Does Approach Crafting Always Benefit? The Moderating Role of Job Insecurity

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Abstract

By integrating job demands-resources theory with social information processing theory, we examined how and when seeking challenges and seeking resources influence employees' turnover intention and helping behavior. We propose that seeking challenges and seeking resources increase employees' psychological capital. We furthermore suggest that the effects of seeking challenges and seeking resources on psychological capital are moderated by job insecurity, such that employees with high job insecurity will gain more psychological capital through seeking challenges and less psychological capital through seeking resources. Results from a multiwave, multisource study using a sample of 245 supervisor-subordinate dyads provided support for our hypotheses. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: approach crafting; job insecurity; psychological capital; helping behavior; turnover intention

The highly competitive global economy, combined with rapidly growing technology over the past few decades, has led to an increasing level of uncertainty in the workplaces. Employees thus are expected to improve the fit with their jobs through shaping and managing their own jobs. As a result of these trends, researchers have emphasized job crafting as self-initiated behaviors through which employees can shape, mold, and redefine their jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 180). One prominent job crafting is to enrich and expand one's job boundaries by seeking challenges and resources at work (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012), which has been referred to approach crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018).

Research on the consequences of approach crafting has indicated that employees engaging in approach crafting are more satisfied with their work (e.g., Cheng & Yi, 2018), perform better (e.g., Dubbelt, Demerouti, & Rispens, 2019) and participate in more organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Lin, Law, & Zhou, 2017). Recent developments in the literature on approach crafting have focused on understanding how approach crafting leads to such desired outcomes and thereby contributed to a more balanced understanding of the consequences of approach crafting (Cheng & Yi, 2018; Teng, 2019). In a recent review of the job crafting literature, Zhang and Parker (2018) identify job demands-resources (JD-R) theory as the key theoretical mechanisms explaining outcomes of job crafting. JD-R theory describes how demands and resources interact, and predict important organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Moreover, studies based on JD-R theory suggest that approach crafting has a positive impact on employees' personal resources (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014; Shin, Hur, & Kang, 2018). Thus, the benefits of approach crafting come from the personal resources which employees get through extending their work boundaries.

Given the connection between approach crafting and a variety of important outcomes, it is not surprising that scholars recommend the training to increase both types of approach crafting (i.e., seeking challenges and seeking resources) in organizations (e.g., Guan & Frenkel, 2018). Yet, as noted above, the value of approach crafting may be limited if the employee is not able to get resources through approach crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Extending previous studies, we argue that job insecurity, the perception of a potential threat to continuity in one's current job (De Witte, 1999), plays a critical role in determining the degree to which employees engaging in approach crafting will gain personal resources. Changes in economic condition and technology also result in heightened perceptions of job insecurity among employees (Shoss, 2017). According to the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), job insecurity may attenuate the benefits of seeking resources because it provides social cues that the norm of reciprocity between them and the organization are violated, thus decreasing employees' ability to seeking advice and feedback from supervisors (Lu, Du, Xu, & Zhang, 2017). As such, even employees who engage in approach crafting tend to gain only few personal resources. In contrast, job insecurity may strengthen the benefits of seeking challenges because it provides social cues that employees have more incentives to perform (Fried et al., 2003).

In this paper, we draw upon JD-R theory to suggest that approach crafting has the potential to increase employee's psychological capital, which has been identified as one important personal resource (Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2016). We then advance existing theory by integrating JD-R theory with the social information processing theory and arguing that this effect is contingent on job insecurity such that the relationship between seeking challenges and psychological capital will be stronger whereas the relationship between seeking resources and

psychological capital will be weaker as job insecurity increases. Additionally, we focus on one attitudinal outcome-turnover intention, and one behavioral outcome –helping behavior. One reason is that both a low level of turnover intention and a high level of helping behavior are crucial for organizational performance (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017; Organ, 2018). A better understanding of how approach crafting might promote these outcomes is of paramount importance. The other reason is that findings regarding the effect of approach crafting on turnover intention (e.g., Esteves & Lopes, 2017; Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) and helping behavior (e.g., Guan & Frenkel, 2018; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015) are somewhat mixed. In the present study, we aim to disentangle these mixed findings by theorizing that the indirect effects of approach crafting on these outcomes via psychological capital are depend on employee's level of job insecurity. Our theoretical model is presented in Figure 1.

