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**THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED SELF-EFFICACY IN FACILITATING
WORK BEHAVIOR AND NONWORK RESPONSIBILITIES**

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VLOGA ZAZNANE SAMOUČINKOVITOSTI PRI VEDENJU NA DELOVNEM MESTU IN NEDELOVNIH OBVEZNOSTIH

POVZETEK

Organizacije in zaposleni delujejo v hitro spreminjajočem se okolju, kjer je vedno težje usklajevati delovne in nedelovne obveznosti. Rastoča soodvisnost delovnih opravil, povečane delovne zahteve za posamezne zaposlene, hitrost njihovega dela in prekomerna delovna obremenjenost vplivajo na vedenje zaposlenih pri delu (Chan et al., 2016; Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). Istočasno pa so prisotna visoka družbena pričakovanja z vidika osebnega življenja, osebnostne rasti in skrbništva. Vse te spremembe so spodbudile znanstveno zanimanje glede vedenja na delovnem mestu in nedelovnih obveznosti (Amstad, Demerouti, & Semmer, 2016; Derks, Bakker, Peters, & van Wingerden, 2016; Martinez-Corts, Demerouti, Bakker, & Boz, 2015). Glavni cilj disertacije je analiza različnih vlog zaznane samoučinkovitosti pri vedenju na delovnem mestu in drugih področjih življenja. Vključene vloge samoučinkovitosti so moderatorska, mediatorska in napovedovalna.

V prvem poglavju smo analizirali moderatorsko vlogo samoučinkovitosti, pri čemer je socialno-kognitivna karierna teorija (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hacket, 1994) služila kot teoretski okvir. Predvideli smo, da bo samoučinkovitost zavzela moderatorsko vlogo v odnosu med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Nadalje smo analizirali, če družinske obveznosti vplivajo na naravo razmerja med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo žensk in moških kot to moderira zaznana samoučinkovitost. Hipotezi som preverili na vzorcu 5804 univerzitetnih diplomantov (3769 moških, 2035 žensk). Ugotovili smo, da samoučinkovitost moderira razmerje med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo pri ženskah, pri moških pa ne. Poleg tega obstajajo razlike na moderatorski ravni znotraj spola. Podrobneje igrajo (zunaj)zakonska zveza in/ali vzdrževani družinski člani v gospodinjstvu pomembno vlogo pri razlikovanju pomembnosti moderatorja pri ženskah. Pri poročenih ženskah ali tistih z vzdrževanimi družinskimi člani je bil moderator značilen. Pri ženskah, ki so glavne hranilke gospodinjstva, moderator ni bil značilen. Razlike pri moških z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi so prav tako bile potrjene. Vzdrževani družinski člani v gospodinjstvu so igrali ključno vlogo pri značilnosti samoučinkovitosti kot moderatorja v povezavi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Pri moških v (zunaj)zakonski zvezi in pri samskih moderator ni bil značilen. Pri poročenih moških z vzdrževanimi družinskimi člani je samoučinkovitost okrepila zvezo med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo.

V drugem poglavju smo analizirali mediatorsko vlogo samoučinkovitosti. Na podlagi teoretičnega modela *Work-Home Resources* smo pričakovali, da bo samoučinkovitost mediirala odnos med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in facilitacijo delo-jaz, ki odraža pozitiven vpliv dela na posameznikove osebne interese (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Nadalje smo napovedali, da bo komunikacija vodja-član moderirala odnos med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo. Hipotezi smo preverili na

vzorcu 204 zaposlenih. Ugotovili smo, da je samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela pozitivno povezano s samoučinkovitostjo. Prav tako smo ugotovili, da je samoučinkovitost pozitivno povezana s facilitacijo delo-jaz. Nadalje smo ugotovili, da kakovost izmenjave sodelavec-vodja moderira odnos med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo. Poleg tega smo ugotovili, da je samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela s facilitacijo delo-jaz povezano s pogojnimi posrednimi učinki, kot so moderiran odnos sodelavec-vodja in mediiiran s samoučinkovitostjo. Z vidika moderacije so rezultati pokazali, da visoka kakovost odnosa sodelavec-vodja krepi pozitivno povezavo med samoučinkovitostjo in facilitacijo delo-jaz.

V tretjem poglavju smo predvideli, da bo samoučinkovitost napovedovalec vedenja na delovnem mestu kot na primer pri vedenju v dobrobit organizacije oziroma državljskem vedenju. Za razliko od preteklih študij smo predpostavili nelinearno razmerje med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in državljskim vedenjem z uporabo teorije nadzora (Powers, 1973) kot teoretičnega okvira. Nadalje smo predvidevali, da bo skupna interakcija samoučinkovitosti, obogatitve družina-delo ter osredotočenosti na napredovanje pozitivno povezano z državljskim vedenjem. Hipotezo smo preverili na 198 zaposlenih klicnega centra. Čeprav teorija podpira obstoj nelinearne zveze, nismo pokazali, da obstaja črki U inverzna zveza med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in državljskim vedenjem. Vendar smo ugotovili, da povezava med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in državljskim vedenjem za zaposlene, ki sočasno doživljajo obogatitev družina-delo, riše funkcijo v obliki črke U. Glede druge hipoteze v tem poglavju smo ugotovili, da obstaja trojna interakcija med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo, obogatitvijo družina-delo ter osredotočenostjo na napredovanje.

Pričujoča disertacija k obstoječemu razumevanju vedenja zaposlenih dodaja tri ključna spoznanja glede vlog samoučinkovitosti pri vedenju na delovnem mestu in nedelovnem področju. Prvo spoznanje literaturi na področju samoučinkovitosti dodaja njeno vlogo moderatorske spremenljivke v povezavi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo, hkrati pa kaže, kakšen vpliv imajo družinske obveznosti na moderatorsko vlogo samoučinkovitosti v omenjeni povezavi. Drugo spoznanje disertacije je delovanje samoučinkovitosti kot dejanski mehanizem v povezavi med proaktivnim vedenjem na delovnem mestu in facilitaciji delo-jaz. Tretje pa se kaže skozi večplastno razumevanje napovedovalnih dejavnikov vedenja na delovnem mestu, tj. vedenje v dobrobit organizaciji oziroma državljsko vedenje, ki ga lahko preizkusimo in dokažemo skozi trojno interakcijo samoučinkovitosti, obogatitve družina-delo ter osredotočenosti na napredovanje in povezanostjo le-te z državljskim vedenjem.

Ključne besede: samoučinkovitost, karierna identiteta, karierna zavezanost, družinske obveznosti, ženske, moški, samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela, facilitacija delo-jaz, izmenjava sodelavec-vodja, obogatitev družina-delo, osredotočenost na napredovanje, državljsko vedenje.

THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED SELF-EFFICACY IN FACILITATING WORK BEHAVIOR AND NONWORK RESPONSIBILITIES

SUMMARY

Organisations and employees are operating in a fast paced changing environment in which balancing between work-nonwork responsibilities has become increasingly difficult. The growing interdependence of workplace tasks, increasing demands on individual workers and speed of work, and work overload are impacting employee work behaviour (Chan et al., 2016; Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). At the same time the societal expectations are also high when it comes to personal lives, self-development and caregiving. All these changes have prompted scholarly interest in discovering what impacts work behaviour and non-work responsibilities (Amstad, Demerouti, & Semmer, 2016; Derks, Bakker, Peters, & van Wingerden, 2016; Martinez-Corts, Demerouti, Bakker, & Boz, 2015). As such, the main aim of the dissertation is to analyse the different roles played by perceived self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities. The roles of self-efficacy to be tested are namely that of moderator, mediator, and predicting variable.

