

TC  
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI  
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

**JOB CRAFTING: ITS ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES**

Master Thesis

ERSİN ERDAL

İstanbul, 2021

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Thesis Advisor: PROF. DR. TÜLAY TURGUT

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank my thesis advisor Prof. Dr. Tülay Turgut who believed and offered me a lot of support in this process for her valuable advice and supervision. I would also like to thank the faculty members of Marmara University Organizational Behavior department for their contribution to my master education. You provided me an excellent master's education.

I would like to thank to Prof. Dr. Burcu Kümbül Güler for giving me an idea about this study subject and her contribution in my Bachelor education.

I would like to thank my lovely family so much for their huge supports and love during all my life.

And I would like to thank everyone who supported me and believed in me.

## ÖZ

Bu çalışmanın amacı çift yetenekli liderlik, öğrenen örgüt kültürü, iş şekillendirme, çalışmaya tutkunluk ve iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. İş şekillendirme üzerinde örgütsel düzeyde etkisi olan değişkenler ve iş şekillendirmenin bireysel sonuçları araştırılmıştır.

Görülebildiği kadarıyla çift yetenekli liderlik ve öğrenen örgüt kültürünün iş şekillendirme ile birlikte ele alındığı çalışmalara pek rastlanmamıştır. Fakat iş şekillendirmenin çalışmaya tutkunluk ve iyi oluş ile ilişkisini inceleyen çalışmalar mevcuttur.

Bu araştırmanın verisi, Türkiye’de çalışmakta olan 253 kişiden elde edilmiştir. Yürütülen istatistiksel analizler göstermiştir ki, çift yetenekli liderlik ve öğrenen örgüt kültürünün iş şekillendirme ile arasında güçlü ve pozitif bir ilişki vardır. Bununla beraber iş şekillendirmenin de çalışmaya tutkunluk ve iyi oluş ile pozitif yönde güçlü bir ilişkisi vardır. Çift yetenekli liderliğin iki alt boyutu da iş şekillendirmeyi etkilemektedir. Öğrenen örgüt kültürünün ise diyalog ve katılımcı karar verme boyutları iş şekillendirmeyi etkilemektedir. İş şekillendirmenin tüm alt boyutları (görev şekillendirme, ilişki şekillendirme, bilişsel şekillendirme) çalışmaya tutkunluk ve iyi oluşu etkilemektedir. Ayrıca sınırlı sayıda demografik değişkenler arasında da anlamlı farklar görülmüştür.

Son kısımda çalışmanın tüm sonuç ve sınırlılıkları ele alınıp tartışılarak işletmelere ve gelecek çalışmalara yönelik öneriler sunulmuştur.

**Anahtar Sözcükler:** Çift Yetenekli Liderlik, Öğrenen Örgüt Kültürü, İş Şekillendirme, Çalışmaya Tutkunluk, İyi Oluş

## ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the relationships between ambidextrous leadership, learning organization culture, job crafting work engagement, and well-being. Organizational level variables that have an impact on job crafting and individual results of job crafting were evaluated.

As far as it can be seen, there are not many studies where ambidextrous leadership and learning organizational culture are handled together with job crafting. However, there are studies examining the relationship between job crafting, work engagement and well-being.

Data were collected from 253 white-collar employees in Turkey. The statistical analysis showed that there is a strong and positive relationship between ambidextrous leadership, learning organizational culture and job crafting. On the other hand, job crafting also has a strong positive relationship with work engagement and well-being. Two sub-dimensions of ambidextrous leadership also have contribution on job crafting. Dialogue and participative decision-making dimensions of the learning organization culture have contribution on job crafting. All sub-dimensions of job crafting (task crafting, relational crafting, cognitive crafting) have contribution on work engagement and well-being. In addition, significant differences were observed between a limited number of demographic variables.

The results and limitations of the study were discussed. It was made suggestions for organizations and future studies in the last part of the study.

**Key Words:** Ambidextrous Leadership, Learning Organization Culture, Job Crafting, Work Engagement, Well-Being

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## INTRODUCTION

Not only financial performance indicators that provide companies with sustainable competitive advantage, but also individual performance outputs are an important factor. Organizations' ability to gain competitive advantage in quickly evolving market conditions is dependent on their employees' motivation, skills, and performance. Recently, the importance of job design theories has been understood and the necessity of employees to design their jobs in a way that fits them has emerged. Job design concepts have generally focused on managers' designing employees' jobs instead of employees' designing their own jobs (Campion & McClelland, 1993; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). With the rise of the positive psychology trend, the happiness and well-being of the employees has become more important. Thus, the practices in which the employee is at the center have gained importance. The concept of job crafting, one of the most important concepts of recent years, has been discussed in this study, along with its antecedents and consequences.

The concept of job crafting has not been studied much in our country. Besides, in the literature, job crafting generally has been studied with a limited number of variables such as performance, work engagement, and job satisfaction. These variables are expressed as indicators of happiness in work life. Therefore, it can be said that the indicators of well-being in work life are generally studied as the results of job crafting. The literature also shows us that job crafting is an attempt to balance job demands and resources. The ability to establish this balance affects employees' well-being positively in work life.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between some organizational variables that enable us to establish this balance. In this study, concepts related to organizational culture and leadership, specifically learning organization culture and ambidextrous leadership are examined as the antecedents of job crafting. As well, work engagement and well-being are examined as the consequences of job crafting. What is intended to be shown in this study is the effect of organizational mechanisms on the well-being of individuals in their work and lives. In this way, it is aimed to obtain information that will provide a sustainable competitive advantage to companies within

the framework of job crafting will be presented. Thus, it will benefit companies to adopt a different approach in providing sustainable competitive advantage by showing companies the importance of individual performance outputs in economic indicators from a different perspective.



## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY**

### **Ambidextrous Leadership**

#### **The Term Ambidexterity**

Ambidexterity is a definition used by organizational researchers to define an organization's ability to handle conflicting task conditions to sustain the viability of its activities in the short and long term (Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008). It is about the balance between discovering and manipulating discovered strategies. That is, the ability to discover and process the discovered action equally (Benner & Tushman, 2003; Rosing et al., 2011).

#### **Ambidextrous Organizations**

The task of balancing both exploration and exploitation is continually faced by organizations. One of the principles is called ambidexterity, which explores the desire to find the correct equilibrium. In an organizational context, Duncan (1976) proposed the approach of ambidexterity as one of the first authors. Ambidextrous organizations have been admired as successful in the management literature. Since these organizations are capable of meeting the efficiencies demanded by short-term activities and at the same time being ready to react efficiently to environmental developments in an attempt to ensure long-term efficiency (Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008). In this sense, March (1991) notes that a company's successful exploitation of its existing expertise and to explore new possibilities is at the heart of organizational learning (Bonesso et al., 2014) As a result, the idea of ambidexterity explains the need for concurrent involvement in exploratory and exploitative practices to ensure the long-term sustainability of the company.

#### **The Definition, Scope, and Importance of Ambidextrous Leadership**

Ambidextrous leadership is seen as an appropriate approach to handling the dynamic and dual-phase of creativity. The initial design of ambidextrous leadership was created by Vera and Crossan (2004) who concluded that there is a need for a combined leadership form as “*at certain times, organizational learning process thrive under transactional leadership and at other times they benefit more from transformational leadership*” (Vera & Crossan, 2004, p. 226). In today’s complex and competitive environment, organizations should be able to cope with difficulties by both explore and

exploit simultaneously. This contingent leadership style responds to organizations' strategic leader needs in order to deal with the pressure that faced. That's why strategic leaders should be ambidextrous. Static leadership styles, like transformational and transactional leadership, are not suited to more dynamic actions such as exploitation and exploration. In order to better understand and answer the need for equally variable leadership, the theory of ambidextrous leadership has been developed. It is the capability of a balance between reactive and proactive behaviors.

The key principle of ambidextrous leadership is that an equally complicated leadership strategy can be combined with the complexity of creative practices. From the perspective of innovation, ambidextrous leadership theory is based on the assumption that leaders positively influence the behaviors of employees to discover and process what they learn (Zacher et al., 2016). Therefore ambidextrous leadership should include "*opening and closing leadership behaviors*". The uniqueness of opening and closing behaviors is based on an approach that focuses on reducing or increasing change in the behavior of followers.

Ambidextrous leadership, which integrates the two styles of behaviors identified by Rosing et al. (2011) as the willingness to encourage followers' "*explorative and exploitative behaviors*."

Opening leadership behaviors are defined as "*leading behaviors that increase variance in follow-up behaviors by encouraging followers to do different things and experimenting, giving followers an area of independent thinking and action, and supporting followers' attempts to challenge the status quo*" (Rosing et al., 2011).

Closing leadership behaviors are identified as "*leading behaviors that minimize deviations in followers by taking corrective steps, setting specific rules, and following goal accomplishment*" (Rosing et al., 2011).

There are examples of explorative and exploitative behaviors within each leadership style but they do not have clarity and usefulness to express ambidextrous leadership alone or in a mixed form (Rosing et al., 2011).

**Table 1: Examples for opening and closing leader behaviors**

Opening Leader Behaviors	Closing Leader Behaviors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Allowing different ways of accomplishing a task</li> <li>• Encouraging experimentation with different ideas</li> <li>• Motivating to take risks</li> <li>• Giving possibilities for independent thinking and acting</li> <li>• Giving room for own ideas</li> <li>• Allowing errors</li> <li>• Encouraging error learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Monitoring and controlling goal attainment</li> <li>• Establishing routines</li> <li>• Taking corrective action</li> <li>• Controlling adherence to rules</li> <li>• Paying attention to uniform task accomplishment</li> <li>• Sanctioning errors</li> <li>• Sticking to plans</li> </ul>

*Source:* Rosing et al., (2011)

### **Consequences of Ambidextrous Leadership**

Researches generally focus on the effect of ambidextrous leadership on innovation, team innovation, entrepreneurial orientation (Luu et al., 2019; Rosing et al., 2011; Zacher & Rosing, 2015). Researchers have suggested that the ambidextrous leadership theory is the complementary of the exploration and exploitation behaviors of innovation to the processes of discovering and processing what has been discovered (Rosing et al., 2011).

Strong innovation climate can make it possible for employees to act innovative (Ren & Zhang, 2015). Researchers found that ambidextrous leadership has a positive relationship with job crafting by the mediating role of entrepreneurial orientation (Luu et al., 2019). In another research that examines the effect of ambidextrous leadership on subordinates' self-initiated work behaviors, ambidextrous leadership and job crafting are positively related (Ma et al., 2019). It seems that the exploration dimension of ambidextrous leadership behavior increases the experiences within the organization by allowing employees to experience new methods and ways of doing business, giving them the freedom to learn from mistakes and encouraging them to discover new things.

## **Learning Organizations**

### **Definition of Learning Organization**

Organizations have a structure that changes and improves and therefore constantly learns. One of the active processes of knowledge is organizational learning, which consists of the composing and acquisition of information, the dissemination and sharing of information, and its application at the same time (Garcia-Morales et al., 2006).

The concept of learning organization was first used by Senge in 1990. According to Senge, people continually expand their capacities to create the results they truly desire in learning organizations, and new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured in there. In learning organizations, collective aspirations are unleashed and people constantly learn to learn together.

The learning organization is seen as an ideal organization type with an active learning capacity and therefore a successful one. Employees in the field of learning organizations generally strive to understand and develop this learning capacity. It is possible to say that those who work in the field of learning organizations have a more practical and realizing agenda (Tsang, 1997). In the definition of Senge (1990), the learning organization is where people discover how they create their own facts and how they can change.

The learning organization is an organization that is aware of the opportunities and threats in its internal and external environment, consists of goal-oriented employees who know their strengths and weaknesses. Also, it is open to innovation and adopts organization-wide learning (Senge, 1990).

Garwin (1993) stated that a learning organization has the ability to create, acquire and transfer information. Braham (1996) defines the learning organization as “*an organization that gives priority to learning*”.

The learning organization is an organization that adapts itself to the environment, learns from mistakes, researches the situations necessary for improvement, and optimizes the contribution of its employees (Wilkinson et al., 2004). One of the main goals of the learning organization is that learning becomes an organizational culture (Tsai, 2014).