Our research offers several contributions to the existing literature. First, we extend the JD-R theory by shedding light on job insecurity as a critical contextual factor that influences the relationship between approach crafting and personal resources. As such, this study not only contributes to the understanding of the consequences of approach crafting but also allows us to offer suggestions for how organizations guide employees in different contexts to craft their job. Second, we examine the downstream effects of this interaction on the two key outcomes that the literature has linked differently to approach crafting; namely, turnover intention and helping behavior. Third, exploring job insecurity as an important contingency of the effect of approach crafting on psychological capital grants novel understanding about the nature and limits of approach crafting. In doing so, we answer Zhang and Parker (2018) call for research that examines boundary conditions of job crafting.

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THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Job crafting was firstly defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work. According to Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), job crafting behaviors can be divided into three types: task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting. However, another stream of literature based on JD-R theory defined job crafting as the changes employees make to balance their job demands and job resources (Petrou et al., 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). For instance, Petrou et al. (2012) identified three dimensions of job crafting: seeking challenges, seeking resources and reducing demands. These two definitions differ in the content employees change in their work. While the former focuses on changes in different job boundaries, the latter focuses on changes in job characteristics (Zhang & Parker, 2018).

In addition, recent literature has made a distinction on job crafting orientations (e.g., Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2018; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2016). One is approach crafting which enriches and expands employee's job boundaries while another one is avoidance crafting which reduces and limits employee's job boundaries (Zhang & Parker, 2018). According to Bruning and Campion (2018), approach crafting includes activities such as increasing resources and challenging job demands in one's job. This aligns with the seeking challenges and seeking resources dimensions that have been identified by Petrou et al. (2012). Seeking challenges includes activities such as taking on more responsibilities and asking for more tasks whereas seeking resource includes activities such as asking supervisors and colleagues for advice, seeking feedback on job performance and seeking learning opportunities (Petrou et al., 2012). In the following sections, we will discuss how and

when different types of approach crafting (i.e., seeking challenges and seeking resources) increase personal resources (i.e., psychological capital) and indirectly related to favorable outcomes (i.e., more helping behavior and lower turnover intention).

Approach Crafting and Psychological Capital

Psychological capital, an individual's positive psychological state of development, has been identified as consisting of four positive personal resources: self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Based on the JD-R theory (Bakker et al., 2014), we propose that seeking challenges and seeking resources will enhance employee's psychological capital from these four aspects.

Regarding seeking challenges, employees who take on more tasks and responsibilities in their work are likely to gain mastery experiences through verifying their capabilities (Shin et al., 2018). They thus become more confidence in putting the necessary effort to succeed at following tasks, resulting in high levels of self-efficacy. Seeking challenges also provides employees with a pathway to achieve their work goals, improving their hope. For example, proactively asking for more job tasks may make a good impression on the supervisor which in turn increases employees' hope to gain a high-performance evaluation (Shoss, 2017). Moreover, through proactively regulating one's job tasks, employees gain a sense of personal control which helps them to hold positive expectations toward future events occurring in the workplace (Vogt, Hakanen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2016). In terms of resilience, employees seeking challenges are more likely to meet difficulties and problems than other people, which fosters their experiences on how to overcome adverse situations and improve their future resilience (Shin et al., 2018). With these arguments, we propose that seeking challenges will have a

positive impact on employees' psychological capital.

H1: Seeking challenges is positively related to psychological capital.

We also propose that employees' psychological capital will increase when they seek resources. First, colleagues and supervisors may give advice based on their former experience. At the meanwhile, employees gain vicarious experience from them which is a key mechanism of the development of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In other words, employees will be more confident in completing tasks when they find that colleagues and supervisors have successfully completed them in the past. Second, seeking advice or feedback from colleagues and supervisors are likely to help employees identify a pathway to solve one problem or finish one task, strengthening employees' hope (Vogt et al., 2016). Third, feedback helps employees monitor their own behavior and performance through the perspective of others, so as to curb the occurrence of negative situations in a timely manner and enhance their optimism for the future (Ashford, 1986). Fourth, seeking advice and learning opportunities increase available resources which can be used to overcome difficulties, subsequently building one's resilience (Cenciotti, Alessandri, & Borgogni, 2017). Even negative feedback and failure in learning is likely to inspire employees to bounce back and exceed their former performance (Verhage, Oosterman, & Schuengel, 2015). Taken together, we suggest that seeking resources is positively associated with psychological capital. Thus, we posit the following hypothesis:

H2: Seeking resources is positively related to psychological capital.