In Chapter 1, I analysed the moderator role of self-efficacy, drawing on Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). More specifically, I proposed that self-efficacy will play a moderating role in the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Further, I analysed whether family obligations influence the nature of relationship between a female and male employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy. Hypotheses were tested on a sample of 5804 university alumni (males 3769, females 2035). I found that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between career identity and career commitment for females but not for males. Additionally, there are differences within genders at the moderator level. Specifically, being married/cohabiting and/or having dependents in the household played an important factor in establishing differences within females with regards to the importance of the moderator. For females who were married and/or had dependents the moderator was significant. For females who were primary breadwinner in the household the moderator was insignificant. Differences within males with different family obligations have also been confirmed. Having dependents in the household played a decisive role in the significance of self-efficacy as moderator. For males who were married/cohabit or who were single the moderator was insignificant for either group. Meanwhile, for males who were married and had dependents self-efficacy strengthened the relationship between career identity and career commitment.

In Chapter 2, I analysed the mediator role of self-efficacy. I proposed that self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job crafting and work-self facilitation, building on Work-Home Resources model (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Furthermore, I proposed that leader-member exchange will moderate the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. The hypotheses were tested on a sample of 204 employees. I found that job crafting

leads to self-efficacy. Further, I found that self-efficacy leads to work–self facilitation. Moreover, the results showed that leader–member exchange moderates the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. Such a result shows that the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy is stronger for individuals with a higher quality of leader–member exchange. In addition, I found that job crafting is related to work–self facilitation via conditional indirect effects, such that its relationship is moderated by leader–member exchange and mediated by self-efficacy. Regarding moderation, the results indicate that a high quality of leader–member exchange strengthens the positive association between self-efficacy and work–self facilitation. With this study I demonstrated that self-efficacy is the missing link relating the work domain to the home domain.

In Chapter 3, I proposed that self-efficacy is a predictor to a work behaviour variable such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Unlike in previous studies, I proposed a curvilinear relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB, using control theory (Powers, 1973) as the overarching theory. Furthermore, I proposed that joint interaction among job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus will impact service delivery OCB. I tested the hypotheses on a sample of 198 call centre employees. Although the theory provides support for a U-shaped curvilinear relationship, I did not manage to show that there is a U-inverted relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. However, I found that the relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB followed a U-shaped function for employees who experience family–work enrichment. Regarding the second proposition in this chapter, I found that there is a three-way interaction between job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus. Such a result implies that when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job-self efficacy will have the strongest positive relationship with service delivery OCB.

This dissertation offers three main contributions that further our understanding of the different roles played by self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities. The first contribution is added to self-efficacy literature by establishing self-efficacy as a moderator variable in the link between career identity and career commitment and showing that family responsibilities impact the moderator role played by self-efficacy in the link proposed. The second contribution of the dissertation is showing that self-efficacy acts as a mechanism underlying the link between proactive behaviours at work and work–self facilitation. The third contribution is presented through a more nuanced understanding of the antecedents of work behaviour, i.e. citizenship behaviour by testing and proving the triple interaction of self-efficacy, family–work enrichment and promotion focus on service delivery OCB.

Keywords: self-efficacy, career identity, career commitment, family obligations, females, males, job crafting, work–self facilitation, leader–member exchange, family–work enrichment, promotion focus, organisational citizenship behaviour

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INTRODUCTION

Description of the dissertation topic area and the issue it addresses

Intensifying workplace trends, such as work overload, longer work hours, increased after-hours work, interdependence of workplace tasks, the ever increasing demands on individual workers and speed of work, are impacting employee behaviour at work (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017; Sturges, 2013). Due to being overloaded with work, working longer hours and undertaking numerous interlinked job tasks at the same time, employees often do not have enough time to finish all of the tasks, engage in voluntary activities, work diligently to meet deadlines or treat colleagues and customers with care. Further, such trends are impacting employee performance at work and productivity which has in result made it difficult for employees to achieve work objectives. As a result, these trends have gained considerable attention in scientific literature (Amstad, Demerouti, & Semmer, 2016; Derks, Bakker, Peters, & van Wingerden, 2016; Chan et al., 2016; Martinez-Corts, Demerouti, Bakker, & Boz, 2015) and popular press as well (Porath, 2015; Schwartz, 2015; Zimmerman, 2010).

Aside from the changes occurring in the work domain, there are changes in another life domain, namely, the family domain, that are impacting an employee's ability to achieve work objectives. Figure 1 presents a summary of factors that are impacting the family domain. Specific changes are increased societal expectations for self-development and caregiving, changing expectations regarding family-roles, increased number of dual earner couples, increased number of females that are participating in the workforce, and increased number of fathers who are engaging in caregiving activities for the family members (Harrington, Van Deusen, & Humbert, 2011; Masterson & Hobler, 2014). In addition, work responsibilities are impacting the quality of personal life and vice versa, making it in this way challenging for an employee to balance the responsibilities of both domains. As a result, juggling work and family responsibilities has made it even more challenging for employees to achieve work objectives.

However, there are individuals that have proven to be successful in showing good work behaviour, achieving work objectives and in managing both work and non-work responsibilities. One reason for successful performance and management of work and non-work responsibilities might be the individual or environmental factors that may serve as resources that facilitate an employee's work behaviour and management of non-work responsibilities. According to Hobfoll (1989, 2002) employees who have higher levels of resources tend to keep away from troublesome encounters, achieve well-being and know how to handle stressful demands. Along the same lines as Hobfoll (1989, 2002), studies have found that job resources, such as autonomy and performance feedback, facilitate positive outcomes at work in terms of work engagement and job performance (Breevaart, Bakker, &

Demerouti, 2014; Bakker, Demerouti, Hakanen, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). However, we know less how personal resources help employees manage their work and non-work responsibilities. Personal resources are conceptualized as positive assessments of an individual regarding their ability to effectively be in charge of what happens in their environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003).

Figure 1: Factors hindering a successful management of work and non-work responsibilities



Source: own work

When employees perform work tasks they draw their own physical energy and personal characteristics. They also invest effort, time, skills, money and cognitive abilities. These are all an individual's resources (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) that facilitate their work behaviour and non-work responsibilities. One of the most important resources used is also an individual's beliefs regarding their abilities to achieve desired performance and take control of events that happen in their life (Bandura, 1977), termed as perceived self-efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is the most prevalent and central socio-cognitive mechanism of personal agency (Bandura, 1986a). The concept is termed as perceived due to the fact that it consists of an individual's self-evaluations regarding their competencies. Individuals who are self-confident and have high self-efficacy beliefs tend to believe that they can perform well, while it is the opposite for individuals at the other end of the spectrum (Bandura, 1977).

The concept of self-efficacy is grounded in Social Cognitive Theory which broadens the knowledge on how to predict behaviour (Bandura, 1986b). The theory posits that it predicts task performance based on individual factors, events that happen in the surrounding environment and behaviour (Crothers et al., 2008). More specifically, the theory holds that an individual's behaviour is impacted by behaviours that they have observed while being performed by someone else (Bandura, 1986). An individual who observes someone else

behave in a certain way and understands the consequences associated with that particular behaviour will remember the order of events that took place as part of the behaviour and will use the information from the observation when engaging in similar behaviour himself/herself (Bandura, 1986). To this date, with more than three decades of empirical research and more than ten thousand studies, the main focus of Social Cognitive Theory is on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott & Rich, 2007). The theory posits self-efficacy as the most important variable in its model because self-efficacy “affects behavior both directly and by its influence on the other determinants” (Bandura, 2012 p.14). Self-efficacy beliefs impact the choice an individual makes regarding activities to pursue in order to achieve the desired goal (Bandura, 1986).