Members of the organization consider examples of prior learning or learning failures and attempt to challenge and investigate them while learning to learn. Theories of organizational learning endeavor to explain the methods that cause or prevent alterations in organizational information and the effects of information on organizational outcomes and behaviors (Schulz, 2002). Organizational learning includes a learning process that staffs continuously improve their skills, new and detailed idea patterns, and how to learn based on cooperation (Senge, 1990).

The most important element of the concept of organizational learning is culture, which consists of attitudes and values and directs the actions and behaviors of individuals and forms the organization (Pemberton & Stonehouse, 2000). The learning organization culture should have the following characteristics:

1. Support and reward learning and innovation.
2. Encourage research, dialogue, risk-taking, and experience.
3. Allow the sharing of errors and be seen as an opportunity for learning.
4. Values must be for the benefit of all employees (Gephart et al., 1996).

Therefore, the learning organization has an overall culture and value that promotes learning. In the learning culture, there is an openness to experience, encouraging risk-taking, accepting, and learning from failures.

The term “organizational learning” could be confused with “learning organization”. A learning organization is an organization that learned to learn. While organizational learning emphasizes the process of continually improving and preserving knowledge, the learning organization emphasizes the structural characteristics of an organization capable of learning (Bocanet & El Kassar, 2016). The concepts of organizational learning and learning organization have not been fully and precisely recognized in theory. This situation can lead to a confusion of concepts. Every learning organization performs organizational learning, but not every organization that performs organizational learning is a learning organization. While learning can develop spontaneously as a natural need of the organization, being a learning organization can

only be achieved by supporting this learning with many structural and cultural features and making conscious efforts (Bozfakıoğlu, 2009).

### **Dimensions of Learning Organization**

The concept of learning organization was popularized by Senge in 1990. His five disciplines explaining the characteristics of learning organizations are “*systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, team learning, shared vision.*”

Through these disciplines, businesses will have an infrastructure that encourages continuous learning, adaptation to the environment, and growth in organizations (Estrada, 2009).

System thinking is the discipline of seeing the whole, in which events affect each other in a cycle, not linear. Understanding change processes and interrelationships are at the heart of system thinking. In system thinking, the whole system is responsible for the events that occur, not the people. Senge's approach to organizations is a system approach that sees the organization as a living entity with its own behaviors and learning patterns (Senge, 1990).

Personal mastery refers to individual competence and emerges through lifelong learning activities. It is the element of learning organizations that broadens one's horizons, makes it clear, and deepens it along with the learning process. This competence provides workers to focus their energies, develop patience, and see reality objectively (Senge, 1990).

Our mental models influence our way of thinking, understanding of the world, and our actions as well-established, ingrained, and stereotyped assumptions, generalizations, even pictures, and images. The mental models discipline is a discipline aimed at helping people get rid of these patterns and assumptions (Senge, 2004). Mental models require that people in learning organizations understand their own assumptions about their work and appreciate the assumptions of colleagues (Ananthanarayanan & Gibb, 2002).

Team learning is the capacity of a team's members to think together, leaving their own assumptions. Teams that trust and share with each other act together while achieving

their goals, which gives them speed and makes it easier for them to reach their goals (Senge, 1990).

A team learning discipline starts with dialogue; this is the capacity of members of a team to suspend assumptions and engage in a true act of thinking together. Team learning is important because in modern organizations, the basic unit of learning is not individuals but teams. Organizations cannot learn unless teams learn. Therefore, team learning discipline is based on collective intelligence and solidarity.

Learning organizations should primarily support employees to develop their own visions. Because personal visions must be rich for shared vision to occur. Shared vision is forward-looking and includes the ability to bring out shared values. With the help of shared vision, people can find common topics and even provide the focus and energy needed for learning (Senge, 1990). The responsibility of the leader in providing a shared vision is to share with the colleagues her/his own vision (Hassounah, 2001).

The idea of learning organization is, according to many scholars, an imaginary, utopian and respectful concept at the same time (Garwin, 1993). The core competencies of learning organizations, known as building blocks, according to Garwin (1993), are “*systematic problem solving, experimentation, learning from past experiences, learning from others, transferring knowledge.*”

Systematic problem solving is the first building blocks of learning organizations. For learning, accuracy and precision are extremely important. For this reason, it is essential to use scientific methods in determining the problems, to act from data instead of assumptions while making decisions, and to draw conclusions based on statistical methods in the analysis of the data.

The next step of systematic problem-solving is experimentation. It involves the systematic search and testing of new information. It is a difficult method to apply. Because, unlike problem-solving, the runs must be favourable in trying new approaches. Learning organizations encourages testing, experimenting, and being open to discussing the results of new knowledge.

The third step is learning from past experiences. Companies must analyze their accomplishments and shortcomings, thoroughly review them, and record the lessons in a straightforward and accessible way to employees. The repercussions of errors can also be used for the future. It is particularly important to recognize mistakes in this sense, to know where they occur and to disclose them to the appropriate persons, to learn from experiences.

The fourth step is learning from others. Not all learning is the consequence of thought and self-analysis. The most important perspectives often come from looking beyond one's immediate surroundings to obtain a new viewpoint. Enlightened administrators realize that even corporations in entirely different industries can be rich reservoirs of ideas and catalysts for innovative thought. This building block is about benchmarking. Benchmarking can be done between business departments as well as with other businesses.

The last step is knowledge transfer. Information must be spread quickly and reliably throughout the company, and it must be learned that information is more than a local phenomenon. Ideas have a greater impact if they are spread over larger circles rather than being held in a narrow space. This process is encouraged by a number of methods, including written, oral and visual recordings, site visits and tours, employee rotation programs, curriculum and training programs, and standardization programs. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses.

### **Consequences of Learning Organization**

As far as we know, there is no study examining the relationship between learning organization culture and job crafting concepts. Likewise, there is no study that directly addresses the relationship between the concept of organizational learning and job crafting. However, job crafting relationship has been studied with some components of learning organization or organizational learning concepts. As mentioned before, strong innovation climate (Ren & Zhang, 2015), entrepreneurial orientation (Luu et al., 2019) can also foster job crafting behavior. These components are processes that are already included in the characteristics of learning organizations. Knowledge sharing comprises information exchange and contribution of ideas relevant to the task (Edwards et al., 2017), and impacts

organizational innovation (Kim & Lee, 2013). This is because, in order to complete innovative tasks, employees must continually benefit from the knowledge, skills and work experience available in the organization. Therefore, leaders should encourage the practice of knowledge sharing within employees, groups and the organization in order to generate new ideas and thoughts useful for organizational development (Tuan, 2019; Liao et al., 2018).

Job crafting is characterized by the search for new job opportunities and the reduction of job demands which hinders organizational growth (Petrou et al., 2015). In their study Supriyanto and colleagues (2020) found positive relationship between increased knowledge sharing and job crafting. In Tuan's study (2019), knowledge sharing has a mediating effect on human resources flexibility and job crafting relationship. On the other hand, employees' perceived opportunities for craft can be predicted by job resources such as autonomy and feedback. Employees who see professional development opportunities in their workplace will wish to take advantage of them by applying newly acquired skills and experience proactively inside their role to better their work condition or person-job fit and to learn. When organizations provide resources for professional development to their workers, they create the perception that learning is necessary and enabled in the workplace, which encourages them to learn on the job (Van Wingerden & Niks, 2017). The study of Van Wingerden and Niks (2017) showed the positive relationship between perceived opportunities to craft and job crafting behavior. It can be seen that characteristics of learning organizations create space for job crafting behavior by providing the resources that employees need. A work environment where employees can realize their talents, act innovatively, have autonomy, and share their experiences and knowledge can be provided with a learning organizational culture. And these components lay the groundwork for revealing the crafting behavior.

### **Job Crafting**

Wrzesniewski and Dutton are the first scientists who expressed the term of job crafting. They identified job crafting as “*the actions employees take to shape, mold, and redefine their jobs*”. Job crafters are “*people who actively design both what their job is physical, by modifying job boundaries, what their job is cognitively, by changing the way*

*they learn about the relationship between job tasks, and what their job is relational, by changing the experiences and connections they have with those at work”* (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This action allows employees to respond to the characteristics of the job, as well as allows employees to shape the characteristics of the work for themselves and develops provisions in accordance with these features (Kirkendall, 2013). Job crafting behavior is an innovative and improvised process that allows people to shape the form of the work in accordance with their initiative. As a result of the process, the new job is may be better or worse than the old one in terms of the organization varies according to the state of the organization (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). It can be understood that this process is independent of traditional job design processes.

The motivation for job crafting derives from three human needs. First, workers participate in job crafting to exert more influence on their jobs in order to prevent alienation from work (Braverman, 1974). Second, workers are motivated to build a better self-image in their jobs. Third, job crafting encourages workers to satisfy the fundamental human desire to be connected to others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In the job crafting model proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), they found that employees think about their jobs and do their jobs in different ways in order to find their own experience of meaningfulness in their work. The design of employees' jobs can shape the way they experience the meaning of their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Grant, 2007). Job crafting is a term that specifically focuses on redesigning the job by employees (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In job crafting, employees individually alter aspects of their work in order to enhance the fitness between job characteristics and their own desires, abilities and interests (Berg et al., 2008).

In another definition, it is expressed as displaying a proactive behavior in order to eliminate the mental, emotional, cognitive, temporal, relational and physical barriers that the employee puts on the job (Rastogi & Chaudhary, 2018).

According to Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) *“it is an informal mechanism that staff use to shape their job activity in such a way that it aligns with their idiosyncratic preferences and beliefs”*. In this way, job crafting is *“a type of proactive behavior motivated by workers rather than by management”* (Grant & Ashford, 2008). In this way,

a job crafter can try to improve the harmony between the characteristics of the job and his own needs, abilities and preferences, as well as organizing new and different tasks in order to get rid of the monotony of the work he has done (Berg et al., 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Lyons (2008) defined job crafting as changes in a business field that cannot be controlled by itself. These changes are changes that individuals make spontaneously to satisfy themselves, personal needs, and changes that are not necessary for the organization. Job crafting is changes in jobs and tasks that are largely hidden from management and where management does not participate in the decision-making process. These changes may or may not comply with the operating order desired by the management (Lyons, 2008). Job crafting can emerge as a short-term solution in difficult times and does not have to be in line with the goals of the organization (Tims & Bakker, 2010).

### **Approaches to Job Crafting**

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) stated in their first article, which brought the concept of "job crafting" to the literature. Job crafting is a way of thinking about job design that places workers "in the driver's seat" in cultivating meaning in their jobs. Job crafters may use three types of job crafting strategies to proactively reshape the boundaries of their jobs: "*task, relational, and cognitive crafting*" (Berg et al., 2013).

Task crafting includes efforts to change the rate and time of effort made in their roles at work. Employees of this type of crafting shape job-related tasks by assuming fewer or more tasks, changing the scope of their duties, and changing the tools they use to achieve the desired success (Berg et al., 2008; Niessen et al., 2016). For example, a tech-savvy customer service representative suggesting to assist her coworkers with their IT problems (Berg et al., 2013).