Moderating Effects of Job Insecurity

As we elaborated above, many of the benefits of approach crafting come from the personal resources got through the crafting process. As such, job crafters must have

opportunities to craft their jobs in meaningful and successful ways (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus, although seeking challenges and seeking resources possess attributes that are theorized to contribute to rich personal resources, the development of personal resources is contingent on contextual factors that go beyond the employee's ability.

Drawing from social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), we theorize that high job insecurity strengthens the positive impact of seeking challenges on psychological capital by increasing the incentives to perform better than other workers (Shoss, 2017). According to the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), individual beliefs and behaviors are influenced by the social cues they receive from the environment. On this point, the job insecurity literature suggests that employees working with high job insecurity will increase effort in their work because they believe that the lay-off decisions are contingent upon the value of each individual to the organization (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Such a social cue may enhance the potential incentives for seeking challenges. Given that verifying one's capabilities is a key to the formation of self-efficacy (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017), seeking challenges under high job insecurity will result in more self-efficacy as well as improving employee's hope such as being preserved in the current organization.

In addition, according to Hobfoll (2002), resources acquire will be more salient when individuals are experiencing resource loss. As one job stressors, job insecurity inevitably leads to a condition of resource depletion (Lee, Huang, & Ashford, 2018). Compared with employees with no concern about involuntary leaving, employees with job insecurity will gain more mastery experiences and sense of control through seeking challenges because doing

so meets with their need and are more meaningful to them (Gilboa et al., 2008). Therefore, we propose that the positive effect of seeking challenges on psychological capital will become more evident when employees are with high job insecurity.

H3: Job insecurity moderates the positive relationship between seeking challenges and psychological capital, such that the relationship will be stronger when job insecurity is high.

Job insecurity also signals a broken organization-employee relationship (Costa & Neves, 2017). Employees with high job insecurity tend to feel that the organization has failed to fulfill promised obligations (i.e., psychological contract breach) (Robinson & Wolfe Morrison, 2000). High job insecurity also means that resources for career development such as learning opportunities are less likely to invest in employees because organizations may not maintain a long-term relationship with them (Costa & Neves, 2017). In addition, supervisors are considered as the most salient organizational agents who are responsible for a psychological contract breach (Bordia, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2010). Therefore, job insecurity may undermine employees' expectations of reciprocal obligations such as providing guidance and advice, which are supposed to be fulfilled by their supervisors. Given the unsupportive environment signaled by job insecurity, we suggest that seeking resources under high job insecurity will poorly contribute to employees' personal resources.

Furthermore, research has suggested that employees perceiving job insecurity are concerned about how they are perceived by others, thus are motivated to manage their impressions (G. H. Huang, Zhao, Niu, Ashford, & Lee, 2013). Considering that individuals who seek advice or help from others may be seen as incompetent (Uy, Lin, & Ilies, 2017), seeking advice may be less likely to improve one's psychological capital under a high-

insecure situation. In sum, for employees with a high level of job insecurity, seeking resources may not yield an increase in one's psychological capital.

H4: Job insecurity moderates the positive relationship between seeking resources and psychological capital, such that the relationship will be weaker when job insecurity is high.

Implications for Turnover Intention and Helping Behavior

Drawing from the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), we further propose that psychological capital established through seeking challenges and resources influences important employee attitudes and behavior. First, a strong psychological capital weakens employees' turnover intentions (Siu, Cheung, & Lui, 2015). Specifically, employees with high psychological capital are more confident in successfully handling future work (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Thus, they will not escape from their current job no matter what difficulties will be encountered (McNatt & Judge, 2008). Research also suggested that psychological capital help employees bounce back from setbacks and resist stressful circumstances, thereby reducing their intentions to leave (Siu et al., 2015). Moreover, psychological capital enables employees' task accomplishment by providing alternative pathways, which in turn motivated employees to be more focused on their work (Paterson, Luthans, & Jeung, 2014) rather than to quit. Supporting our arguments, meta-analytic research indicated that psychological capital has a negative relationship with turnover intention (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011).

Second, high psychological capital may result in higher levels of helping behavior (Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier, & Snow, 2009; Gupta, Shaheen, & Reddy, 2017). Employees with strong psychological capital are likely to generate positive emotions which in

turn motivates them to help others at work (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008).

Psychological capital also represents employees' positive expectations of future work circumstances in the current organization (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Given potential gains, employees are more willing to contribute to organizations by engaging in helping behavior (Gooty et al., 2009). Additionally, psychological capital triggers employees' agentic capacity that directs them toward accomplishing work-related goals (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010). Thus, employees are likely to be more engaged in work and display more extra-role behavior such as helping behavior when their psychological capital increases (Gupta et al., 2017).