Perceived self-efficacy has been considered as one of the most important phenomena in contemporary psychology related research (Judge et al., 2007) due to the fact that it impacts the way an individual thinks and behaves (Zulkosky, 2009) in the workplace and at home. Further, self-efficacy beliefs impact the efforts undertaken to perform a behaviour and how long the individual persists in a specific situation in case they face difficulties (Bandura, 1977). The concept derives its importance from the fact that it constitutes a set of beliefs that determine how an individual reasons (Bandura, 1989). Action is determined through four processes namely cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes (Bandura, 1994). The four processes operate jointly while constantly adjusting how humans function (Bandura, 1995b). A brief representation of the concept of self-efficacy, its outcomes and most established scales, is presented in Figure 2.

The purpose of the dissertation

Drawn from the findings in work behaviour literature, the purpose of this dissertation is to explore how perceived self-efficacy affects an individual’s work behaviour and ability to combine work obligations with non-work activities. The chosen topic is important to organisations and employees for a number of reasons. First, employees who show positive work attitudes and engage in activities that fall outside of their formal duties enhance the productivity and profitability of an organisation (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011). Second, employees who successfully manage their work obligations with non-work responsibilities tend to exhibit better performance at work (Carlson et al. 2011). Third, employees who have moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs tend to engage in more voluntary behaviour at work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Finally, with more females joining the workforce and males starting to engage in caregiving activities (Harrington, Van Deusen, & Humberd, 2011; Masterson & Hobbler, 2014), it is important to understand how family responsibilities impact career decision making. As such, results of the dissertation are relevant as they allow managers and supervisors to understand what are the drivers of certain employee behaviours at work, how does work affect other life domains, namely the self-domain and how family characteristics affect work behaviours.

Up to now, research conducted on self-efficacy has shown that self-efficacy is related to outcomes in clinical, academic and organisational settings (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Chen, Casper, & Cortina, 2001). More specifically, there is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and motivational and behavioural outcomes in each of the above mentioned settings (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Sheeran et al., 2016; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Further, research on self-efficacy in organisational psychology is vast with studies covering almost every area of organisational research (Judge et al., 2007). However, the organisational outcome to which self-efficacy has been mostly related to is work performance (Judge et al., 2007; Sadri & Robertson, 1993). The concept has also been related to inter-role relationship concepts either as an antecedent or a consequence (Hobfoll, 2002; Noraani et al., 2011) and to career related concepts (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Namely, studies up till now have shown that perceived self-efficacy is beneficial at work because it affects task performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984), job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and career decision making (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Further, individuals with high self-efficacy are more creative in devising strategies in times of high demands and are eager to undertake new tasks at work (Bandura, 1997). Also, individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to experience higher levels of work-family facilitation (Noraani, Aminah, Jegak, & Khairuddin, 2011), work family-enrichment (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and will achieve better well-being. However, perceived self-efficacy has been found to have negative effects at work as well such as work overload (Libano, Llorens, Salanova, & Schaufeli, 2012). Vancouver and Kendall (2006) showed that employed undergraduate students with high levels of self-efficacy tend to be overconfident, invest fewer resources and exhibit negative performance. Higher self-efficacy beliefs have also been shown to lead to work-family conflict (Libano et al., 2012).

Figure 2: The concept of Self-Efficacy



Source: own work

In order to achieve the desired purpose of analysing the roles played by self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities I conducted three empirical studies, whereby the concept of self-efficacy is the overall theme spanning all three studies. In each study I analyse a different role played by perceived self-efficacy drawing on SCCT theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994), Work-Home Resources Model (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and Control Theory (Powers, 1973). In the first study I analyse the moderating role of perceived self-efficacy in work related attitudes. In the second study I analyse the mediating role of self-efficacy in facilitating personal interests and hobbies. Meanwhile, in the third study I position perceived self-efficacy as a predictor in interaction with two other variables to predict work behaviour. The reason for designing these three studies is that each one allows me to analyse a different role played by self-efficacy in realms of work and life. Furthermore each study allows me to contribute to literature by expanding the knowledge on self-efficacy literature, work-family literature, and organisational behaviour literature with new information that has not been presented before. As a whole, the studies together present a comprehensive picture of the different roles played by self-efficacy in facilitating work and non-work responsibilities.

Studies and research questions addressed in this dissertation

The following section presents in more detail the three studies conducted in the dissertation. Specifically, the section depicts the research questions and presents the aimed contributions. The section also provides a reasoning for conducting the specific studies.

The moderating role of perceived self-efficacy in the relationship between career identity and career commitment among employees with different family obligations

During their everyday work, employees are faced with the need to take various job and career related decisions (Ng & Feldman, 2008) which are based on individual preferences and values, but are also influenced by factors such marital status and number of children or the role played by the individual in terms of household responsibilities (i.e. being primary breadwinner) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Therefore, the aim of this study is to analyse how family responsibilities transcend in career decision making and work domain and how self-efficacy facilitates that process. Relatively little is known about the role of perceived self-efficacy in career commitment among employees with different family obligations. More specifically, to the best of my knowledge, no study has tested how marital status, family obligations, and family roles impact the process towards career commitment. Furthermore, little is known about how career commitment differs among females and males who have different family obligations.

This is why, in the first study, I explore the role played by family obligations in the significance of perceived self-efficacy as a moderator in the path between career identity and career commitment. Career identity is defined as the degree to which an individual describes himself or herself by his or her work and the organization for which he or she works (London, 1993). Career commitment refers to identification with and involvement in one's occupation (Mueller et al., 1992). It refers to an individual's motivation to work in a chosen vocation (Hall, 1971). Thus the first research question of the dissertation (Chapter 1) is – *RQ1a: What is the relationship between career identity and career commitment?*

Building on the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994) I analyse whether the path between career identity and career commitment is moderated by perceived self-efficacy. I first present the results of the whole sample where I show if perceived self-efficacy plays a buffering role in the proposed path. Thus the second part of the first research question of the dissertation (Chapter 1) is – *RQ1b: What is the influence of self-efficacy in the relationship between career identity and career commitment?* Afterwards, I proceed to compare if the path holds for males and females. Furthermore, after analysing across gender, I proceed to analyse within gender. In this regard, I present an analysis of whether family responsibilities such as being the primary breadwinner, being married/cohabiting and/or having dependents in the family plays an important role in the significance of self-efficacy as a moderator in the path between career identity and career commitment. Thus, the third and fourth part of the first research questions of the dissertation presented in Chapter 1 are as follows – *RQ1c: How does family type influence the nature of relationship between a female employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?* and *RQ1d: How does family type influence the nature of relationship between a male employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?*

Taken together, the first study allows me to test how self-efficacy impacts a work related attitude namely career commitment in individuals with different family obligations. More specifically, the study reveals whether self-efficacy is a moderating factor in the link between career identity and career commitment and whether family obligations impact the buffering role of self-efficacy. In this way, the study aims to expanding the knowledge on SCCT (Lent et al., 1994). Further, the results of the study aim to complement the work-family literature by testing if self-efficacy plays the same role in employees with different family obligations such as marital status and children in the household (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Moreover, the results of the study aim to contribute to literature by responding to suggestions made by Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) to consider gender differences in career related issues.