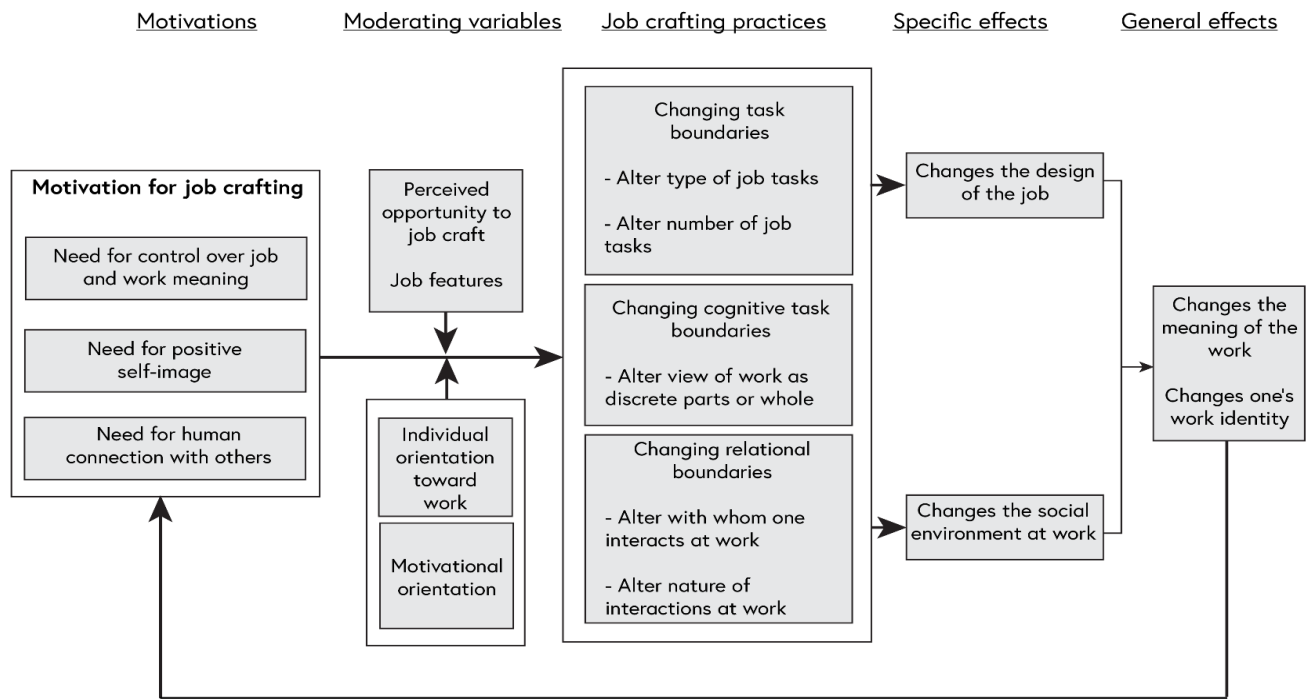
The second dimension, relational crafting, is changing the quality and / or amount of communication that a person has with other employees in his job. While the person prefers to communicate more with the people he/she thinks can communicate well, it is explained as to reduce his/her communication with other people or avoiding

communicating with them (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). In this sub-dimension of crafting, the staff manages the behaviors of establishing, maintaining, changing and ending relationships with other employees in the work environment (Miller, 2015). This crafting dimension describes the attitude of the staff to interact with the members of the organization in the work environment (for example, in the work environment, the person establishes a relationship with another staff member of his own interest and equipment) (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick 2013). For example, a software engineer forming a collaborative relationship with a marketing analyst (Berg et al., 2013). As a matter of fact, studies show that especially high-quality relationships that individuals trust each other and see positive have positive outcomes such as job commitment and positive job attitudes (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

Finally, cognitive crafting is the regulation that covers both tasks and relationships in a way that encompasses the other two dimensions (Niessen et al., 2016). Unlike task and relational crafting, cognitive crafting does not involve a physical change or shaping (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Cognitive crafting is a mental activity that is related to how a person sees her/his job, contributes to her/his work life and makes her/his work and herself/himself valuable (Berg et al., 2013). It is among the foundations of cognitive crafting to be aware of the purpose of working, the importance of the work done for the institution and for different environments outside the institution, to think that his/her work affects his/her life positively, and to feel that his/her duties and responsibilities have a deeper meaning than it seems. Cognitive crafting refers to the mental shaping made by a person regarding whether he/she sees himself/herself as a part of the work or as a whole with it (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). For example, a ticket salesperson who sees his or her job as an important part of providing people with entertainment rather than simply processing orders.



## A Model of Job Crafting



**Source:** Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of management review*, 26(2), 179-201.

In this model, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) schematized the job crafting model with the motivators, moderating variables, practices, and effects of it. Job crafting occurs when the employee re-determines the purpose of the job and changes job duties and relationships in a way to experience his job differently. The psychological meaning of work occurs when people feel valued and appreciated at work. Therefore, any action that employees take in their work in line with their goals will likely change the meaning of the job.

The other common approach to job crafting is based on Job Demands-Resources Model. Tims et al. (2012) handled job crafting in a four-dimensional structure and its dimensions are “*increasing social job resources, increasing structural job resources, increasing challenging job demands, and decreasing hindering job demands*”.

The dimension of increasing social job resources is related to the social components of the job. It aims to increase social job resources by seeking feedback, advice or support from managers or colleagues (Eguchi et al., 2016; Tims et al., 2012). Asking for feedback from her/his supervisor about her/his performance or seeking support from her/his colleagues about her/his job are examples of increasing social job resources (Tims et al., 2012).

As the Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) supports, a person only responds to the demands placed on her/his as long as she/he has enough resources. Increasing structural job resources means protecting and increasing job resources through personal development, learning and development, skill diversity in order to succeed in what is required. In addition, the individual can increase his/her structural resources by increasing his/her autonomy in his/her job or by enriching the variety of skills he/she uses, thus making various changes to the features suggested in the job characteristics theory (Tims et al., 2012).

Increasing the challenging job demands is being involved in different projects or wanting to take on more duties and responsibilities due to its positive effects (Berdicchia et al., 2016). The employee thus finds the job more motivating (Tims et al., 2012). In studies conducted on this subject, it is seen that the employee's taking on additional responsibilities has an effect on his/her enjoyment of the job more, an increase in job satisfaction and less absenteeism (Kass et al., 2001).

Decreasing hindering job demands is the fourth dimension. The employee proactively aims to reduce these demands on the grounds that the job demands given to him are too high in physical, mental and emotional aspects (Tims et al., 2012). When the employee has high job demands and low job resources in the long term, it can cause negative consequences such as burnout (Bakker et al., 2005). The employee is decreasing hindering job demands to overcome this situation.

The other approaches to job crafting are shown below (Table 2). The job crafting concept has been defined differently by different scientists.

**Table 2: Conceptualizations and Measures of Job Crafting**

<b>Citation</b>	<b>Job Crafting Dimensions</b>
Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001	Task Crafting Relational Crafting Cognitive Crafting
Ghitulescu (2006)	Task Crafting Relational Crafting Cognitive Crafting
Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk (2009)	Individual Crafting Collaborative Crafting
Tims & Bakker (2010)	Increasing Job Demands Decreasing Job Demands Increasing Job Resources
Berg, Grant, & Johnson (2010)	Job Crafting Leisure Crafting
Volman (2011)	Task Crafting Relational Crafting
Tims, Bakker, & Derks (2012)	Increasing Structural Job Resources Increasing Social Job Resources Increasing Challenging Job Demands Decreasing Hindering Job Demands
Nielsen & Abildgaard (2012)	Increasing challenging job demands Decreasing social job demands Increasing social job resources Increasing quantitative job demands Decreasing hindering job demands
Petrou et al. (2012)	Seeking Resources Seeking Challenges Reducing Demands
Slemp & Vella-Brodrick (2013)	Task Crafting Relational Crafting Cognitive Crafting
Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova (2016)	Task Crafting Relational Crafting Cognitive Crafting
Lichtenthaler & Fischbach (2016)	Promotion-Focused Job Crafting Prevention-Focused Job Crafting

**Source:** Rudolph, C. W., Katz, I. M., Lavigne, K. N. & Zacher, H. (2017). Job crafting: A meta-analysis of relationships with individual differences, job characteristics, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 102, s.115

In this study, job crafting is handled with the framework of the model of Wrzesniewski and Dutton. The perspective of this study is observing job crafting based on the meaning of work. It can be said that, job crafting is the proactive behavior of employees for finding the meaning in their work. *“Increasing social job resources, increasing structural job resources, increasing challenging job demands, and decreasing hindering job demands”* may be the techniques while crafting a job, but the process will be end with the *“task, relational and cognitive crafting”*. At the end of the process, employees would have crafted their tasks, relations, and cognitions about work via these techniques. In short, job crafting is designing the job by the employee to fulfill job demands. In this way, the employee finds meaning in the job and fits with job.

### **Antecedents and Consequences of Job Crafting**

When we look at the literature, we can see the variables examined at the individual and organizational level as the antecedents of the job crafting concept. Self-efficacy, cognitive ability, readiness for change, competence, being experienced, proactive personality, autonomy are among the antecedents associated with job crafting. Tims and Bakker (2010) showed the positive relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. In another study investigating the antecedents of job crafting, it was confirmed by experimental research findings that job crafting behavior may appear more in employees with higher cognitive ability, ability to control, self-image and readiness for change (Lyons, 2008). In a study, it was concluded that employees who are satisfied with their own performance and trust their skills and competencies are more prone to behave as a crafter (Clegg & Spencer, 2007). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) concluded that being experienced at work facilitates crafting behavior. Also, they noticed that providing the employee with the opportunity to decide what and how to do the job is one of the prerequisites for job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In addition, some studies reveal that proactive people exhibit more innovative behaviors in their work (Seibert et al., 2001). Moreover, as previously mentioned, innovation climate (Ren & Zhang, 2015), human resources flexibility (Tuan, 2019) and opportunities to craft (Van Wingerden & Niks, 2017) are among at the organizational level antecedents of job crafting.

In many studies on job crafting, it is seen that variables such as job satisfaction, work engagement, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, emotional

commitment, and well-being as individual work outputs have results that will contribute positively to both the employee and the organization. Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012) stated that employees who show job crafting behavior have higher work engagement. Applications that change the meaning of their work, innovations or small touches allow the employee to develop positive feelings against a monotonous job. While the main task of an employee is not affected by these changes, it enables the employees to make their work more interesting and meaningful, and this ensures work engagement (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The relationship between job crafting and job performance has been revealed in different studies. According to Tims et al. (2015), a positive relationship is observed between job crafting and job performance because employees can perform better when they make changes in their jobs. In a different study, Berg, Dutton, and Wrzesniewski (2008) stated that job crafting leads to positive individual results such as increase in personal development, skills, and coping with possible future problems. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) stated that people who show job crafting behavior will have higher job satisfaction. Other studies also confirm this claim. In a study examining the relationship between job satisfaction and job crafting, it has been shown that the dimensions of job crafting (increase structural job resources and social job resources) have a positive effect on job satisfaction of employees (Tims et al., 2013).

### **Work Engagement**

The primary explanation for the increased popularity of work engagement is that organizations are conscious of the "positive psychology" phenomenon. Organizations not only address the negative consequences of workers, but they also provide them with positive gains. The idea of work engagement has been evolving and seen as a supportive psychological state of mind in relation to work roles/activities over recent decades and has seen positive organizational processes in the organizations, thus being an important research area in the field of Positive Organizational Behavior (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

The term of work engagement is the end point of engagement concepts today. First, the concept of engagement is defined by Kahn (1990) as personal engagement in order to determine the situations in which employees are connected to work and leave. In

his description, “*employees who are engaged are fully physically, cognitively, and emotionally connected to their jobs*”. Meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability (i.e. people's confidence in spending adequate energy at a given time) were discussed to contribute to engagement, and the arguments are that the more people experience these three dynamics, the more engaged they remain (Kahn, 1990, 1992).

After Kahn (1990, 1992), researchers dismissed this field of study until the number of burnout studies increased. Researchers came up with the concept that there could be a constructive pole at the opposite end of the Burnout Pole, and as a reaction to that idea, they described engagement (Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Next, the focal point for work engagement is the idea of burnout, which is considered to be conceptually opposite. In comparison to people with burnout, workers may be more energetic and productive in work-oriented tasks. The belief that they have the capacity to deal with their demands is reflected as a perception of loyalty (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Since work engagement and burnout are seen as opposites, work engagement has long been measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Energy, involvement, and efficacy were discussed and were treated as the exact opposites of burnout aspects that are exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Other researchers Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002), who explain engagement with the concept of burnout, admit that there is a negative and strong relationship between burnout and engagement, but argue that it should be measured independently. Because, it does not mean that a person who does not experience burnout is always absolutely engaged with work, and a person who is engaged with work will not experience burnout in any case. (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). To assess work engagement, researchers developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

On the other hand, in the description of Macey et al. (2011), it is the focused energy which is directed toward goals of organization. Therefore, engaged people are likely to work harder and show more effort. There are other concepts of engagement

created by other scholars. Roberts and Davenport (2002) describe it as an individual's motivation and satisfaction with work. Saks (2006) looked at the context and consequences of engagement and, as Kahn did, outlined the definition with three components (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral).