To sum up, we suggest that when employees seeking challenges and resources at work, they should gain more psychological capital, motivating them to help and migrating their turnover intentions. Combining these predictions with our previous theorizing regarding the moderating effect of job insecurity, we propose that the indirect effects of seeking challenges on helping behavior and turnover intention through psychological capital will be strengthened as employees' job insecurity increases. In contrast, we propose that the indirect effects of seeking resources on helping behavior and turnover intention through psychological capital will be weakened as employees' job insecurity increases. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H5: Job insecurity moderates the indirect effect of seeking challenges on a) turnover intention and b) helping behavior via psychological capital, such that the relationship is stronger when employee's job insecurity is high.

H6: Job insecurity moderates the indirect effect of seeking resources on a) turnover intention and b) helping behavior via psychological capital, such that the relationship is weaker when employee's job insecurity is high.

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

We invited 401 employees working at two companies in China to participate in this study. All participants were informed that their participation should be completely voluntary. Surveys were sent to each of these employees and their corresponding direct supervisors. A total of 245 dyads successfully completed the study (61.1% response rate). Employees were an average of 30 years old, 64.9% male, and their average organizational tenure was approximately 3 years. 62.9% of the employees received at least a bachelor's degree. Survey data were collected at two time points. At Time 1, employees provided demographic information and completed measures of approach crafting and job insecurity. At Time 2, approximately one month later, employees were requested to complete measures of psychological capital and turnover intention. Supervisors completed a measure of their helping behavior.

Measures

We followed the translation/back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980) to translate the measures from English to Chinese. Except for the measure of psychological capital, participants responded to all measures using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

Approach crafting. We assessed approach crafting using 7 items from the job crafting scale developed by Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2016) that assesses three job crafting

behaviors: seeking challenges, seeking resources and reducing demands. Seeking challenges was assessed with three items. A sample item is "I ask for more responsibilities". The Cronbach's alpha was .72. Seeking resources was assessed with four items. A sample item is "I ask my supervisor for advice". The Cronbach's alpha was .85.

Psychological capital. We measured psychological capital with a 12-item, shortened version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans et al., 2007). This shorter version has been used and validated in a number of published studies with a Chinese sample (e.g., L. Huang & Luthans, 2015; Luthans, Avey, Clapp-Smith, & Li, 2008). All 12 items were measured on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree", 6 = "Strongly Agree"). Sample items included: "Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work" (hope); "I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues" (efficacy); "I usually take stressful things at work in my stride" (resilience); and "I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work" (optimism). Cronbach's alpha was .94.

Job insecurity. We measured employees' job insecurity using the four-item scale developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975). An example item is "How certain are you of the opportunities for promotion and advancement which will exist in the next few years?". Cronbach's alpha was .71.

Turnover intention. We measured employees' turnover intention using the four-item scale developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999). Sample items are "I am thinking about leaving this organization" and "I am planning to look for a new job". Cronbach's alpha was .97.

Helping behavior. We measured supervisor-rated employees' helping behavior using five items from the altruism scale developed by (Philip M Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, &

Fetter, 1990) that assesses employees' helping behavior in the workplace. Sample items are "Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her" and "Helps orient new people even though it is not required". Cronbach's alpha was .93.

Control variables. We controlled employees' organizational tenure and educational level in our analyses because previous studies indicated that both impact turnover intention and helping behavior. More specifically, a meta-analysis showed that employees with shorter organizational tenure or higher educational level had more turnover intentions (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Also, previous research has suggested that long-tenure or high-educated employees are rewarded with higher earnings because of their high knowledge and skill levels, and thus have greater incentives to increase organizational citizenship behavior toward others (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2009).

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Before testing our hypotheses, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the discriminant validity of our key variables (seeking challenges, seeking resources, job insecurity, psychological capital, turnover intention and helping behavior). Considering the small sample size relative to the measurement items, we used item parceling to reduce the number of indicators of each construct (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). As shown in Table 1, our six-factor baseline model produced acceptable fit: χ^2 (237) = 515.61, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .07. We tested the discriminant validity of the proposed six-factor model by comparing it with alternative models. The fit indexes in Table 1 reveal that the six-factor model fits the data considerably better than did any of the alternative models,

confirming discriminant validity. We thus decided to retain our baseline model and proceed to test the proposed hypotheses. Although our data came from two different sources (subordinates and supervisors) at two different time points, common method bias might still influence some relations in our model such as the links among the employee-rated variables. Thus, following the methods recommended by Philip M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), we examined the effects of adding a latent common method factor to the six-factor model. The common methods factor only accounted for 9.7 percent of the total variance explained by the model, which was less than a median amount (25%) of variance explained by a common methods factor (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989), suggesting that common method variance was not a pervasive problem. The descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