Perceived self-efficacy as a mediator in the relationship between job-crafting and work–self facilitation

The difficulty of managing work and non-work responsibilities and accompanying work–home processes has prompted researchers into discovering how people manage their different life roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Spector et al., 2004). Studies so far have focused on analysing work-family conflict (Amstad et al., 2011; Carlson et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Mihelič, 2014), work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Tadić et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 2007) and work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Wayne et al., 2007). Nonetheless, in addition to thinking of work and family, employees need to think of their personal interests and hobbies. Such area has been termed “the self” domain and in this context it comprises the time spent on personal interests (Demerouti, 2012). Based on the “self” domain, Demerouti (2012) and Demerouti et al. (2013) introduced work–self facilitation, which occurs when resources generated at work positively influence time devoted to personal interests (Demerouti, 2012). Although pursuing personal interests and hobbies is an important domain for individuals, researchers have ignored how these domains and time for oneself affect and are affected by their work (Demerouti et al., 2013). Furthermore, we know relatively little about the role of personal resources in the “self” domain (Demerouti et al., 2013).

As such in the second study, I propose that perceived self-efficacy, as a personal resources, plays an important role in the relationship between job-crafting and work–self facilitation. Job crafting is defined as a proactive behaviour at work in which the employee initiates changes in the level of job demands and job resources to make their own job more meaningful, engaging and satisfying (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Theoretical background is based on Work–Home Resources model, which views personal resources as a missing link relating the work domain to home domain (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Therefore, the first part of the second research questions in my dissertation is – *RQ2a: What is the relationship between job crafting, self-efficacy and work-self facilitation?* Furthermore, I propose that leader-member exchange strengthens the role self-efficacy in the relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation. As such the second part of the second research question is – *RQ2d: What is the influence of leader-member exchange on the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy?*

This study allows me to understand how self-efficacy facilitates non-work responsibilities such as personal interests and hobbies. The aim of the study is to advance work–family literature by investigating work–self facilitation, which is one of the least studied variables in the work–family literature (Demerouti et al., 2016). The study also aims to complement the literature by demonstrating the process leading towards experiencing work–self facilitation. Moreover, the chapter responds to recommendations made by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, (2012) to test how the work domain, for example work resources, influence the

home domain through personal resources and to include moderator variables in the relationship between work resources, personal resources and home outcomes.

Self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour

Increased interdependence of tasks at work is requiring from employees to engage in on-the-job activities that are different from official responsibilities (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). This has prompted organizations and researchers to focus attention on analysing employees work behaviour and understanding what impacts it (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). One such behaviour is Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), defined as an individual's voluntary commitment within an organization that is not part of his or her contractual tasks (Organ, 1997). Since OCB improves organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Organ, 1988), it is very important for organizations to understand the conditions that enable employees' OCB. Specifically, as individual characteristics have been shown to be relevant predictors of OCB it is relevant to comprehend their role in OCB (Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2016; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Self-efficacy, as an individual characteristic, has been shown that it can lead to more OCB (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Paramasivam, 2015; Shahidi, Shamsnia, & Baezat, 2015).

Studies have also shown that high levels of self-efficacy are negatively related to performance (Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002; Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). Individuals who are high in self-efficacy tend to get overconfident (Stone, 1994) and as a result they invest less resources toward a specific activity or task (Prieto, 2009). In this line, researchers have proposed that there can be 'too much of a good thing' effect where "positive phenomena reach inflection points at which their effects turn negative" (Grant & Schwartz, 2011, p.61). Self-efficacy has been proposed as one variable that can have such an effect (Grant & Schwartz, 2011). Therefore, in the third study, I test if too much self-efficacy can actually be positive up to a certain point and then have negative impacts in OCB. OCB is considered as one of the three broad performance domains (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002) and since self-efficacy has been shown to be negatively related to performance it can be assumed that it can have a negative relationship with OCB as well. Thus the first part of the third research question in the dissertation is – *RQ3a: Is there an inverted U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB?*

Another proposition in this study is that under certain conditions high job self-efficacy can actually have a positive impact on OCB. I propose that particular variables can interact with self-efficacy to enable a positive impact on OCB. Existing research has been shown that strategic orientation in pursuing goals impacts OCB (Higgins, 2000) and that inter-role relationships may interact as well with self-efficacy to impact citizenship behaviour.

However, it is still not clear how self-efficacy interacts with self-regulatory (i.e. promotion focus) and inter-relationships variables (i.e. family–work enrichment) to impact OCB. Family–work enrichment has been defined as the process where participation in the family role increases the quality of performance in the role at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). While promotion focus has defined as a regulatory state concerned with achieving an ideal self and producing sensitivity to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (Lockwood et al., 2002). Thus the second part of the third research question of the dissertation is – *RQ3b: What is the influence of self-efficacy, family-work enrichment and promotion focus on service delivery OCB?*

This study allows me to understand how self-efficacy impacts a work behaviour such as OCB. More specifically, results of the study allow me to infer whether high self-efficacy can have a negative impact on OCB and whether under certain conditions high self-efficacy can actually have a positive impact on OCB. An important intended contribution of this study is that it will be one of the first ones to test self-efficacy in a curvilinear relationship with OCB. Further, with this study I aim to complement the literature by exploring for curvilinear relationships in positive phenomena (Grant and Schwartz, 2011). Furthermore, the study aims to add new knowledge to work–family literature as well by testing the interaction between a personal variable and family and interpersonal context and by describing the circumstances under which high self-efficacy can lead to positive performance (Vancouver and Kendall, 2006). Finally, I expand the work on service OCB.

Results from the three studies create synergies which are achieved from analysing three different roles, namely that of moderating, mediating and predictor role played by perceived self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities and in providing a complete picture of the impact of self-efficacy in work behaviour and management of different life roles. As a start, the first study analyses if family obligations impact the buffering role of self-efficacy in work related attitudes. The second study builds on the first one by analysing if self-efficacy is conducive to employees successfully managing personal aspects of life such as personal interests and hobbies. Meanwhile, the third study builds on the first two studies and expands by analysing if self-efficacy interacts with family–work enrichment and promotion focus to impact work behaviour.

Results of the dissertation are relevant to organisational behaviour practitioners, human resource and management practitioners, as they offer practical implications and recommendations which show how family obligations impact the buffering role of an employee’s beliefs regarding his/her ability to accomplish tasks in the decision to stick to a specific career path. Further, how facilitation of work role by family role in interaction with self-efficacy impact work attitudes and work behaviour. Additionally, the dissertation offers implications on how beliefs in one’s ability to accomplish tasks impact non-work responsibilities such personal interests and hobbies. Knowing what impacts work behaviour

and non-work responsibilities is important to organisations and managers as both lead to improved performance and firm profitability.

Methodological aspects of the dissertation

The present dissertation employed three different sets of data that were used to test the hypotheses and research questions. As such, for the three studies three different samples are used. For the first study, a sample of 5804 alumni (65% male and 35% female) from Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) in Rochester, New York is used. The survey has been conducted by RIT researchers in 2014 and the data has been provided to me with the permission to be used for the purpose of this dissertation. For study two and three, I conducted two separate surveys to collect primary data from employees. The first survey was conducted in fall 2016 and was used for testing the hypotheses of the second study. The sample is composed of employed individuals who have graduated from RIT in Kosovo which is a higher education institution located in Kosovo and offers bachelor and master level degrees from RIT in Rochester, New York. The sample size is 204 employed alumni of which 57% are female and 43% are male. I have conducted this survey by sending out the link to the online questionnaire to roughly 1,000 RIT in Kosovo alumni through the Alumni Office. Meanwhile, the second survey was conducted in summer 2017 and was used for testing the hypotheses of the third study. The sample for the third study are employees who work in call centres in Kosovo. The sample size is 198 employed individuals of which 52% are female and 48% are male. I have conducted this survey by sending out the link to the online questionnaire to 543 employees through the Human Resource Department of call centres where respondents are employed. All variables were measured with established scales and no proxy variables were used. The use of well-established scales measured on employed individuals makes the findings of the dissertation valuable.