Work engagement is seen as a topic that has drawn the interest of scholars in recent years. Although the aspects of work engagement are still under debate, the distinctions made by Schaufeli and his colleagues are the most generally known. In spite of several definitions of work engagement, the most often used definition was proposed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) as “*a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption*”. Work engagement refers to the motivational mental situation that people feel when they are fully absorbed in their work to the point that time appears to be slipping away (Bakker et al., 2008). Work engagement stands for a feeling of enthusiastic and successful interaction with work activities and a perception of being capable of deal with the demands of working (Taris et al., 2010). Work engagement is often characterized as a more permanent and affectively cognitive state rather than a momentary, rapid, or more specific state (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Vigor is characterized by “*the high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties*” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). The individual, who feels enormous vigor while working, is motivated by her/his work and continues to do her/his job persistently, even if she/he encounters some difficulties (Turgut, 2011).

Dedication is characterized by “*a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge*” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Individuals dedicated to work think that their work is interesting, challenging, serving a purpose, and meaningful; the work they do inspires them, so they do their job enthusiastically and take pride in their work (Turgut, 2011). This is the spiritual and meaningful component of the concept.

Absorption is characterized by “*being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work*” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 75). The individual gets caught up in her/his work,

does not understand how time passes, and has difficulty in taking a break from working (Turgut, 2011).

For years, debates about the conceptual validity of work engagement have continued. Among the concepts discussed with work engagement are well-established concepts such as workaholism, work commitment, and job satisfaction (Bakker, et al., 2014; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Joseph, et al., 2010; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Workaholics, for example, were differentiated from engaged colleagues by their repetitive and slightly obsessed thoughts about their work (Bakker et al., 2014) and research has shown that there is a non-significant association between work engagement and workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008).

Work engagement and organizational commitment are two different concepts although they are often confused with each other and there is a relationship between them. Organizational commitment is an attitude towards the whole organization rather than the work itself. Generally, it is defined as an identification with the values and purpose of the organization, willingness to strive for the good of the organization, and a desire to continue to be a part of the organization (Roberts & Davenport, 2002, p. 21).

Work engagement is distinct from job satisfaction in that it combines high levels of work enjoyment (dedication) with high levels of activation (vigor, absorption); job satisfaction is typically a more passive form of employee well-being. Work engagement differs from work-related flow in that it corresponds to a longer performance episode, whereas flow usually refers to a one-hour or less peak event. Work engagement varies from motivation in that it also relates to cognition (absorption) and affect (vigor)—in addition to motivation (dedication). It is not surprising, then, that work engagement is a greater indicator of job performance than many of the earlier constructions (Bakker, 2011).

Work engagement is similar to the concept of job involvement because it has a cognitive and psychological side. However, these two concepts are different despite their similarities. While the psychological relationship is observed at the level of “task” while performing daily responsibilities in work engagement, this psychological relationship is



also observed at the level of “role” covering the position or identity assigned to the person in that organization (Shuck et al., 2013).

### **Antecedents of Work Engagement**

When the literature is examined, while examining the work engagement the researchers generally focused on the job resources and personal resources that Bakker and Demerouti (2008) discussed in their model. Job resources include elements such as colleagues and supervisor support (social support), performance feedback, skill diversity, autonomy, learning and development opportunities, job control, innovative organizational climate and organizational justice (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Maslach and Leiter (1997) argued that if reward, control, justice, workload and values are compatible with the person, work engagement will occur, and when these elements are incompatible with the person, burnout syndrome will be experienced (Maslach et al., 2001). When employees think that their organizations take their own needs and feelings into account, they respond by paying more attention to their job-related responsibilities and increasing their level of engagement (Saks, 2006). Employees in a supportive environment feel psychologically safer to be engaged to work, and are not afraid to try new things, discuss and learn from mistakes (Kahn, 1990). These conditions contribute to emerge of person-organization fit. Employees who believe in the existence of this fit find their job meaningful and feel a sense of belonging. As a result, they show a high level of engagement (Rich et al., 2010). If there is a harmony between the values of the person and the organization, the level of engagement increases (Maslach, 2011).

When we look at the studies examining job crafting and work engagement in the literature, it is seen that these two concepts are related. Bakker, Tims and Derks (2012) showed that job crafting and work engagement are positively related. In longitudinal meta-analysis of Frederick and VanderWeele (2020) job crafting is associated with work engagement, but they noticed that hindering job demands is often negatively related with work engagement. When the hindering job demands removed, estimated job crafting effect was slightly larger. And this result also can be seen in the study of Bakker, Tims and Derks (2012). Crafting behavior contributes to the engagement of people by

providing person-job fit. Moreover, in the study of Petrou et al. (2012), daily fluctuations in job crafting and daily fluctuations in work engagement were found related.

### **Well-Being**

For many years, the science of psychology has focused on negative emotions such as depression and anxiety, rather than positive emotions such as happiness and pleasure. However, the positive psychology trend has changed this situation. With the increasing interest in positive psychology study subjects, approaches that attach importance to the strengths and well-being of the individual have started to replace the problem-oriented approach. Along with the orientation towards positive concepts, people ask "what is the good life?". They started to be interested in the answer to the question. Often, the good life is directly linked to well-being and happiness (Van Dierendonck et al., 2008).

When the scientific source of the concept of well-being and happiness is examined, it is said that it dates back to ancient times, that its origin is the philosophy, and that it is based on Aristotle's ideas. Aristotle says that happiness is not a virtue, but a virtuous activity. According to Aristotle's eudaimonic point of view, happiness and is living a meaningful life rather than enjoying it. While the eudaimonic approach defines well-being as being fully functional; the hedonic approach is defined as an abundance of pleasant emotions and the absence of unpleasant emotions (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). In today's science, the concept of well-being is seen as a continuation of the debate since Aristotle. Because of the lack of a framework surrounding well-being, researchers have focused on problem solving and diseases for many years while investigating well-being (Ryff, 1989a). Lawton (1977, 1984) measured well-being in terms of anxiety, depression, loneliness, sadness, and somatic symptoms (cited in Ryff, 1989a). In previous studies, well-being was seen as the absence of the disease. Therefore, while studying well-being, diseases and negative concepts have been tried to be measured for years (Ryff, 1989a). As a result of the ongoing discussions, psychological well-being has been associated with happiness and discussed together.

Well-being appears as a complex concept, and it is seen that it is derived from two general perspectives: the hedonic approach that defines well-being in terms of pleasure gain and pain avoidance, and the eudaimonic approach that focuses on self-actualization

and defines well-being according to the degree of meaning (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Although these two views focus on different points and differ from each other, they lead to a complementary knowledge accumulation with researches. Well-being is defined together with the knowledge of these two perspectives. Diener (2000) argues that hedonic sight is linked with subjective well-being and consists of positive affect, lower levels of negative effects, and high levels of life satisfaction (Sonnentag, 2015). Experience the greatest degree of happiness, positive impact, low levels of negative impact, and life satisfaction thought to be equal to well-being. In this perspective, absolute happiness, pleasure, and pain-avoidance are described as separate types of well-being. This perspective has changed in the progress of time. Goal seeking and achievement have been approached as other well-being forms. For this reason, hedonism is expressed as both physical pleasures and self-interest (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

The eudaimonic approach generates well-being as 1) "personal growth and self-fulfillment," 2) "authenticity and personal expressiveness" and 3) "the pursuit of meaning in life" (Diener, 2000; Ryff, 1995; Sonnentag, 2015; Waterman, 1993). As understood, while the hedonic view is conceptualized as a subjective sense of feel-good, the eudaimonic view is conceptualized as a meaningful and good life. Despite the dominance of hedonism, numerous scholars, thinkers, theological masters, visionaries, and commentators from various areas of the world have rejected the notion that well-being is just the equivalent of happiness, a type of hedonistic pleasures and physical satisfaction. In fact, this view was considered to be vulgar and was thought to lead human beings to slavish followers of desires. (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This perspective should also be distinguished from the hedonic view of the concept and description of well-being. Although hedonic well-being is the product of temporary pleasure, eudaimonic well-being derives from the fulfillment of the desires inherent in human existence, which in turn contributes to human development and maturation.

### **Subjective Well-Being**

Although operational definitions are important for understanding concepts, psychological well-being first emerged with the concept of subjective well-being. The concepts of psychological well-being and subjective well-being have been differentiated

with subsequent studies. Subjective well-being, which is the evaluation of people's life processes, points to an indispensable aspect of positive psychological health, although it is not a sufficient condition (Diener et al., 1998). The first type of well-being is subjective well-being. It consists of three components: "life satisfaction, the existence of positive mood, not experiencing negative mood" and the accumulation of all three of them, often considered as happiness (Diener et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). In recent studies on the concept of subjective well-being, it is seen that Ed Diener is mainly mentioned. The most accepted definition of the concept is also summarized by Diener and according to Diener, well-being is defined as "an individual's cognitive and affective evaluation of his / her life" (Diener, 2000). The positive or negative result achieved by the individual as a result of this evaluation gives information about the well-being of the person. Lucas and Diener defined subjective well-being as "well-being from the perspective of the individual" and stated that there is an individual assessment of well-being (Lucas & Diener, 2004).

Subjective well-being at work focuses on how workers feel and think about their job environments and working conditions and how these factors impact workers' lives in general. Employment-related subjective well-being is characterized as a condition in which an employee is happy with his or her job, often experiences positive emotions, and rarely experiences negative emotions at work (Ilies et al., 2015).

### **Psychological Well-Being**

The second key aspect of well-being is psychological well-being. The ultimate efficacy of a person is generally defined as psychological well-being. Psychological well-being is an indicator of the hedonistic and delightful component of human emotions (Jamal & Mitchell, 1980).

After psychology left philosophy, it continued to debate well-being within its paradigm, and Bradburn (1969) redefined the concept of well-being as happiness. According to Bradburn, happiness is not a process, but the result of positive and negative emotional balance and life satisfaction. This is the first research about psychological well-being.

Bradburn used the concept of psychological well-being for the first time in 1969. Psychological well-being in those years was explained by the fact that positive emotions dominated negative emotions. According to Bradburn (1969), positive and negative emotions are independent of each other and the level of positive and negative emotions of the individual gives her psychological well-being. However, although Bradburn's study is the first study of psychological well-being, the study focused on positive and negative emotions rather than psychological well-being (Myers & Diener, 1995). It can be said that the concept of psychological well-being is viewed from a very limited perspective. Ryan and Deci, by looking at the concept of psychological well-being from a broader perspective, took it to include happiness as well. Although it is claimed that psychological well-being includes all aspects of eudaimonic life, it has been stated that the concept includes both hedonic happiness and at the same time produces an intense, stable, and lasting type of happiness until the person reaches his goals (Ryan et al., 2008).

Many researchers have explanations about psychological well-being. However, it is Carol Ryff who introduced the concept of psychological well-being as we understand it today. Ryff (1989b) stated that psychological well-being should be evaluated within the scope of positive psychology. Ryff (1995) introduced the concept of psychological well-being to the positive psychology literature and defined psychological well-being as the effort to achieve perfection, representing the realization of one's potential. In addition, a theoretical approach has been put forward about the characteristics that individuals who are psychologically healthy should have. Psychological well-being includes the life goals of a person, whether he is aware of his personal potential, and the quality of his relationship with other individuals (Ryff & Keyes, 1995, p. 720).

