interaction (12); looking for support from supervisor (2; 9; 13; 14; 15; 22; 23); Quid pro Quo (12); emotional support (12; 13); instrumental support (12); searching for information (21); adding in-role tasks (6; 21); increasing social support resources (1; 6; 15; 18; 19; 23); persuading others to take over tasks or coordination of projects (17; 19); capturing reaction (8; 19); engaging customers (19; 21).</p>	<p>Approach Relational Crafting</p>	
<p>Cognitively emphasizing the positive qualities of work (10; 18; 20; 22; 24); role reframing (1; 2; 3; 7; 10); stakeholder prioritization (12; 13); construction of fairness (12); metacognition (4; 12); redefining perceptions of the type or nature of tasks or relationships involved in one's job (2; 3; 4; 6; 7; 10; 12); reframing perception of a job as a meaningful whole that positively impacts others rather than a collection of separate tasks (2; 3; 5; 7; 9; 10; 17); cognitive shift (9; 11; 12); foreseeing positive outcomes (1; 2; 4; 5; 7; 12; 15; 23); envisaging the underlying challenges positively (3; 12; 21; 24); reflecting on the opportunities (6; 7; 8; 14; 21); aligning expectation (1; 3; 9; 12; 21); seeing the impact of the job on other people's lives (18); making one's work emotionally less intense (20).</p>	<p>Approach Cognitive Crafting</p>	

Table 1 (continued).

Reducing the number of tasks, responsibilities, requirements, and effort expenditures (4; 5; 8; 12; 20; 21; 22); reducing the scope of the task (1; 4; 7; 12); work role reduction (4); rule-bound interpretation (12); reducing workload (5; 8; 20; 22); delegation (4; 8; 12; 21); adaptation of availability schedules (12; 14); saying “no” (11); reducing non-critical tasks (5; 21); reducing non-routine tasks (21); decreasing hindering job duties (4; 23); avoiding risky situations/cases (20).	Avoidance Task Crafting	Avoidance crafting
Social reduction (4; 8; 16; 22); to cut down meetings and time devoted to socializing with colleagues (5; 22); reducing relationships and interaction (5; 8; 19; 20; 22); ignoring a customer (19); rejecting (19).	Avoidance Relational Crafting	
Withdrawal crafting (4); passive cognitive job crafting at the individual and team level (2; 4; 23; 24); acceptance of negative things (4; 11; 23); creating distance (4); offloading of responsibility for incidents or critical situations onto colleagues (20; 22).	Avoidance Cognitive Crafting	
Locational crafting (22; 23); temporal crafting (22; 23); prioritizing work (6; 11; 12; 21; 22; 23); reducing travelling time (22; 23); defining work-life balance (8; 9; 12; 16; 18; 22); choosing a job (12; 22); investing more time and effort in relationships with family and friends (2; 9; 22); making compromises (12; 22); managing work and out-of work relationships (22); meeting colleagues during free time (18).	Work-life Crafting	Crafting in other domains
Vicarious experiencing (2); hobby participating (2); sport (11; 14).	Leisure Crafting	

Note: Numbers in brackets indicate from which studies the categories are derived (see Reference list).

Table 2. Job crafting process variables.

First-order categories	Second-Order themes	Aggregate Dimensions
Additional callings (1; 2; 20); to improve self-image (1; 14; 21); to increase meaningfulness (1; 3; 5; 7; 12; 15; 16; 17; 18; 24); to improve person-job fit (23); to create a positive occupational identity (2; 7; 10); to rethink the role (9); pro-social motivation (1; 2).	Individual goals with a proactive intention	Motives
To obtain control over the job (1; 5; 9; 12; 18; 19; 20); adapting part-time job (8); improving performance (14; 17; 19); to better connect with customers (14; 15; 19); to gain knowledge (4; 13; 14; 15; 20; 21; 24); work-life balance (8; 9; 16; 18; 22); career aspiration (1; 21); saving time (19; 22; 23).	Job-related goals with a proactive intention	
Coping with hardship (5; 8; 16; 24); reducing conflict (3; 4; 12; 22); coping with extremely high competition (5; 16); coping with re-organization threats (4; 15; 20; 24).	Reactivity to structural adversity	
Coping with shaming (dirty job) (7; 19); hindrances to experiencing authenticity (11; 24); compensating for missed callings (2); lack of resources (21); managing multiple demands and requests (2; 12; 21); work overload and pressure (5; 9; 19; 20; 21; 22); time pressure (5; 19; 20; 22).	Reactivity to job-related adversity	
High social support (1; 6; 15; 18; 19; 23); openness (1; 13; 15; 18; 19); proactivity-oriented organizational culture (1; 13; 14; 18; 19); shared organizational identity (1; 11; 13; 18; 19); HR practices (e.g., training, coaching, rewarding) (9; 13; 14); collaboration (1; 8; 9; 11; 13; 19).	Supportive climate	Context
Weak situation (2; 11; 12; 23); high autonomy and discretion (1; 2; 5; 9; 11; 12; 16; 18; 22); rank (2; 9; 11; 12; 15; 16; 22; 23); crafting opportunities (3; 6; 7; 8; 14; 15); high flexibility (2; 8; 11; 12; 15; 22; 23).	Supportive job design	
Low social support (1; 15; 18; 19; 23); low collaboration (1; 8; 13; 19); weak informal network (5; 19); lack of managerial feedback (1; 4; 7; 9; 13; 19; 20).	Constraining climate	
Strong situation (3; 7; 19); lack of power (3; 8; 16; 19); lack of autonomy (5; 9; 18; 20); workload (5; 8; 20; 22); lack of crafting opportunities (2; 3; 6; 7; 11; 14); low flexibility (2; 11; 12; 22; 23); physical layout (4; 5; 19).	Constraining job design	

Table 2 (continued).