The three samples are appropriate for the three studies as they are composed of employees with work experience, making them in this way relevant respondents for the phenomena studied. More specifically, the studies involve analysing how a personal resource such as perceived self-efficacy impacts work behaviour. Further, the studies analyse the process through which employees can feel that resources generated at work facilitate time devoted to personal interests and hobbies. As such, using employed individuals was necessary. Moreover, as respondents for the first study were alumni from RIT in Rochester, New York, I wanted to diversify and add value to the dissertation by surveying in the second study alumni from RIT in Kosovo. Both groups of alumni obtained the RIT diploma but are from different countries, have been educated, work and live in different cultural contexts. As such, I wished to analyse how self-efficacy facilitates work behaviour and non-work responsibilities in different cultural contexts. In the third study, I focused on surveying only call centre employees as that allowed me to control for a specific context such as firm and industry since that was not possible with the two other samples. In this way, I was able to

analyse the role played by self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour for employees who work in a specific sector. I specifically focused on call centre employees as very few studies related to work behaviour have focused on such a sample (Wang, 2009). Most studies focused on teachers or hotel frontline employees (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997)

Structure of the dissertation

The dissertation is structured in five chapters that follow after the introduction. Since the purpose of the dissertation is to test the different roles played by self-efficacy (moderating, mediating, and predictor variable) in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities, in Chapter 1 I discuss the concept of career commitment and propose that career identity has a positive relationship with career commitment. Further, I propose that self-efficacy moderates the hypothesized relationship. In Chapter 2, I reveal whether job crafting leads to work–self facilitation through self-efficacy. Additionally, I analyse whether leader–member exchange contributes towards strengthening of the role of self-efficacy as mediator by moderating the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. In Chapter 3, I analyse whether self-efficacy can have negative consequences in outcomes at work, specifically in OCB. More specifically, I discuss whether the relationship between job self-efficacy and OCB is curvilinear. In Chapter 4, I present the discussion of the main findings of the dissertation, contributions to theory and practice, limitations of the dissertation and directions for future research. In the final chapter of the dissertation, Chapter 5, I present a brief conclusion.

1 CAREER IDENTITY AND CAREER COMMITMENT AMONG EMPLOYEES WITH DIFFERENT FAMILY OBLIGATIONS: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

While actively engaged in working, employees are faced with the need to take various job and career related decisions, such as how many hours to work per week (Ng & Feldman, 2008), accepting/rejecting a job position (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005), whether to quit from an existing job position (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). These decisions are based on individual preferences and values, but they are also influenced by factors such marital status and number of children or the role played by the individual in terms of household responsibilities (i.e. being primary breadwinner) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). In short, it has been shown that family considerations influence work decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Moreover, existing research has shown an increase in the number of fathers who want to share care giving roles in the household (Harrington, Van Deusen, & Humbert, 2011). Recent work further indicates that not only males are career orientated but females as well choose jobs that provide them with opportunities for career advancement and commitment as in that way they will secure financial stability of the household (Masterson & Hobbler, 2014).

However, as far as I am aware, no models that test specifically how marital status, family obligations, and family roles impact the process towards career commitment have been tested before. Furthermore, we know little about how career commitment differs among females and males who have different family obligations. Career commitment is defined as “an individual’s attitude towards his or her profession or vocation” (Blau, 1985, p.280). It concerns an individual’s attachment to his/her profession (Mueller et. al., 1992). As such, it is categorized by high degree of encouragement and attachment by an individual to career related goals (Blau, 1985). In other words, it refers to “an individual’s motivation to work in a chosen vocation” (Hall, 1971, p.59). Moreover, little is known about the role of perceived self-efficacy in career commitment among employees with different family obligations. Additionally, little is known whether perceived self-efficacy affects differently career decision making for males and females. Self-efficacy is defined as a personal judgement of “how well one can execute courses of actions required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). As a personal resource and cognitive variable, self-efficacy has been found to have a buffering role in career decision making and outcomes (Xu and Tracey, 2014).

The aim of the study is to analyse how family responsibilities transcend in career decision making and work domain. This will be done by testing if the link between career identity,

defined as the degree to which an employee describes himself or herself by his or her work and the organization for which he or she works (London, 1993), and career commitment is moderated by self-efficacy for individuals with different family obligations. These patterns of relationships will be investigated across and within gender. Within-gender differences are analysed for different family obligations such as marital status and dependents in the household. The aim is to understand whether the path flows similarly between males and females and to assess the effect of differences in family structures. Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994), will be used as a theoretical framework to develop the hypotheses of the study.

The results of this study aim to contribute to SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) by establishing self-efficacy as a relevant moderating factor in the link between career identity and career commitment. In such a way, I aim to show that personal resources are important variables in the decision to stick to a career path. With such a result, I aim to show that personal variables are important to career development and in such a way I aim to extend further the literature on SCCT (Lent et al., 1994). To date, to the best of my knowledge, no study has established self-efficacy as a moderating variable in the relationship between career identity and career commitment. There is, however, one previous study that has established self-efficacy as a significant moderator in the relationship between career commitment and career success (Ballout, 2009).

Second, the results of the study aim to contribute to work-family literature by testing if self-efficacy plays the same role in employees with different family obligations such as marital status and children in the household. In this way, I respond to calls (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012, p. 252) to empirically test questions that analyse the family-relatedness of work decisions at the individual level and questions that address the influence of family obligations on work decisions. Such contributions are important because they will show to organizations that cognitive variables, such as self-efficacy, can help employees with career development (Lent et al., 1994) and with committing to a career path. Furthermore, the intended contributions will show that the context an employee is surrounded by and family obligations that an employee has play an important role in the process that leads to career commitment. Finally, the results of the study aim to contribute to literature by answering the calls of Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) to consider gender differences in career related issues. Such an intended contribution is relevant as it will show that that gender is a significant moderator in the relationship between career identity and career commitment.

1.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Careers have shifted from traditional to “protean” (Hall, 2004) and have become mobile, uncertain, unstable and short-term (McDonald et al., 2005; Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a). The new careers have been characterized with higher degree of flexibility and

heightened individual agency (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a). Changes in career development have come around from a number of factors such as dynamic and globalized economy, constantly evolving technological innovations, changes in managerial and employment practices (Valcour, 2015; Sultana, Yousaf, Khan, & Saeed, 2016), changes in organisational structures (Baruch and Bozionelos, 2011); increasing number of dual earner couples (Valcour, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012), and the rise of females who are primary breadwinners in the household (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Such changes have resulted in more responsibility on employees in managing their own careers and professional development (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Baruch and Bozionelos, 2011; Brown, 2002). Nowadays, an employee's career requires him/her to "develop a set of personal skills and competencies such as continuous learning, tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty, autonomy, self-awareness and self-efficacy" (Ballout, 2009, p.656). The recent developments have impacted how employees perceive their careers. Furthermore, the developments have also impacted decisions related to how to commit to a career path (Kuron, Schweitzer, Lyons, & Ng, 2016) and whether to commit to a certain career path or not. Different from previous generations which have had long term contracts and climbed up the career ladder in an organisation in a stable manner through changing job positions, newer generations are holding more than one job simultaneously or changing occupations frequently and moving into different directions in order to develop further their careers (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a). Their path to career commitment is not as linear and as stable as it used to be and it does not depend on a single organisation (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a).