Ryff defines psychological well-being as positive psychological functioning and acknowledges it as a combination of six universal needs that are accepted as basic dimensions of psychological well-being. The first of these six dimensions is autonomy, which can be defined as a sense of self-determination and a sense of independency. The second is personal growth and a sense of continued progress and growth of the personality. The third is self-acceptance and, above all, accepts the past and judges it favorably. The fourth of these six elements is the life purpose, and it is to embrace the

idea that people have goals in their lives, and to seek them, to make life meaningful. Environmental mastery is the fifth which refers to the ability to control one's life and the surrounding environment in an appropriate manner. Finally, the sixth is a positive relationship. This word implies the capacity to build and maintain quality relationships with others (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Psychological well-being does not depend on any particular situation; it refers to life as a whole. It also shows consistency over time. How a person feels today affects how a person feels tomorrow, next week, next month, next year, and even years (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004, 341). However, this does not mean that psychological well-being is unchangeable. It is thought that psychological well-being is strongly affected by environmental events and responds to therapeutic interventions (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004, 341). As seen, psychological well-being is a meaningful aspect of well-being. It is about leading a meaningful life with these components of life.

### **Well-Being at Work**

The health and well-being of employees should become more critical issues as a result of heightened understanding that other factors in the workplace pose threats to workers. For example, organizational characteristics ranging from health and safety practices (Patterson, 1997) to company design problems relating to simple ergonomics (Hoke, 1997) may have significant effects on employees' emotions and behaviors. Such possible risks include aggression, anger, violence, harassment, and other aspects of dysfunctional behavior. As far as interactions at work often contribute to the well-being of the workplace.

Health and well-being are critical issues as a result of their impacts on employees. Researchers and administrators generally agree that all employees and companies could be negatively impacted by health and well-being problems. For example, workers with poor health and well-being at work may be less productive, have lower quality decisions, are more likely to be deprived of work (Boyd, 1997), and can consistently reduce overall contributions to the organization. There may be lots of physiological, psychological or emotional costs.

Employee well-being can be described as the overall quality of an employee's functioning and experience in the workplace (Warr, 1987). According to Grant et al. (2007), three dimensions of well-being are "*happiness, health, and relationship.*" Satisfaction and engagement are examples of work-related well-being associated with happiness. The most popular operationalized concept of work-related well-being is job satisfaction (Blanchflower & Oswald, 1999). A cross-national study of the determinants of job satisfaction (Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000) discovered that interesting work, positive relationships with managers and colleagues, high salaries, and independent work are the most significant determinants of job satisfaction.

Guest and Conway (2004) describe well-being in six structures. These structures are "a manageable workload; personal control over the job; support from colleagues and supervisors; positive relationships at work; a reasonably clear role and a sense of control of involvement in changes in the organization."

As can be seen, the common points in different definitions of well-being in the workplace are the quality of the conditions and relationships in the workplace.

### **Antecedents of Well-Being**

The relationship between job crafting and well-being is explained by job demands-resources model. This well-established model considers a wide range of different workplace conditions and focuses on both positive and negative employee well-being consequences (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Rich et al. (2010), resources are positively linked to engagement and negatively related to burnout. In the study of Tims et al. (2013), employees who reported engaging in job crafting were found to have effectively extended their job resources over time, which was attributed to greater well-being and this study also shows that increasing job resources mediates the relationship between employee job crafting and improved well-being. These findings clearly indicate that when given the opportunity, workers will optimize their own well-being (Tims et al., 2013). High levels of job resources protect employees from burnout (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011) helps employees to meet job demands while avoiding strain by providing access to greater pools of resources. There are also other researches that job crafting has

been shown to improve employee well-being (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Ghitulescu, 2007; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou, Demerouti, & Breevaart, 2013). According to the findings of Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2014), the degree to which workers participate in job crafting predicts the fulfillment of their intrinsic needs, which predicts employee well-being. Job crafting seems to be a promising idea on which to base an intervention aimed at improving employee well-being.

As the literature findings show, concepts such as job satisfaction, burnout and work engagement have been investigated in order to predict employee well-being.

### **Hypothesis Development**

In this study, job crafting will be handled within the framework of “Job Demands-Resources Model, Person-Job Fit and Self-Determination Theory”.

According to JD-R model, demands are physical, psychological, social and organizational characteristics of a job that require physical, mental and emotional energy whereas resources are physical, psychological, social and organizational characteristics that facilitate the achievement of goals. Resources reduce the physiological and psychological effects caused by the requirements and promote individual development.

Learning organizational culture and having an ambidextrous leader provide to employees some resources such as autonomy, leader support, learning climate. Therefore, it is expected that:

***H1:*** *There is a positive relationship between ambidextrous leadership and job crafting.*

***H2:*** *There is a positive relationship between learning organization culture and job crafting.*

Person job fit is conceptualized as the harmony between individual knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) and the demands of the work or the individual's needs / desires and what the work provides (Edwards, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Previous studies show that person-job fit is positively related to work engagement (Cai et al., 2018). Crafting the job of an employee's provides person-job fit and an employee



who is fitting with job will be more engage with the job. Because crafters reshape their work around their own resources. Therefore, it is expected that:

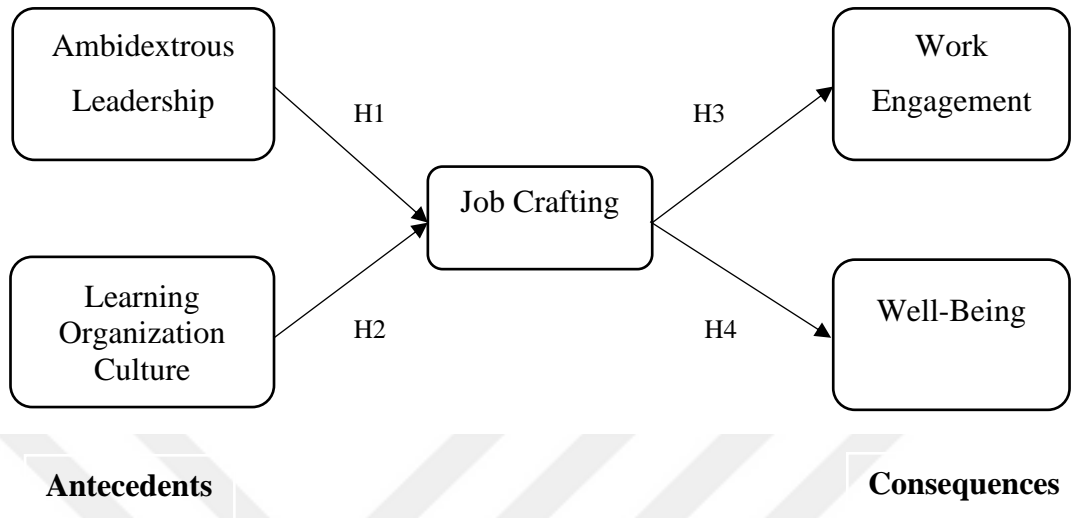
***H3: There is a positive relationship between job crafting and work engagement.***

Self-determination is that individuals experience a sense of choice in starting and regulating their own behavior (Deci, Connell & Ryan, 1989). In self-determination theory, there are three basic psychological needs called “*autonomy, competence and relatedness*”. In theory, basic psychological needs are accepted to be universal (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Coleman, 2000). According to theory, satisfying these needs is necessary for the growth, integration, development, mental health and well-being of individuals (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this perspective, job crafting provides these needs to employees because a crafter has autonomy, so feels competence and regulates relationships successfully. Therefore, it is expected that:

***H4: There is a positive relationship between job crafting and well-being.***

### **Research Model**

In this study, job crafting and its antecedents and consequences were examined. While ambidextrous leadership and learning organization culture handled as antecedents, work engagement and well-being handled as consequences. Therefore, job crafting is dependent variable at the first part of model and independent variable at the other part (see Figure 1)



**Figure 1: Research Model**

## METHODOLOGY

### Research Instruments

In the current study, five scales were used to measure ambidextrous leadership, learning organization culture, job crafting, work engagement, and well-being thereby conducting a survey method. In addition, the survey included a variety of demographic questions in order to determine the sample's characteristics.

### Ambidextrous Leadership Scale

The 14-item scale that was developed by Rosing, Frese, and Bausch (2011) was used to measure ambidextrous leadership. The scale has two sub-dimensions as explorative behaviors and exploitative behaviors, each includes seven items. Zacher, Robinson, and Rosing (2014) found the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the explorative behavior factor as 0.91 and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the exploitative behavior factor as 0.83.

The Ambidextrous Leadership Scale was translated into Turkish, and the suitability of the translation was checked by an Organizational Behavior expert who has command of English and Turkish. In addition, reliability analysis was conducted on a sample of 30 employees and the obtained alpha coefficient .91 indicated that the Turkish version of the scale was reliable. In the 6-point Likert scale, all items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Organizational Learning Capability Scale was developed by Chiva (2007) and was adapted to Turkish by Aydoğan et al. (2011). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the Turkish version of scale was found as 0.93 by Aydoğan et al. (2011).

The Organizational Learning Capability Scale comprises under five sub-dimensions: “*experience*” (2 items), “*risk taking*” (2 items), “*interaction with the external environment*” (3 items), “*dialogue*” (4 items), and “*participative decision making*” (3 items). In the 6-point Likert scale, all items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### **Job Crafting Scale**

The Job Crafting Scale developed by Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) includes 19 items and three (3) sub-dimensions and was adapted to Turkish by Kerse (2017). However, minor revisions were made to strengthen the compatibility of some items in the scale with the conceptual content and comprehension of the Turkish language.

The scale consists of three dimensions which are task crafting (7 items), cognitive crafting (5 items), and relational crafting (7 items). Kerse (2017) indicated that the Cronbach Alpha coefficient is 0.91 for the whole scale; 0.75 for task crafting, 0.86 for cognitive crafting, and 0.84 for relational crafting. In addition, reliability analysis was conducted on a sample of 30 employees and the obtained alpha coefficient .93 indicated that the Turkish version of the scale was reliable. In the 6-point Likert scale, all items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### **Utrecht Work Engagement Scale**

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used in this study, which was developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) and translated into Turkish by Turgut (2011). The scale has seventeen items and three sub-dimensions which are “*vigor*” (6 items), “*absorption*” (6 items), and “*dedication*” (5 items). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of scale was found as 0.89 in Turkish version (Turgut, 2011). In the 6-point Likert scale, all items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### **The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale**

The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWBS) was developed by Tennant et al. (2007) to measure the mental well-being of people living in England. The scale consists of 14 items and measures both psychological and subjective well-being.

It is concerned with the positive mental health of individuals. The scale adapted to Turkish by Keldal (2015), and Cronbach Alpha coefficient was found as 0.92. In the 6-point Likert scale, all items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### **Demographic Questions**

Participants in the current study were also asked demographic questions such as age, gender, education level, industry type, job, work life tenure, tenure in the current organization, and sector (public or private).

### **Sample**

A cross-sectional study design and a convenience sampling method were used in this study. 253 white-collar employees from different companies and who were working in different work fields participated in the study.

The sample consists of 100 male (39.5%) and 153 females (60.5%). Age of the participants ranged between 22 and 60 (Mean=31.07, SD=8.25). The average total working tenure of the participants was 100.70 (8.39 years) months and ranged between 2 (0.16 year) and 480 (40 years) months (SD=103.74).

The average working tenure in the current organization is 53.32 months (4.44 years) and ranged between 1 (0.08 year) and 456 (38 years) month (SD=72.52).

3.2% (8) of respondents have doctorate degree, 21.7% (55) have master's degree, 63.2% (160) have bachelor's degree. Therefore, the most of participants (88.1%) have a bachelor's or higher education degree.

13.8% (35) of respondents are public sector employees whereas 86.2% (218) are private sector employees.

**Table 3: Gender Characteristics Distribution of the Sample**

<b>Gender</b>		
	Frequency	Valid Percent %
Female	153	60.5
Male	100	39.5
Total	253	100

**Table 4: Education Level Features of the Sample**

<b>Education Level</b>		
	Frequency	Valid Percent %
Doctorate	8	3.2
Master	55	21.7
Bachelor	160	63.2
Associate Degree	17	6.7
High School	13	5.1
Total	253	100

**Table 5: Sector (Public and Private) Characteristics of the Sample**

<b>Sector</b>		
	Frequency	Valid Percent %
Public	35	13.8
Private	218	86.2
Total	253	100

### **Procedure**

The data of the study were collected by preparing an online questionnaire form (see Appendix I). It has been reported that a donation will be made to Darüŝafaka to encourage participation in the study. It was stated that the information obtained from the study would only be used for an academic study and the results would be shared with them if they wanted. In addition, in order to encourage institutional participation, it has been reported that free consultancy will be provided to the companies on the results. 550 employees were reached through social media and the companies they work for. 253 employees completed the survey. Thus, the response rate is 46%.