Hypotheses Testing

We conducted bootstrapping analyses using Mplus 7. Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 proposed that seeking challenges and seeking resources are positively related to psychological capital. As shown in Table 3, seeking challenges (b = .22, p< .01) and seeking resources (b = .43, p< .001) were both positively related to psychological capital, supporting Hypothesis 1 and 2.

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 depicted how job insecurity moderates the effects of seeking challenges and seeking resources on psychological capital. As shown in Table 3, the interaction term for seeking challenges and job insecurity was positively related to

psychological capital (b = .34, p < .01). Figure 2 shows a plot of this moderation effect (Aiken & West, 1991). Simple slope tests demonstrate that the relationship between seeking challenges and psychological capital was significantly positive at a high level of job insecurity (simple slope = .45, p< .001), but not significant at a low level of job insecurity (simple slope = -.02, n.s.). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Insert Figure 2 about here

As shown in Table 3, the interaction term for seeking resources and job insecurity was negatively related to psychological capital (b = -.34, p < .01). We also plotted this moderation effect in Figure 3. Results of simple slope test showed that the relationship between seeking resources and psychological capital was significantly positive at a low level of job insecurity (simple slope = .66, p< .001), but not significant at a high level of job insecurity (simple slope = .19, n.s.). Hypothesis 4 was thus supported.

Insert Figure 3 about here

We further examined the conditional indirect effects proposed in Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6. Following Edwards and Lambert (2007), we calculated mediation effects at high and low levels of job insecurity (i.e., +/- 1 S.D from the mean of job insecurity). Using Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach (Selig & Preacher, 2008), we also estimated the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) to justify the significance of these conditional indirect effects. Results of the conditional indirect effect were presented in the lower part of Table 4. The indirect effect of seeking challenges on turnover intention (indirect effect = -.14, 95%CI [-.22, -.07]) and helping behavior (indirect effect = .10, 95%CI [.04, .17]) via psychological capital was significant

among employees with high job insecurity, but not significant among employees with low job insecurity. The differences in the indirect effects of seeking challenges at high and low levels of job insecurity were significant for turnover intention (difference = .15, 95%CI [.03, 27]) and helping behavior (difference = -.10, 95%CI [- .19, -01]). Thus, Hypothesis 5a and Hypothesis 5b were supported.

In contrast, the indirect effect of seeking resources on turnover intention (indirect effect = -.21, 95%CI [-.32, -.10]) and helping behavior (indirect effect = .14, 95%CI [.06, .24]) via psychological capital was significant among employees with low job insecurity, but not significant among employees with high job insecurity. The differences in the indirect effects of seeking resources at high and low levels of job insecurity were significant for turnover intention (difference = -.15, 95%CI [-.26, -.03]) and helping behavior (difference = .10, 95%CI [.02, 19]), supporting Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6b. The results of these analyses suggest that the indirect effects of seeking challenges and seeking resources on helping behavior and turnover intention via psychological capital are contingent on individuals' level of job insecurity.

Insert Table 4 about here

DISCUSSION

By integrating the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), this research increases our understanding of when approach crafting can influence workplace outcomes in a positive or negative manner. Using multi-wave and multisource data collected from employees and their supervisors, our research found that seeking challenges and seeking resources would result in an increase in employees' psychological capital. Furthermore, we identified job insecurity as an important moderator of

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these effects. We discuss the theoretical and practical implications of our research in the following sections.

Theoretical Implications

This study makes several theoretical contributions. First, our research contributes to the JD-R theory through the integration of social information processing theory. The resulting framework from this integration enhances the boundary condition of JD-R theory by demonstrating a situation in which individuals modify their job demands and resources through job crafting effectively or ineffectively (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Recent research has integrated job crafting into the JD-R theory, suggesting that job crafting may help increase job resources and decrease job demands (Bakker et al., 2014). Our research specifically enriches JD-R theory by suggesting that high levels of job insecurity inhibit an employee's ability to acquire resources through seeking resources whereas enhances the ability to acquire resources through seeking challenges. Thus, our findings indicate that the JD-R theory must account for the influence of contextual factors such as job insecurity when considering the effects of job crafting on job resources.