With changes happening in careers, researchers have engaged in further expanding the work on the theoretical framework related to career choice and success. As a result, SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) emerged. The theory, anchored in SCT (Bandura, 1986a), attempts to represent the actual process through which individuals form interests and choose their profession (Lent et al., 1994). More specifically, "SCCT focuses on cognitive-person variables such as perceived self-efficacy and on how these variables interact with other aspects of the person and his or her environment such as gender, social support, and barriers to help shape the course of career development" (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000, p.36). Given that the theory includes both social cognitive variables and the environment surrounding an individual, it seems appropriate to use it as a theoretical framework for the study which analyses the relationship between career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy.

Career commitment describes the extent to which an employee is enthusiastic about working in the career that one has chosen (Okurame, 2012). It is relevant in the decision to continue with the same occupation (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990). Research has linked career development to the cognitive beliefs of an individual (Lent et al., 1994; Awoyemi & Bamigbade, 2016). It is assumed that employees tend to undertake career activities at which they believe that they have the necessary capacities and skills to perform them successfully

and have the environmental support (Lent et al., 1994). Employees tend to show interest in specific careers if they think they can perform successfully and if they think the specific careers will lead to outcomes they aspire (Lent et al., 1994).

Employees tend to stick to careers that they find relevant to oneself and that they identify with. Identity defines the main characteristics of an individual. It answers the question “Who am I?” (Stryker, 1968) and gives meaning to the social role that an individual endorses (Bagger, Li, & Gutek, 2008). Identities are values that an individual characterizes himself/herself when in a specific role and values that others characterize the individual with (Burke & Reitzes, 1981). Identity has been found to be a significant predictor of an individual’s behaviour, as individuals shift their behaviour according to perceived role-based expectations (Stryker, 1968; Burke & Reitzes, 1981; Burke, 1991). For example, in the family, individuals can define themselves as breadwinner, spouse, sibling and parent. Same happens in the work place where individuals define themselves with their roles in organizations. Furthermore, career is also used as means to identify and describe who an individual is and how that individual finds fulfilment and purpose in life. Career identity is directly linked to self-knowledge (Praskova, Creed, & Hood, 2015) and includes job involvement, dedication to managerial work, and identification with the organization (London, 1983). It also includes the need for career advancement, recognition, and power (London, 1983). Furthermore, it involves the degree to which employees engage in job and organization related activities, and express pride in the organization they work for (London, 1993).

Besides career identity, SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) holds that cognitive variables, such as self-efficacy, help to govern career behaviour. Self-efficacy is an individual’s belief in his or her capability to thrive in specific situations or accomplish a specific task (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 2012). Self-efficacy has been previously related to individuals’ careers and has been found to play a buffering role in career decision making and outcomes (Xu and Tracey, 2014). For example, self-efficacy beliefs impact personal goals on task and job performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998), are directly related to career resilience (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015b) and can have an indirect effect on career success (Ballout, 2009). There are also studies that have shown the direct effect of career decision making self-efficacy on career commitment (Chung, 2002).

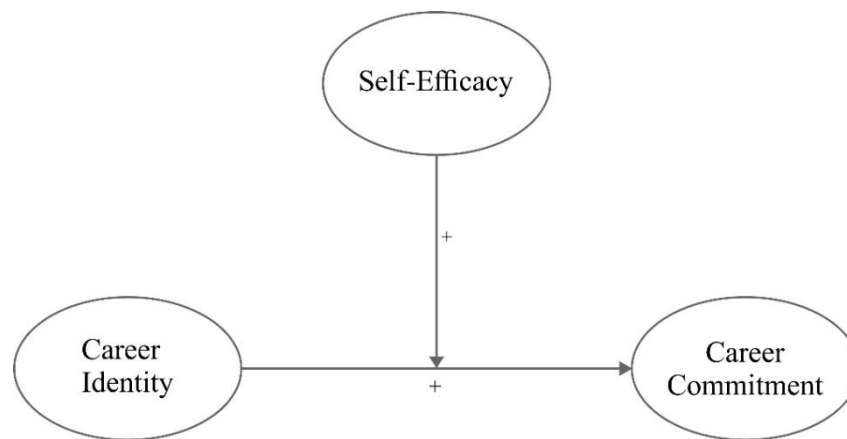
In research on career identity it is important to consider gender differences (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996) and family influences because vocational and career choices of women have shifted from working at home and caring emotionally for the family to working full time jobs and becoming primary breadwinners in the household (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Due to such changes and “with the goal of fostering a positive outcome for the family, individuals’ work decisions are being increasingly influenced by family situation and responsibilities” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012, p.247). Females, both as partners and mothers,

have started to identify with their careers and are committing to a career path (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). There have been changes among males as well and we have witnessed a greater engagement of fathers in upbringing and caring for children, which also redefined the different identities (Harrington et al., 2011). The more important an individual's family identity is, the greater the likelihood that that person will take into consideration family context when making work decisions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). As such, when analysing the decisions that individuals make regarding both work and career, it is very important to take into consideration the context in which the decisions are made (Masterson & Hoobler, 2014). By that, we mean the type of family, i.e. being single or married/cohabiting, having dependents, being single with dependents or being married with dependents, and being the primary breadwinner in the family. Therefore, recent shifts in career development have paved the way to further research that analyses the buffering effect of cognitive variables on career outcomes.

1.2.1 Career identity and career commitment

The proposed model (depicted in Figure 3) was developed as a result of the integration of findings from work-family literature and career literature (eg. Greehaus & Powell, 2012; London, 1983; Burke & Reitzes, 1981). In the model, the central relationship focuses on the path between individuals' career identity and career commitment. Further, I explore if self-efficacy moderates the link between career identity and career commitment. These patterns of relationships are investigated across five different groups of individuals based on the family situation.

Figure 3: The proposed conceptual model



Due to shifting work environments and shorter employment relationships (Ballout, 2009) employees tend to show more commitment to their careers rather than to organizations (Noordin et al., 2002). This is especially true for organizations which are facing difficulties in providing opportunities for career development (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990) due to flatter organisational structures (Baruch and Bozionelos, 2011). Making career commitment in this

way important to the current context that is characterized by unstable jobs (Baruch and Bozionelos, 2011; Colarelli and Bishop, 1990). Career commitment has been linked to career development and advancement (Okurame, 2012). Furthermore, prior evidence suggests that career commitment may be linked to career identity (London, 1983), a very important marker for well-being and career progress (Flum & Blustein, 2006; Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). Prior evidence has also shown that opportunities for promotion and reward are significant antecedents of career commitment (Pasha, Hamid, & Shahzad, 2017; Yahya & Tan, 2015).

In today's globalized world, individuals are increasingly mobile and self-directed in their careers (Gubler, Arnold, & Combs, 2014; Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a) and are responsible for choices they make (Meijers, 1998). In order to successfully handle the anxiety that is related to work (Goodman & Mancen, 2011), employees need to develop career skills that are related to the specific career and develop career identity (Meijers, 1998). I argue that the more an individual identifies with career the more they will be committed to their work, which will be reflected in "staying longer at work, putting in a full day's work" (Okurame, 2012, p. 426), engaging in activities that provide occupational meaning, and developing plans for successful performance. Employees who perceive their careers as a very important aspect of their life engage more in career development behaviours (Leung and Clegg, 2001), such as putting in all the efforts needed to achieve the goals that provide them with opportunities for advancement and successful performance (Ballout, 2009). Such employees may not find it stressful to perform job duties, because their career provides an increased sense of self-worth.