### **Data Analysis**

In this study, reliability of the scales was tested with Cronbach Alfa reliability analysis. Factor analysis was used to determine structure of the variables and dimensions. The Pearson correlation analysis was then used to analyze the correlations between the variables and their sub-dimensions. To test the hypotheses within the research model, regression analyses were performed.

## **FINDINGS**

In this section, the results of factor, reliability, correlation, regression, and difference analyses are presented respectively.

### **Factor and Reliability Analysis for the Scales**

#### **Factor and Reliability Analysis for Ambidextrous Leadership Scale**

As the Ambidextrous Leadership Scale was translated into Turkish within the scope of this research, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was carried out. To test the suitability of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity tests were performed. Result of the tests (KMO =0.903,  $\chi^2$ Bartlett test =2195.034, df = 116, p =0.000) were satisfactory.

Principal component analysis and varimax rotation to the data sets were employed. Except for item thirteen, the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were over 0.50 supporting the inclusion of items in the factor analysis. Factors with eigenvalues over one were retained and items with factor loadings below 0.50 and items with high cross loadings were excluded. Thereby, only item 13 was excluded.

As a result of the analysis, the items were loaded in the original two dimensions.

To test the internal consistency of factors, Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability was estimated. The Cronbach Alpha was obtained as 0.91 for the whole scale as .93 for explorative behavior, and .82 for exploitative behavior. The results also listed in Table 6.



**Table 6: Factor Analysis Result for Ambidextrous Leadership Scale**

<b>Factor Name</b>	<b>Factor Item</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% Variance</b>	<b>Reliability</b>
<b>Explorative Behavior</b>	Giving possibilities for independent thinking and acting	0.893	41,526	0.937
	Giving room for own ideas	0.892		
	Motivating to take risks	0.841		
	Encouraging experimentation with different ideas	0.828		
	Allowing errors	0.807		
	Allowing different ways of accomplishing a task	0.796		
	Encouraging error learning	0.739		
<b>Exploitative Behavior</b>	Controlling adherence to rules	0.838	24,781	0.827
	Paying attention to uniform task accomplishment	0.810		
	Establishing routines	0.673		
	Monitoring and controlling goal attainment	0.634		
	Taking corrective action	0.618		
	Sticking to plans	0.573		

## Factor and Reliability Analysis for Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Model was built on the factors of Organizational Learning Capability Scale: “*Experience, Risk Taking, Interaction with The External Environment, Dialogue, and Participative Decision Making*” to run and test. Based on the results of the CFA, Chi-square  $\chi^2 = 184.516$ ,  $df = 65$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.839$  ( $N = 253$ ) were found. Also, the results indicated that GFI, NFI, and CFI values were above .90, and RMSEA value was at .085. The results also listed in Table 7.

**Table 7: The Results of CFA for Organizational Learning Capability Scale**

Model	Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )	df	p	X <sup>2</sup> /df	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
<b>Five-Factors Solution</b>	184.516	65	.000	2.839	.910	.943	.916	.085

Cronbach Alpha coefficient value was found as .92 for Organizational Learning Capability Scale. Also, Cronbach's alpha value of each sub-dimension met the .70 criterion. The results of the reliability analyses for sub-dimensions are indicated in Table 8.

**Table 8: Reliability Levels of the Dimensions of Organizational Learning Capability Scale**

Dimensions	Cronbach alpha
<b>Experimentation</b>	.86
<b>Risk Taking</b>	.70
<b>Interaction with The External Environment</b>	.75
<b>Dialogue</b>	.84
<b>Participative Decision Making</b>	.89

### **Factor and Reliability Analysis for Job Crafting Scale**

Since revisions were made for some items in the Turkish version of the Job Crafting Scale (Kerse, 2017), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was carried out. To test the suitability of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity tests were performed. Result of the tests (KMO =0.880,  $\chi^2$ Bartlett test =2308.843, df = 153, p =0.000) were satisfactory.

Principal component analysis and varimax rotation to the data sets were employed. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over 0.50, supporting the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis. Factors with eigenvalues over one were retained and items with factor loadings below 0.40 and items with high cross loadings were excluded. Item 5 excluded because of high cross loading. As a result of the analysis three dimensions were found as in the original.

To test the internal consistency of factors, Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability was estimated. The Cronbach Alpha was found as 0.90 for the whole scale as .85 for task crafting, .86 for cognitive crafting, and .85 for relational crafting. The results also listed in Table 9.

**Table 9: Factor and Reliability Analysis Result for Job Crafting Scale**

<b>Factor Name</b>	<b>Factor Item</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% Variance</b>	<b>Reliability</b>
<b>Relational Crafting</b>	Engage in networking activities to establish more relationships	0,745	20.449	0.852
	Make an effort to get to know people well at work	0,745		
	Organise special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)	0,734		
	Organise or attend work related social functions	0,709		
	Introduce yourself to co-workers, customers, or clients you have not met	0,694		
	Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)	0,656		
	Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests	0,523		
<b>Cognitive Crafting</b>	Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life	0,845	19.852	0.863
	Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community	0,771		
	Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organisation	0,741		
	Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being	0,740		
	Think about how your job gives your life purpose	0,693		
<b>Task Crafting</b>	Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work	0,840	19.691	0.857
	Introduce new work tasks that better suit your skills or interests	0,806		
	Introduce new approaches to improve your work	0,723		
	Change the way you do your job to make it more enjoyable for yourself	0,654		
	Change minor procedures that you think are not productive	0,642		
	Choose to take on additional tasks at work	0,618		

### Factor and Reliability Analysis for Work Engagement Scale

Model was built on the factors of Utrecht Work Engagement scale: *Vigor*, *Absorption and Dedication* to run and test. Based on the results of the CFA, Chi-square  $\chi^2 = 249,898$ ,  $df = 107$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.335$  ( $N = 253$ ) were found. Also, the results indicated that GFI, NFI, and CFI values were above .90, and RMSEA value was at .073. The results also listed in Table 10.

**Table 10: The Results of CFA for Utrecht Work Engagement Scale**

Model	Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	X <sup>2</sup> /df	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Three-Factors Solution	249.898	107	.000	2.335	.90	.952	.920	.073

Cronbach Alpha coefficient value for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was calculated to be .92. Also, Cronbach's alpha value of each sub-dimension was above .70. The reliability values of the sub-dimensions are indicated in Table 11.

**Table 11: Reliability Levels of the Dimensions of Work Engagement**

Dimension	Cronbach Alpha
Vigor	.86
Absorption	.85
Dedication	.92

### **Factor and Reliability Analysis for Warwick-Edinburg Mental Well-Being Scale**

Based on the results of the EFA, one dimension was found as in the original scale (KMO =0.920,  $\chi^2$ Bartlett test =2385.566, df = 91, p = .000). Cronbach Alpha coefficient value calculated as .93 for Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale.

### **Correlation Analysis Among the Variables**

Based on correlation analysis (Pearson correlation coefficient), ambidextrous leadership ( $r = .45$ ,  $p < .01$ ) had a strong and significant relationship with job crafting, as did learning organization culture ( $r = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Furthermore, job crafting strongly correlated with work engagement ( $r = .61$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and well-being ( $r = .54$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

In addition, age is weakly associated with only work engagement ( $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$ ); total working tenure is associated with work engagement ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and well-being ( $r = .13$ ,  $p < .01$ ); working tenure in current organization is associated with only work engagement ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ). All findings of correlation analyses are shown in Table 12.

**Table 12: Correlation Analysis among the Variables**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<b>1. Ambidextrous Leadership</b>	1							
<b>2. Learning Organization Culture</b>	,79**	1						
<b>3. Job Crafting</b>	,45**	,47**	1					
<b>4. Work Engagement</b>	,38**	,38**	,61**	1				
<b>5. Well-Being</b>	,38**	,40**	,54**	,61**	1			
<b>6. Age</b>	0,00	-,013	-,04	,26**	0,10	1		
<b>7. Tenure</b>	0,03	,001	-,00	,29**	,13*	,96**	1	
<b>8. Tenure in Current Organization</b>	-0,02	-,045	-,05	,21**	0,05	,72**	,74**	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation analysis was conducted to see the relationships between the sub-dimensions of the variables. According to the results both exploration and exploitation have positive relationship with each sub-dimension of job crafting. However, exploration has a stronger relationship with task crafting ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ), while exploitation has a stronger relationship with cognitive crafting ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ).

Each sub-dimension of learning organization culture has positive relationship with sub-dimensions of job crafting. However, dialogue has stronger relationship with cognitive crafting ( $r = .44, p < .01$ ) and relational crafting ( $r = .42, p < .01$ ).

Each sub-dimension of job crafting has positive relationship with sub-dimensions of work engagement. However, it is seen that cognitive crafting has stronger relationship with the work engagement sub-dimensions.

When the relationship between job crafting sub-dimensions and well-being was examined, it was seen that all sub-dimensions are positively related. And these relationships are at a similar level. All findings of correlation analyses among the sub-dimensions of variables are shown in Table 13.



**Table 13: Correlation Analysis among the Sub-Dimensions of Variables**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<b>1. Exploration</b>	1													
<b>2. Exploitation</b>	,52**	1												
<b>3. Experimentation</b>	,64**	,47**	1											
<b>4. Risk Taking</b>	,69**	0,36**	0,64**	1										
<b>5. Interaction with the External Environment</b>	,50**	,36**	,41**	,52**	1									
<b>6. Dialogue</b>	,68**	,63**	,64**	,58**	,55**	1								
<b>7. Participative Decision Making</b>	,68**	,40**	,61**	,65**	,48**	,65**	1							
<b>8. Task Crafting</b>	,40**	,23**	,29**	,29**	,32**	,31**	,34**	1						
<b>9. Cognitive Crafting</b>	,29**	,37**	,34**	,21**	,30**	,44**	,35**	,49**	1					
<b>10. Relational Crafting</b>	,31**	,30**	,26**	,21*	,29**	,42**	,33**	,47**	,47**	1				
<b>11. Vigor</b>	,37**	,38**	,38**	,28**	,27**	,47**	,35**	,40**	,56**	,47**	1			
<b>12. Absorption</b>	,23**	,19**	,15*	,16**	,19**	,22**	,23**	,32**	,41**	,28**	,66**	1		
<b>13. Dedication</b>	,28**	,26**	,27**	,18**	,23**	,34**	,29**	,45**	,66**	,37**	,68**	,52**	1	
<b>14. Well-being</b>	,35**	,31**	,35**	,25**	,33**	,39**	,31**	,46**	,46**	,41**	,59**	,42**	,58**	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### Hypothesis Testing

Following the correlation analyses, regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4). To begin, a simple regression analysis was conducted to estimate and test if the effect of ambidextrous leadership on job crafting was at the significant level based on H1. Table 14 shows the findings that are relevant.

**Table 14: The Contribution of Ambidextrous Leadership on Job Crafting**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Job Crafting</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Ambidextrous Leadership</b>	.454***
<b>R</b>	.454***
<b>R Square</b>	.206
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.203
<b>F</b>	65.072***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

On the basis of values given in Table 14, ambidextrous leadership had a positive contribution on job crafting ( $\beta = .454$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, ambidextrous leadership predicted job crafting at a 20.6% rate (R Square = .206,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, H1 is supported.

Multiple regression analysis conducted to understand the contributions of ambidextrous leadership sub-dimensions to job crafting showed that both sub-dimensions have a significant contribution to job crafting (see Table 15).

**Table 15: The Contribution of Ambidextrous Leadership Sub-Dimensions on Job Crafting**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Job Crafting</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Exploration</b>	.311***
<b>Exploitation</b>	.205**
<b>R</b>	.454***
<b>R Square</b>	.206
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.200
<b>F</b>	32.410***

\*\*\* p < .001, \*\*p < .01

As reflected Table 15 leader's explorative ( $\beta = .311$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and exploitative behaviors ( $\beta = .205$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have contribution on job crafting. Yet, the contribution of exploratory behaviors is stronger. The model's total explanatory power was 20.6% ( $R=0.454$ ;  $R^2=0.206$ ;  $F=32.410$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).