Second, answers the call from Zhang and Parker (2018) to empirically examine the contextual factor which influences the effect of job crafting, which is critical for the theoretical development of job crafting. Our findings represent a novel contribution in showing that when seeking resources is combined with high levels of job insecurity, its positive effect diminished. Given that the majority of research on approach crafting found a significantly positive effect, this research highlights the importance of accounting for contextual factors when considering the effect of approach crafting on personal resources.

Furthermore, our research disentangles previously mixed findings on the effect of approach crafting on turnover intention and helping behavior by highlighting a resource-based mechanism that links approach crafting to different attitudes and behaviors under different contexts. For example, some studies found a positive relationship between approach crafting and OCBI (i.e., helping behavior) (e.g., Guan & Frenkel, 2018). However, Tims et al. (2015) conducted a longitudinal study and found a non-significant relationship. Similarly, a meta-analysis found that the relationship between increasing challenging demands and turnover intention was non-significant (Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017). Our findings revealed that psychological capital provided subtle and meaningful explanations for the influence of job insecurity on the resources acquire process through different types of approach crafting.

Practical Implications

The findings of the present study have practical implications as well. Given a positive impact on employees' work engagement, organizations are encouraging employees to engage in approach crafting (Zhang & Parker, 2018). However, our findings suggest that job insecurity can weaken the influence of seeking resources whereas enhance the influence of seeking challenges. Thus, we suggest considering the context in which employees work and the applicability of different job crafting behaviors in that context. For example, when employees in organizations are experiencing job insecurity, managers might design job crafting intervention programs which motivate employees to actively seek challenges at work, as well as increase employees' ability to solve problems independently, so as to avoid employees seeking resources from others.

Furthermore, to the extent that psychological capital contributes to lower turnover

intention and more helping behavior, our research suggests that such desired outcomes can also be achieved by improving employees' psychological capital. For example, organizations can help employees build or strengthen psychological capital by encouraging learning among workers and adjusting to organizational change (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite using a multi-wave and multisource design, the present research has a few limitations. Although temporal separation strengthens causal inference, there still might be a potential for reverse causality. Future research might examine the causality of the relationships proposed in our research by conducting experiments. In addition, although we collect data from both employees and supervisors, most of our model variables were assessed via self-report, which may lead to common method bias. Thus, we tested the potential influence of common method bias as recommended by Philip M. Podsakoff et al. (2003). The result of this test indicated that common method bias may not be a major concern in our study.

Another limitation of our study is that we only include job insecurity as one contextual factor which may influence the impact of approach crafting on the focal outcomes. Future research should build on our findings by examining the role of other contextual factors in the resource acquire process. For example, leadership styles may influence the effectiveness of approach crafting, such that approach crafting may be difficult when supervisors do not give employees much autonomy to alter their work boundaries (Nagy, Johnston, Hirschi, & Psychology, 2019).

Conclusion

Our research extends the boundary conditions of approach crafting by integrating the JD-

R theory with the social information processing theory. The findings suggest that under high levels of job insecurity, employees who seek challenges gain more psychological capital, and in turn respond with more helping behavior and lower turnover intention while employees who seek resources behave in opposite ways. We hope that the current research inspires further exploration regarding how job crafting and contextual factors interact to shape and facilitate a more positive workplace.