<p>Personality traits or personal characteristics (e.g., prosocial orientation; empathy; goal orientation; resilience) (1; 5; 6; 12; 14; 16; 17; 21; 22; 23); choice of realistic and feasible goals to be reached via job crafting (2; 12; 13; 16; 22); being able to influence others (1; 7; 11; 13; 15; 19; 21; 23); increased self-confidence (1; 5; 7; 9; 10; 15; 23; 24).</p>	<p>Supportive personal factors</p>	<p>Personal factors</p>
<p>Lack of personal resources (e.g., time, energy, ability) (2; 3; 8; 12; 16; 23); choice of too idealistic or not feasible objectives to be reached via job crafting (11; 12; 16; 23); lack of self-confidence (3; 8; 12; 16; 23); not being able to overcome resistance from others (6; 7; 8; 14; 21; 23); difficulties in managing overload or increased responsibility following JC attempts (2; 5; 12).</p>	<p>Constraining personal factors</p>	
<p>Meaningfulness (1; 3; 5; 7; 12; 15; 16; 17; 18; 24); esteem-enhanced occupational identity (2; 5; 7; 10; 12; 16); well-being (8; 13; 14; 15; 18; 22); new markets and ideas (6; 15; 16); better performance (14; 15; 17; 19; 24); better relationships (1; 9; 14; 17; 18; 21; 22); enjoyment (1; 2; 9; 16); recognition (1; 6; 8; 14; 21); sense of control (1; 5; 9; 12; 19); work-life balance (8; 9; 12; 16; 18; 22); satisfaction (1; 5; 7; 9; 12; 13; 16; 17; 21); engagement (5; 22).</p>	<p>Positive experiences</p>	<p>Consequences</p>
<p>Career marginalization (1; 8; 13); work intensification (1; 8); regret (3; 4; 22); strain (3; 4; 19; 22); sleep problems (12; 16); health issues (9; 12; 16); stress (2; 3; 4; 16; 22; 23); physical injuries (12; 16; 19); conflict at home (3; 4; 22); lower interaction (1; 4; 8; 13; 22); turnover (4; 13; 19); work withdrawal (4); low customer satisfaction (19).</p>	<p>Negative experiences</p>	

Note: Numbers in brackets indicate from which studies the categories are derived (see Reference list).

Table 3. Job crafting process variables and their codes for each study.

Paper	Motives	Context	Job crafting forms	Personal factors	Consequences
1. Batova (2018)	Proactive Reactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences Negative experiences
2. Berg, Grant and Johnson (2010)	Proactive Reactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Crafting in other domains Absence of crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences Crafting in other domains
3. Berg, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2010)	Proactive	Constraining	Approach crafting Crafting in other domains	Constraining	Crafting in other domains
4. Bruning and Campion (2018)	Proactive Reactive		Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	N/A	Positive experiences Negative experiences
5. Buonocore, de Gennaro, Russo and Salvatore (2018)	Proactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences
6. Cohen (2013)	Proactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Absence of crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
7. Fuller and Unwin (2017)	Reactive	Constraining	Approach crafting Absence of crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
8. Gascoigne and Kelliher (2018)	Proactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	Constraining	Negative experiences
9. Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2017)	Proactive	Supportive	Approach crafting Crafting in other domains	Supportive	Positive experiences Crafting in other domains
10. Janssen, Wallenburg and de Bont (2016)	Proactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
11. Kira, Balkin and San (2012)	Reactive	Supportive	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting Crafting in other domains	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Crafting in other domains

Table 3 (continued).

12. Kossek, Piszczek, McAlpine, Hammer and Burke (2016)	Reactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences
13. Lazazzara, Quacquarelli, Ghiringhelli and Nacamulli (2015)	Proactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
14. Lyons (2008)	Proactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Absence of crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
15. Mattarelli and Tagliaventi (2015)	Reactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
16. Meged (2017)	Proactive Reactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences
17. Murray (2014)	Proactive Reactive		Approach crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences
18. Piekkari (2015)	Proactive	Constraining	Approach crafting	N/A	Positive experiences
19. Rafaeli (1989)	Proactive Reactive	Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences Negative experiences
20. Singh and Singh (2016)	Proactive Reactive	Supportive	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	N/A	Positive experiences
21. Sturges (2012)	Proactive	Supportive Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting Crafting in other domains	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences Crafting in other domains
22. Renkema, Broekhuis, Ahaus and Tims (2018)	Reactive	Constraining	Approach crafting Avoidance crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences
23. van Wingerden, Derks, Bakker and Dorenbosch (2013)	Proactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive Constraining	Positive experiences Negative experiences
24. Vuori, San and Kira (2012)	Proactive	Supportive	Approach crafting	Supportive	Positive experiences