Secondly, simple regression analysis was conducted to estimate and test if the effect of the learning organization culture on job crafting was at the significant level based on the H2. Table 16 shows the findings that are relevant.

**Table 16: The Contribution of Learning Organization Culture on Job Crafting**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Job Crafting</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Learning Organization Culture</b>	.476***
<b>R</b>	.476***
<b>R Square</b>	.227
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.224
<b>F</b>	73.684***

\*\*\* p < .001

On the basis of values given in Table 16, learning organization culture had a positive contribution on job crafting ( $\beta = .476$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, learning organization culture predicted job crafting at a 22.7% rate (R Square = .227,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, H2 is supported.

When we conducted multiple regression analyses to understand the relationship between learning organization culture sub-dimensions and job crafting, we obtained that two sub-dimensions have a significant contribution to job crafting (see Table 17).

**Table 17: The Contribution of Learning Organization Culture Sub-Dimensions on Job Crafting**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Job Crafting</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Dialogue</b>	.366***
<b>Participative Decision Making</b>	.182*
<b>R</b>	.505***
<b>R Square</b>	.255
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.249
<b>F</b>	42.682***

\*\*\* p < .001, \*p < .05

As reflected Table 17, dialogue and participative decision making have contribution on job crafting. Yet, the contribution of dialogue is stronger. The overall explanatory power of model was 25.5% (R=0.505; R<sup>2</sup>=0.255; F=42.682, p=0.000).

Thirdly, simple regression analysis was conducted to estimate and test if the effect of job crafting on work engagement was at the significant level based on the H3. Table 18 shows the findings that are relevant.

**Table 18: The Contribution of Job Crafting on Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Work Engagement</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Job Crafting</b>	.614***
<b>R</b>	.614***
<b>R Square</b>	.377
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.375
<b>F</b>	152.202***

\*\*\* p < .001

On the basis of values given in Table 18, job crafting had a positive contribution on work engagement ( $\beta = .614$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, job crafting predicted work engagement at a 37.7% rate ( $R \text{ Square} = .377$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, H3 is supported.

Multiple regression analyses conducted to understand the contribution of job crafting sub-dimensions to work engagement indicated that each sub-dimension has significant contributions.

**Table 19: The Contribution of Job Crafting Sub-Dimensions on Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable: Work Engagement</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Cognitive Crafting</b>	.497***
<b>Task Crafting</b>	.145*
<b>Relational Crafting</b>	.134*
<b>R</b>	.662***
<b>R Square</b>	.439
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.432
<b>F</b>	64.843***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \* $p < .05$

As reflected Table 19, cognitive crafting, task crafting, and relational crafting have contribution on work engagement. However, the contribution of cognitive crafting is much stronger ( $\beta = .497$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The model's total explanatory power was 43.9% ( $R=0.662$ ;  $R^2=0.439$ ;  $F=64.843$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).

Finally, simple regression analysis was conducted to estimate and test if the effect of job crafting on well-being was at the significant level based on the H4. Table 20 shows the findings that are relevant.

**Table 20: The Contribution of Job Crafting on Well-Being**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Well-Being</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Job Crafting</b>	.548***
<b>R</b>	.548***
<b>R Square</b>	.300
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.297
<b>F</b>	107.589***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

On the basis of values given in Table 20, job crafting had a positive contribution on well-being ( $\beta = .548$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, job crafting predicted well-being at a 30% rate ( $R \text{ Square} = .300$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, H4 is supported.

Multiple regression analyses conducted to understand the contribution of job crafting sub-dimensions to well-being showed that each sub-dimension has significant contributions (see Table 21).

**Table 21: The Contribution of Job Crafting Sub-Dimensions on Well-Being**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
<b>Well-Being</b>	
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Cognitive Crafting</b>	.456***
<b>Task Crafting</b>	.249***
<b>Relational Crafting</b>	.177*
<b>R</b>	.554***
<b>R Square</b>	.307
<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	.299
<b>F</b>	36.806***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \* $p < .05$

As reflected Table 21, cognitive crafting, task crafting, and relational crafting have contribution on well-being. However, the contribution of cognitive crafting is much stronger ( $\beta = .456$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The model's total explanatory power was 30.7% ( $R=0.554$ ;  $R^2=0.307$ ;  $F=36.806$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).

### **Demographic Analysis**

Independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA were conducted to see if there were any differences among demographic categories such as gender, sector, and education level.

### **The Differences Among Gender Groups**

Independent sample t-test was performed to see whether there are differences in gender in terms of job crafting, work engagement, and well-being.

The finding showed that there is a significant difference between gender groups in terms of well-being ( $t = 2.765$ ,  $p = .024$ ). Based on the findings, males (mean = 4.86) have more well-being than females (mean = 4.56). The result is shown in Table 22. On the other hand, no significant differences in terms of job crafting and work engagement were found between gender groups.



**Table 22: Independent Sample t-Test for Gender Groups**

	<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Well-Being</b>	Female	153	4.56	0.918	2.765	237.808	0.024
	Male	100	4.86	0.757			

**The Differences Among Public or Private Sector Groups**

Independent sample t-test was performed to see whether there are differences in sector groups in terms of ambidextrous leadership, learning organization culture, job crafting, work engagement, and well-being. However, no significant differences between these sectoral groups were found in terms of ambidextrous leadership, learning organization culture, job crafting, work engagement, and well-being.

**The Differences Among Education Levels**

One-way ANOVA was performed to see whether there are differences in job crafting, work engagement, and well-being among educational level groups. Due to a smaller number of participants than 30, the groups of “*High School*” and “*Associate Degree*” were combined before beginning analysis by forming a new group called “*Below Bachelor's Degree*”. For the same reason (less than 30 people), the groups “*Master's Degree*” and “*Doctoral Degree*” were combined by forming a new group called “*Master's Degree and Above*”. Thus, one-way ANOVA was performed to see the differences between the three groups: “*Below Bachelor's Degree*”, “*Bachelor's Degree*”, and “*Master's Degree and Above*”.

However, it was not found any significant difference among education levels in terms of job crafting, work engagement, and well-being.

## CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the relationships between job crafting and its antecedents, ambidextrous leadership and learning organization culture, and its consequences, work engagement and well-being were examined. In the first stage, job crafting is considered as the dependent variable, while ambidextrous leadership and learning organization culture are considered as independent variables. In the next stage, job crafting was considered as independent variable, and work engagement and well-being were considered as dependent variables.

In the study, Ambidextrous Leadership Scale, Organizational Learning Capability Scale, Job Crafting Scale, Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale were used to estimate variables. EFA was executed for Ambidextrous Leadership Scale and Job Crafting Scale, and Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale. CFA was executed for Organizational Learning Capability Scale and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. And the results of analyses showed the good fit models for each scale. Similar, reliability analyses were conducted to test each scale's internal consistency, and the findings confirmed that each scale was statistically reliable.

Ambidextrous leadership scale was found to have two factors as in the original, but one item was removed due to low factor load. The organizational learning capability scale was found to have five factors, as in the original. The job crafting scale was found with three factors as in the original, but one item was removed because the cross-factor loads were close. And work engagement scale was found with three factors as in the original. Data obtained from re-translations for ambidextrous leadership scale and job crafting scale accompanied by an organizational behavior expert confirmed that these scales are also reliable and valid measurement tools. These scales can also be used as measurement tools in future studies.

Four hypotheses were tested in this study. In the first step, the contribution of its antecedents on job crafting was examined. Ambidextrous leadership and learning organization culture have been seen to have a significantly strong contribution to job crafting. Secondly, the consequences of job crafting were examined. Job crafting was

found to have a strong contribution to work engagement and well-being. Thus, all the hypotheses that we presented in the study were supported.

Then, regression analyses were performed on the sub-dimensions of the variables. It was seen that both sub-dimensions of ambidextrous leadership (explorative and exploitative behavior) had contribution on job crafting. On the other hand, only two sub-dimensions (dialogue and participative decision-making) of the five-dimensional learning organization culture had a contribution on job crafting. The job crafting also had a contribution on both the work engagement and the well-being with all its sub-dimensions (task, relational, and cognitive crafting).

The relationships between ambidextrous leadership, learning organization culture, and job crafting were evaluated within the framework of the JD-R Model. Hypotheses were established with reference to the JD-R model. It has been suggested that ambidextrous leadership is a leadership style that can provide the necessary resources for job crafting. The results supported this suggestion. And this is an important finding for the literature. In parallel with the studies showing that the innovative climate is effective for acting innovative (Ren & Zhang, 2015) and entrepreneurial orientation, this leadership style that supports the innovative climate (Luu et al., 2019; Rosing et al., 2011; Zacher & Rosing, 2015) has also had a positive contribution on job crafting. Moreover, results for the relationship between ambidextrous and job crafting are supported by the findings of Ma et al. (2018). It was also seen that both exploration and exploitation behaviors have a contribution on job crafting. Moreover, the contribution of exploratory behaviors on job crafting is stronger than the contribution of exploitation. If employees are given space to discover new things and try new methods, this will positively effect their job crafting behavior. Exploratory behaviors of leaders may stimulate job crafting by developing employees' personal resources and building an innovative climate. Leaders who are open to change and innovative processes foster their employees to be job crafters. Exploratory behaviors of leaders allow employees to be independent in thinking and acting, to take risks. Therefore, employees' proactive behavior motivation enhances.

On the other hand, innovative climate and entrepreneurial orientation are the relevant concepts with learning organization culture. As it mentioned before that

characteristics of learning organizations create space for job crafting behavior by providing the resources that employees' needs. Therefore, the findings support the relationship between these two variables in a broader framework. Thus, these results have been a new contribution to the literature. By the way, the contribution of dialogue, the sub-dimension of learning organization culture, on job crafting is much stronger. The level to which team members share task-relevant ideas, information, and suggestions with one another is referred to as team knowledge sharing (Srivastava et al., 2006). When employees are encouraged to communicate, the learning process takes place in a more active and interactive way. Knowledge sharing between employees through dialogue also creates a social learning process. Therefore, it is an interactive process of learning together. With this process, employees will have developed the necessary resources to craft their work (task-relevant ideas, information, suggestions). On the other hand, dialogue is one of the basic processes of building good relationships. Employees find the opportunity to craft their relationships through dialogue. The dialogue, along with all these processes, has a positive effect on the employee's job crafting behavior.

The relationship between job craft and work engagement has been found positive in parallel with other studies (Bakker et al., 2012; Frederick & VanderWeele, 2020; Petrou et al., 2012). Crafting behavior contributes to the engagement of people by providing person-job fit. Therefore, the findings are consistent within this framework. As can be understood from here, employees who can craft their job tend to be more engaged in their work. By the way, the contribution of cognitive crafting on work engagement is much stronger. When employees craft their cognition about work, this makes them more engaged in their work. This may be a good example of how our thinking effects our attitudes. Kim and Lee (2016) showed that cognitive crafting has a stronger influence on individual job engagement than task crafting and relational crafting. Employees can change their job perception more easily than they can alter their tasks and relationships (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Imamura et al. (2015) demonstrate that cognitive behaviors enhance employee engagement in general. Employees become more engaged in work since they see their job as a way of accumulating skills, information, and experience, and also giving a better career path in the future, so they work with full passion and dedication. In addition, with cognitive crafting behavior, employees find

more meaning in their work. Thus, when employees think that they are in an activity that serves a valuable and better purpose, their work makes more mean to them. Employees' abilities to invest themselves in their work and engage more completely can be aided by cognitions that provide meaning in their work.