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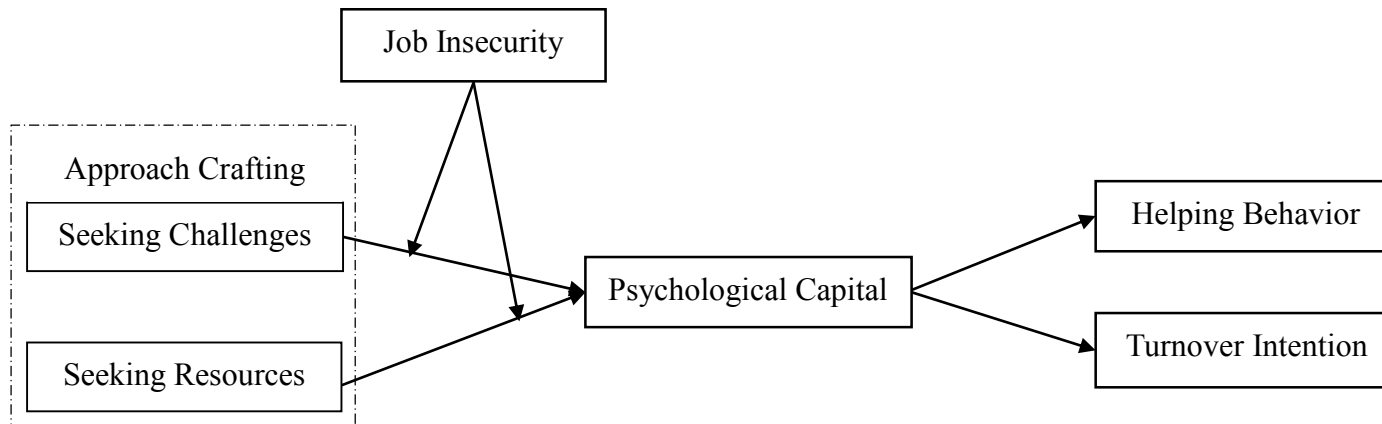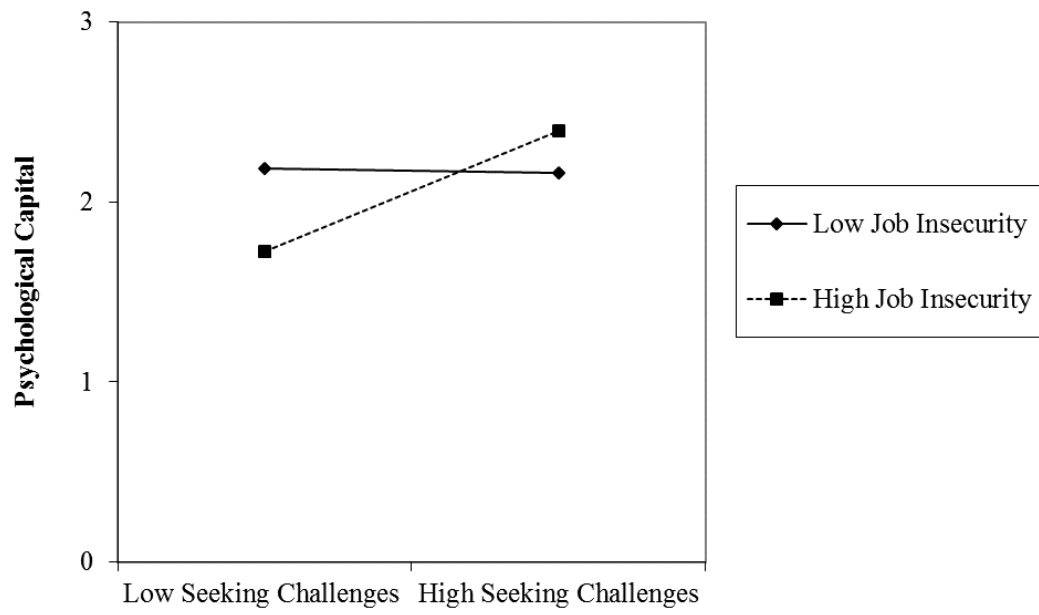
Figure 1. Research Model

Figure 2. The moderating effect of job insecurity on the relationship between seeking challenges and psychological capital.
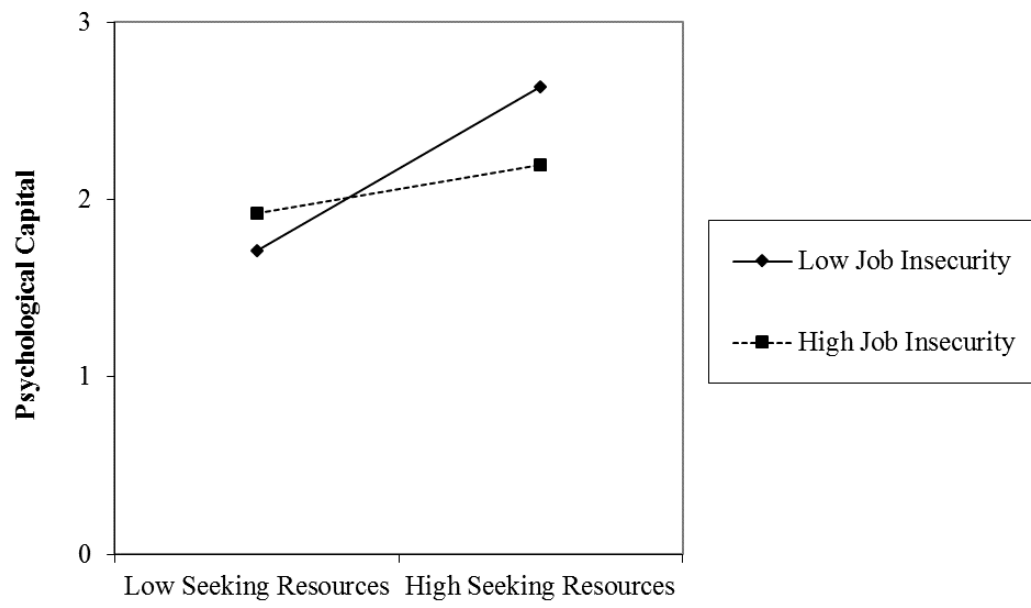
Figure 3. The moderating effect of job insecurity on the relationship between seeking resources and psychological capital.