Past studies have found that employees who identify with their job or career tend to develop attitudes that show commitment (Carson et al., 1999; Kiesler, 1971). Prior research has also shown that employees who have a high career identity choose jobs that provide for career advancement (London, 1993). Further, it has been suggested that increased career identity can lead to increased involvement at the job and higher career commitment (King, 1997). Moreover, existing research has shown that career identity fosters career confidence and engagement which is a term similar to commitment (Hirschi, 2011). In order for an individual to have career commitment or to follow a certain career path that individual needs to have high career identity. Thus:

H1: Career identity will be positively related to career commitment.

1.2.2 The moderating role of self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy can play an important role in how an employee approaches goals, tasks, and challenges faced in career development (Ballout, 2009). Self-efficacy, as a cognitive-person variable, plays a crucial role in the development of occupational interest and selection of career related choices (Inda, Rodriguez, & Peña, 2013). Researchers were

able to prove that self-efficacy has a significant role in career choices such as activities in which to engage and in career goals such as successfully completing an activity (Lent et al., 1994). Individuals set career goals and choose to engage in those activities they think are capable to succeed and achieve successful performance (Lent et al., 1994).

Prior research has also proven that employees who have high self-efficacy beliefs are good at career decision making (Ballout, 2009; Taylor and Popma, 1990; Abdalla, 1995). Those with higher career decision-making self-efficacy tended to be more committed to career planning and goal setting (Chung, 2002) and experience career satisfaction (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017). Other studies have also hypothesized that career decision self-efficacy is positively linked to career identity (Brown & Lavish, 2006; Lucas, 1997; Flum & Kaplan, 2006; Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011) and career identity development (Stringer, 2008); it plays a partial mediating role in the link between core self-evaluations and vocational identity (Koumoundourou, Kounenou, & Siavara, 2012); and it has been linked to emotional intelligence and career commitment (Brown et. al., 2003). Further, prior research has shown that core-self evaluations are positively correlated to career commitment (Awoyemi & Bamigbade, 2016).

Self-efficacy has been shown to play a buffering role in career decision making and career outcomes (Xu and Tracey, 2014). Furthermore, self-efficacy has been shown to moderate the link between career commitment and career success on a sample of Lebanese managers and non-manager employees (Ballout, 2009). Employees who had high career identity became more involved in career-related behaviours, which, in turn, raised their self-efficacy beliefs toward higher commitment (Ballout, 2009). As a result, it can be assumed that self-efficacy may interact with career identity to impact career commitment. As individuals identify with their careers they will act in such a way to make sure that they will stay in those careers for a long period of time. Therefore, I propose the following:

H2: Perceived self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between career identity and career commitment. The higher self-efficacy is the stronger the relationship between career identity and career commitment will be.

1.2.3 Impact of gender and family obligations on the strength of hypothesized relationships

I argue that gender and family structure, comprising the spousal relationship and dependents, may shed light on the differential strengths of relationships hypothesized. Gender has been identified by theory as important in the decision to pursue a career choice (Lent et al., 1994) and is anticipated to effect an employee's prospects regarding outcomes and eventually their behaviour (Patton, Bartrum & Creed, 2004; Chung, 2002). Self-efficacy beliefs can also be different within genders since the main sources of self-efficacy are performance

accomplishments, various experiences and emotional excitement (Bandura, 1995). Paa (2001) emphasized the importance of examining males and females independently because context specific processes are relevant to career goals. Lent et al.'s (1998) study has shown that close social and family influences, are cited by employees as factors that support or hamper their decision to pursue a specific career. Another study has shown that private life tends to constrain career decisions (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017). Based on the previous findings, it has been proposed that the potential role, either buffering or hindering, of factors related to immediate social and family influences deserve to be analysed empirically (Lent et al., 2000). Spouse/partner and/or children can be viewed as buffering or hindering the pursuit for a specific career path.

According to Greenhaus and Powell (2012) an employee's "decision-making process and choice of action in the work domain are influenced by the family situation" (p.247). Furthermore, differences exist within males and females concerning levels of career decision making self-efficacy and career commitment (Paa, 2001). Moreover, it has also been shown that particular contextual variables such as marital status, children, social and/or family support influence both the social cognitive variables and career development outcomes (Brown, 2002). A previous study has hypothesized that the correlation between career decision-making self-efficacy and career commitment on college students may be higher among females than males, however they found no differences (Chung, 2002). Yet, the authors found that career commitment was higher for females than males (Chung, 2002). Therefore, with this study we want to test how family context impacts the patterns of proposed relationships.

In this chapter I will test five different types of family situations and roles, separately for males and females. Family obligations and/or roles are the following: i) being married/cohabiting versus being single, ii) having dependents in the family versus not having dependents; iii) being married/cohabiting and having dependents versus being married/cohabiting and not having dependents; iv) being married/cohabiting and having dependents versus being single and not having dependents; and v) being the primary breadwinner in the family versus being secondary or contributing equally to partner. Thus, I set the following research questions:

RQ1: How does family type influence the nature of relationship between a female employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?

RQ2: How does family type influence the nature of the relationship between a male employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?

1.3 METHODS

1.3.1 Sample and Procedures

In 2014, a survey was administered via email to alumni of Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York, recognized as a top-tier national university that is AACSB accredited (U.S. News & World Report, 2017) and has a National Technical Institute for the Deaf students. From almost 100,000 alumni, around 10,000 responded, providing a 10% response rate. However, around 15% of the emails in the database were incorrect. The database was provided to me with the permission to be used for the purposes of the study. I removed candidates who were classified as deaf or hard of hearing, who did not work or did not classify as working, deleted the ones that had missing values in more than 10% of variables and ended up with 5804 observations that had no missing values. The final sample is comprised of 2035 female (35%) and 3769 male (65%) respondents. The mean age of respondents is 36.15 (SD=10.24) (35.53 for females (SD=10.22), 36.48 for males (SD=10.24). Participation in the study was voluntary. Respondents have finished their bachelor and or master degree in one of the eight colleges of Rochester Institute of Technology. Around 50% of the females out of 2035 are primary breadwinners, meanwhile 75% of males out of 3769 are primary breadwinners. Almost 35% of females and 45% of males have dependents in the household. Roughly 60% of the females are married/cohabit and 70% of males are married/cohabiting.

1.3.2 Measures

Self-efficacy. Ten items were used to measure general self-efficacy (London, 1983). Respondents indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale with the anchors set at strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) for statements such as: “I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough”.

Career identity. A three-item scale was used to measure career identity. The scale was adapted from London (1993) and Noe, Noe, & Bachhuber (1990). Respondents indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale with the anchors set at strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) for statements such as: “I am very involved with my job”. Eby et al.’s (2003) research study utilized same items, showing in this way further evidence of the validity of London’s (1993) career identity scale.

Career commitment. A five item scale was used to measure career commitment. Authors of the survey adapted the measure from Blau (1985). Respondents indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale with the anchors set at strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) for statements such as: “If I had all the money I needed I would still work in the same industry”. Three items were reverse coded. Protts’ (2007) research study utilized Blau’s (1985) scale to examine attitudes towards occupation, job, life and family. Detailed information on each scale used is provided in Appendix B.