When the contribution of job crafting on well-being examined, findings parallel to the findings in the literature were obtained (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Ghitulescu, 2007; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou, Demerouti, & Breevaart, 2013). As it mentioned before, findings clearly indicate that when given the opportunity, workers will optimize their own well-being (Tims et al., 2013). The results of this study also supported these findings. In this study, job crafting positively contributed well-being with all its sub-dimensions (task, relational, and cognitive crafting). Self-determination is that individuals experience a sense of choice in starting and regulating their own behavior (Deci, Connell and Ryan, 1989). Meanwhile, as it does on work engagement, the contribution of cognitive crafting on well-being is much stronger. The stronger contribution of cognitive crafting on well-being has also been found in previous studies. For example, Slemp, Kern, and Vella Brodrick (2015) showed in their study that cognitive crafting stands out as the dimension that has the most impact on workplace well-being. Similarly, in the study of Yepes-Baldó et al. (2016), cognitive crafting has the highest effect on well-being. As mentioned before, cognitive crafting provides meaning to employees thus they perceive their job as more meaningful. Due to well-being contains both subjective and psychological components, it is understood that cognitive crafting affects both subjective (positive affect) and psychological (meaning) well-being. And it was seen in this study that the well-being of the employees who were able to craft their own work increases.

Additionally, demographic variables were analyzed to see the relationships and differences among variables. Findings demonstrated that age is associated with only work engagement; total working tenure is associated with work engagement and well-being; working tenure in current organization is associated with only work engagement. No significant difference was found between education level groups and sector (public and private) groups in terms of variables. However, a significant difference was found

between gender groups in terms of well-being. According to the analysis, male participants scored significantly higher than female participants in terms of well-being.

### **Practical Implications**

In the light of the findings, it is necessary to specify some points that should be considered. One of the most important factors of a sustainable financial success is the employees of the companies. Today, it is clearly seen how important the employees are in terms of providing competitive advantage. Beyond traditional perspectives, there are also more motivating, more innovative ways to provide job resources to employees. In the study, it was observed that the employees of the organizations where innovative climate elements were sheltered, experience was encouraged, and continuous learning was active, showed proactive work behaviors. Considering the relationship of job crafting, which is one of these proactive behaviors, with work engagement and well-being, organizations that provide this organizational climate will take their employees one step further. Employees of these organizations will be better off in work engagement and well-being.

### **Limitations and Future Recommendations**

First, this study was started before the adverse conditions of the coronavirus pandemic, but data collection was suspended due to emerging extraordinary situations. The pandemic has also created sudden and major changes in working conditions. Although our hypotheses are supported as expected, we do not know the impact of the pandemic on the work conditions and well-being of employees. A study to be conducted to compare before and after the pandemic will add more meaning to our results.

The study was conducted with 253 participants. Reaching more participants could make the study results more meaningful and reliable. In addition, this study can be investigated with an experimental design in order to establish a causality.

Finally, future studies to determine the antecedents of job crafting will help us understand the concept better. The variables that effect and support this behavior, especially at the organizational level, may be a key to a happier work life.

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## APPENDICES

### The Questionnaires

Değerli Katılımcı,

Sizi hem bilimsel bir araştırmaya hem de bir sosyal sorumluluğa katkı vermeye davet ediyorum.

Aşağıdaki anket formu Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Anabilim Dalı, Örgütsel Davranış Yüksek Lisans Programı kapsamındaki bir tez çalışmasına veri sağlamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece bilimsel bir araştırmanın veri tabanını oluşturmaktadır. Elde edilen bilgiler kesinlikle başka bir amaç için kullanılmayacaktır.

Verilerin toplama süresi sona erdiğinde, ankete katılan her 25 kişi için Darüşşafaka'ya 20 TL'lik bağış yapılacaktır. Arzu eden katılımcılarımız ile bağış makbuzu da paylaşılacaktır.

Araştırma yaklaşık 10 dakika sürecektir. Size soracağımız soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Soru formu ve içindeki kriterleri, özgürce değerlendirerek fikrinize en uygun olan tek seçeneği (X) şeklinde işaretlemenizi ve araştırmamızın doğru sonuçlara ulaşabilmesi açısından soruları eksiksizce doldurmanızı rica ederiz.

Araştırma sonuçlarına ve bağış makbuzuna ulaşmak istediğiniz durumda [eersinerdal@gmail.com](mailto:eersinerdal@gmail.com) adresi üzerinden iletişime geçebilirsiniz, sonuçlara ulaşabilirsiniz.

Bilimsel araştırmamıza yaptığınız katkı için teşekkür eder, başarı dolu bir iş yaşamı dileriz.

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Tülay Turgut

Araştırmacı: Ersin Erdal

### Ambidextrous Leadership Scale:

Aşağıda bazı yönetici davranışları ile ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddelerde kararsız kaldığımızda size daha yakın olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur. Her maddeyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

	Aşağıdaki soruları yöneticinizi düşünerek cevaplayınız	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	Görevlerimizi yaparken farklı yöntemler kullanmamıza izin verir						
2	Farklı fikirleri denememiz için bizi teşvik eder						
3	Risk almamızı teşvik eder						
4	Bağımsız düşünmeye ve hareket etmeye fırsatlar tanır						
5	Kendi fikirlerimizi uygulamamız için alan yaratır						
6	Hata yapma şansı tanır.						
7	Hatalardan ders çıkarmamız için bizi teşvik eder						
8	Hedeflere ulaşp ulaşmadığımızı izleyip kontrol eder.						
9	İşleri rutine sokar						
10	Yaptığımız işlerdeki hataları düzeltir.						
11	Kurallara uyup uymadığımızı kontrol eder.						
12	Görevlerin düzenli bir şekilde yerine getirilip getirilmediğini kontrol eder.						
13	Hatalara yaptırım uygular.						
14	İş planlarına sadıktır.						

### Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Aşağıda kurumunuzda görülebilecek durumlar ile ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddelerde kararsız kaldığınızda size daha yakın olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur. Her maddeyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	Kurumumuzda çalışanlar yeni fikirlerini açıklamada destek ve cesaret alırlar.						
2	Kurumumuzda girişimler çoğunlukla olumlu geribildirimler alır, bunun sonucunda insanlar yeni fikirler üretmede cesaretlenirler.						
3	Kurumumuzda çalışanlar risk alma konusunda yüreklendirilir.						
4	Kurumumuzda çalışanlar bilinmeyen konular üzerinde çalışmayı göze alabilirler.						
5	Kurum dışında gelişen olaylarla ilgili (yapılan iş ile ilgili) bilgi edinmek ve raporlamak tüm çalışanların işinin bir parçasıdır.						
6	Kurum dışından bilgi edinme toplama ve paylaşmaya yönelik sistem ve prosedürler mevcuttur.						
7	Kurumumuzda çalışanlar; rakipler, müşteriler, teknoloji kurumları, üniversiteler, tedarikçiler vb. ile etkileşim için teşvik edilir.						
8	Kurumumuzda çalışanlar iletişim kurmaya teşvik edilir.						
9	Çalışma grubumda açık ve rahat iletişim kanalları mevcuttur.						
10	Kurumumuzda yöneticiler çalışanlar arası iletişimin kuvvetlenmesi için çaba sarf ederler.						

11	Kurumumuzda çapraz-fonksiyonel takım çalışması (diğer birimlerle aynı iş için bilgi paylaşma vb.) olağan bir uygulamadır.						
12	Kurumumuzda yöneticiler önemli karar verme süreçlerinin içine çalışanları da katarlar.						
13	Kurum politikaları önemli ölçüde çalışanların bakış açısı ile şekillenir.						
14	Çalışanlar alınan temel kurumsal kararlarda payları olduğunu hissederler.						



### Job Crafting Scale

Bu bölümde yaptığımız iş ile ilgili bazı sorular yöneltilmektedir. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddelerde kararsız kaldığımızda size daha yakın olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur. Her maddeyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	İşimi geliştirmek için yeni yöntemler uyguladım.						
2	İşimde yaptığım görevlerin türünü veya kapsamını değiştirdim.						
3	Yeteneklerime ve ilgi alanıma daha uygun olan yeni iş görevleri ortaya çıkarırım.						
4	Yaptığım işte ek görevler üstlenirim.						
5	Yeteneğime ve ilgi alanıma uygun görevler üstlenmeye öncelik veririm						
6	İşimi daha eğlenceli hale getirmek için işin yapılış şeklini değiştiririm.						
7	Verimli olmadığını düşündüğüm bazı uygulamaları değiştiririm.						
8	İşimin, yaşamımdaki asıl amaca nasıl katkı sağladığını düşünürüm.						
9	Yaptığım işin örgütün başarısındaki öneminin farkındayım						
10	Yaptığım işin daha geniş topluluklar (toplum) için önemli olduğunun farkındayım						
11	İşimin yaşamıma sağladığı olumlu yöndeki katkıları düşünürüm.						
12	İşimin mutluluğum üzerindeki rolünü düşünürüm.						
13	İşyerinde daha fazla kişiyle ilişki kurmak için sosyal faaliyetlere katılırım.						
14	İşyerimdeki insanları tanımaya gayret ederim						
15	İşle ilgili sosyal faaliyetler (konferans, seminer, sergi vb.)						

	organize ederim veya bu faaliyetlere katılırım.						
16	İşyerinde özel bazı etkinlikler (arkadaşımın doğum günü kutlaması, yıl dönümü gibi) düzenlerim						
17	Tanışmadığım iş arkadaşlarına, müşterilere veya alıcılara kendimi tanıtırım.						
18	Yeni işe başlayan çalışanlara işle ilgili veya iş dışı konularda danışmanlık yapar onlara yardımcı olurum.						
19	İşyerinde benimle benzer yeteneğe ve ilgiye sahip çalışanlarla arkadaşlıklar kurarım.						

## Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Aşağıda insanların çalışma yaşantıları ile ilgili içinde olabilecekleri bazı tutum ve davranışlar belirtilmiştir. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddelerde kararsız kaldığınızda size daha yakın olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur. Her maddeyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	İşimi yaparken enerji dolu olurum.						
2	İşimde kendimi güçlü ve dinç hissedirim.						
3	İşimde zihinsel olarak oldukça dayanıklıyım.						
4	Sabah uyandığımda işe gitmek için istekli olurum.						
5	Çok uzun saatler çalışabilirim.						
6	Her şey yolunda gitmese bile işimde daima sebat ederim.						
7	Çalışırken işime dalıp giderim.						
8	Çalışırken yaptığım işe kendimi kaptırırım.						
9	Çalışırken çevremdeki her şeyi unutup ederim.						
10	Çalışırken mola vermekte zorlanırım.						
11	Çalışırken zamanın nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.						
12	Yoğun çalıştığım zamanlarda kendimi mutlu hissedirim.						
13	Yaptığım işin anlamlı olduğunu ve bir amaca hizmet ettiğini düşünüyorum.						
14	İşimin ilgi çekici ve gayret gerektiren bir iş olduğunu düşünüyorum.						
15	Yaptığım işle gurur duyarım.						
16	İşim bana ilham verir.						
17	İşimi hevesle yaparım.						



### Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale

Aşağıda sizinle ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddelerde kararsız kaldığınızda size daha yakın olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur. Her maddeyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	Gelecekle ilgili iyimserim.						
2	Kendimi işe yarar (faydalı) hissediyorum						
3	Kendimi rahatlamış hissediyorum.						
4	Diğer insanlara karşı ilgiliyim						
5	Farklı işlere zaman ayırabilecek enerjim var						
6	Sorunlarla iyi bir şekilde başa çıkabiliyorum.						
7	Açık ve net bir biçimde düşünebiliyorum.						
8	Kendimden memnunum.						
9	Kendimi diğer insanlara yakın hissediyorum.						
10	Kendime güveniyorum						
11	Kendi kararlarımı kendim verebiliyorum.						
12	Sevdiğimi hissediyorum.						
13	Yeni şeylere karşı ilgiliyim.						
14	Neşeli hissediyorum.						

## Demographics

1. Yaşınız: .....
2. Cinsiyetiniz:  Kadın  Erkek
3. Eğitim Durumunuz: Lise Ön Lisans Lisans Lisansüstü  
Doktora
4. Çalıştığınız kurumun faaliyet gösterdiği alan: .....
5. Yaptığınız iş / mesleğiniz: .....
6. Ne kadardır iş hayatı içindesiniz? :
7. Ne kadardır bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz? :
8. Çalıştığınız kurum hangi sektörde?  Kamu  Özel

Anketimiz sona ermiştir, katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.