Table 1

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Six-factor model	515.61	237	.94	.93	.07	.07
Four-factors model[a]	2300.28	246	.53	.47	.19	.21
Four-factor model[b]	718.55	246	.89	.88	.09	.10
Two-factor model[c]	2532.41	251	.48	.43	.19	.18
One-factor model[d]	3477.20	252	.26	.19	.23	.22

Note. N = 245; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

[a] This model combines, from the six-factor model, turnover intention, psychological capital and helping behavior to form a Time 2 factor. [b] This model combines, from the six-factor model, seeking challenges, seeking resources, and job insecurity to form a Time 1 factor. [c] We combined all items reported by employees to form an employee-rating factor, whereas helping behavior remained as another rating factor. [d] We combined all measurement items into one factor.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Education level	1.68	.56								
2. Organization tenure	3.02	2.63	-.32**							
3. Seeking challenges	3.39	.74	-.29**	.21**	(.72)					
4. Seeking resources	3.50	.70	-.30**	.31**	.66**	(.85)				
5. Job insecurity	2.33	.69	.11	.15*	.06	-.11	(.71)			
6. Psychological capital	4.39	.77	-.07	.07	.42**	.48**	-.11	(.94)		
7. Turnover intention	1.58	.90	-.21**	.27**	.02	.11	.13*	-.24**	(.97)	
8. Helping behavior	3.72	.87	-.07	.09	.15*	.22**	-.08	.20**	-.05	(.93)

Notes. N = 245; Education level: 1 = college and below, 2 = undergraduate, 3 = master and above; Organization tenure were counted by years; Cronbach's

alphas are reported in the parentheses on the diagonal.

*p< .05, **p< .01

Table 3

Results for Regression Analyses

Variables	Psychological Capital		Helping Behavior		Turnover Intention	
	Estimate (SE)		Estimate (SE)		Estimate (SE)	
Intercept	2.12***	(.37)	2.81***	(.37)	3.07***	(.37)
Education level	.14	(.08)	-.06	(.11)	-.23*	(.10)
Organizational tenure	-.01	(.02)	.02	(.02)	.08***	(.02)
Seeking Challenges	.22**	(.08)				
Seeking Resources	.43***	(.09)				
Job Insecurity	-.08	(.06)				
Seeking Challenges × Job Insecurity	.34**	(.12)				
Seeking Resources × Job Insecurity	-.34**	(.11)				
Psychological Capital			.21**	(.06)	-.31***	(.08)

Note. N = 245. Unstandardized coefficients were reported. Standard errors are displayed in parentheses.

*$p \le .05$ **$p \le .01$ ***$p \le .001$

Table 4

Indirect and Conditional Indirect Effects of Seeking challenges and Seeking Resources via Psychological Capital

Variables			Seeking challenges		Seeking resources	
			Estimate (SE)	95%CI	Estimate (SE)	95%CI
Conditional Indirect Effects	Helping Behavior	Low JI	-.00 (.02)	[-.04, .03]	.14 (.05)	[.06, .24]
		High JI	.10 (.04)	[.04, .17]	.04 (.03)	[-.01, .09]
		Difference	-.10 (.05)	[-.19, -.01]	.10 (.04)	[.02, .19]
	Turnover Intention	Low JI	.01 (.03)	[-.04, .06]	-.21 (.06)	[-.32, -.10]
		High JI	-.14 (.05)	[-.22, -.07]	-.06 (.04)	[-.12, .01]
		Difference	.15 (.06)	[.03, .27]	-.15 (.06)	[-.26, -.03]

Notes. N = 245; Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Standard errors are in the parentheses; Bootstrap sample size =20,000; DV = dependent variables; IV = independent variables; JI = job insecurity; 95% CI refers to 95% confidence intervals; High and Low refer to one standard deviation above and below the mean value of job insecurity.