1.3.3 Analytical procedure

Since the study is based on multi-group analysis, I first conducted tests of measurement and structural invariance to show that the properties of the underlying measurement model representing the constructs and indicators are equivalent or invariant across groups (Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). Tests of measurement invariance were performed across gender. I assessed invariance based on CFI (Δ CFI) where evidence of non-invariance is based on a difference in CFI values with a probability < 0.01 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). The Δ CFI value of 0.001 for across gender provides evidence that measurement model is invariant as the value is less than the cut-off point of 0.01.

The measurement model was tested through structural equation modelling (SEM) using maximum likelihood estimation procedure. The reason behind using SEM is the fact that variables used in the study are latent and SEM is adequate technique to be used when working with such variables (Byrne, 2010). Furthermore, as the study tests multi-group analysis using multi-group SEM to test for invariance and in-group comparison is adequate tool (Deng & Yuan, 2015; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). CFA results allowed me to test for convergent and discriminant validity of model variables. Convergent validity was supported by analysing if indicators were significant. All indicator loadings were significant at $p < 0.001$, supporting the convergent validity of constructs.

After testing for measurement invariance and measurement model, I tested for differences among male (3769) and female (2035) in the link between career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy (multi-group SEM using AMOS 23.0). In the second part, I grouped males and females based on their family characteristics and analysed differences within genders, separately for males and females. The analysis was done through multi-group analysis using SEM AMOS 23.0.

Table 1: Groups of males and females based on family characteristic

Group	Male	Female
Married/Cohabiting	2605	1216
Single	1164	819
With dependents	1687	712
Without dependents	2082	1323
Married with dependents	1291	539
Married without dependents	1042	613
Single without dependents	1040	710
Primary breadwinner	2860	1012
Secondary breadwinner	290	517
Equal to partner	619	506

Source: own work

1.4 RESULTS

The first part of results section provides descriptive statistics of the indicators and factor loadings for the three variables for males and females separately (see Table 2). Constructs used are internally consistent as they meet and exceed the cut off points proposed by Nunally and Bernstein (1994) except for career identity that is slightly lower. According to Rosenthal & Rosnow (1991) internal reliability for all variables used in the study was acceptable for the social sciences.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the indicators and factor loadings

Variable	Indicator	Females			Males		
		Mean	SD	Factor loading	Mean	SD	Factor loading
Career Commitment	CC1	4.48	1.91	0.69	4.35	1.89	0.67
	CC2	5.31	1.59	0.64	5.32	1.44	0.73
	CC3	4.86	1.82	0.65	4.98	1.76	0.61
	CC4	4.56	1.94	0.66	4.44	1.94	0.62
	CC5	5.83	1.39	0.63	5.85	1.35	0.60
Career Identity	CI1	5.83	1.34	0.79	5.98	1.14	0.73
	CI2	5.80	1.30	0.60	6.1	1.03	0.60
Self-Efficacy	SE1	6.15	0.81	0.61	6.23	0.77	0.62
	SE2	5.90	0.93	0.72	5.97	0.86	0.74
	SE3	5.85	0.95	0.70	5.95	0.92	0.70
	SE4	6.17	0.75	0.67	6.24	0.73	0.74
	SE5	5.67	1.08	0.66	5.84	0.99	0.62
	SE6	5.9	0.82	0.83	6.00	0.75	0.82
	SE7	5.94	0.84	0.81	6.05	0.79	0.82

Source: own work

Means, standard deviations, correlations and reliability estimates of constructs are presented in Table 3, separately for males and females. The results show that the means are relatively equal among males and females. Correlation coefficients between latent variables vary from 0.164 to 0.446 for females and from 0.160 to 0.371 for males, demonstrating in this way discriminant validity.

Table 3: Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in the study

Variable - FEMALES	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1.Self- Efficacy	5.72	.66	(0.89)		
2.Career Identity	5.81	1.06	.343**	(0.66)	
3.Career Commitment	5.00	1.31	.164**	.446**	(0.81)

n=2035. Internal reliabilities appear in parentheses on the diagonal; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

Variable - MALES	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1.Self- Efficacy	5.84	.62	(0.88)		
2.Career Identity	5.97	.89	.371**	(0.67)	
3.Career Commitment	4.99	1.25	.160**	.371**	(0.79)

n=3769. Internal reliabilities appear in parentheses on the diagonal; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

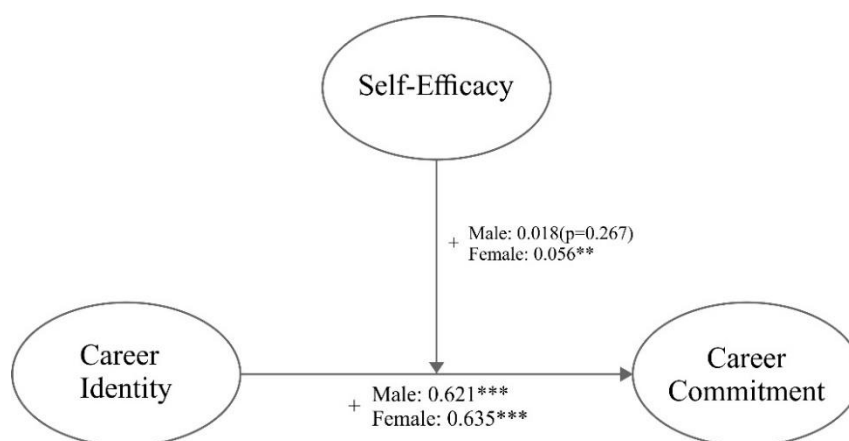
Source: own work

1.4.1 Gender differences: Multi-group analysis

I proceeded with hypotheses testing using SEM. Goodness of fit indexes such as CFI=0.95, GFI=0.93, NFI=0.94, have shown good fit. The Chi-square was significant (5805.757; d.f.604), however with large sample sizes as in this case (5804; females 2035, males 3769) this is expected. RMSEA=0.039 and SRMR=0.0451, further supported the good fit.

Results of structural model are presented in Figure 4. The first hypothesis (H1) which stated that career identity will be positively related to career commitment was supported for males ($\gamma = .621, p \leq .001$) and females ($\gamma = .635, p \leq .001$). Hypothesis two, which stated that self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between career identity and career commitment, was supported for females ($\gamma = .056, p \leq .01$), however, it was not supported for males ($\gamma = 0.018, p = 0.267$). This means that for females the higher self-efficacy is the stronger the relationship between career identity and career commitment gets.

Figure 4: Summary of results for across gender



1.4.2 Gender and family obligations: Multi-group analysis

I also tested for differences within gender by including different family obligations or roles as moderators and noticed that the relationships did not hold similarly within all groups. The sample, separately for males and females, was divided in five different types of family situations and roles that were compared against one another.¹ The results are presented in

¹ The first group compared females who are married/cohabit against those who are single. The second group compared females who have dependents under 18 years old in the household against those that do not have dependents. The third group compared females who are married/cohabit and have dependents against those that are married but do not have dependents. The fourth group compared females who are married/cohabit and have dependents against those that are single and do not have dependents. The fifth group compared females who are primary breadwinners against those that are secondary or earn equally to their partner. The same groups were compared for males as well.

Table 4 and 5. Each table presents the models that are being compared together with regression coefficients, p values and model fit characteristics.

Table 4: Result for regression coefficients, p-values and model fit characteristics for males

Males (3769)	Married (2605) vs. Single (1164)	With dependents (1687) vs. Without dependents (2082)	Married with dependents (1291) vs. Married without dependents (1042)	Married with dependents (1291) vs. Single without dependents (1040)	Primary breadwinner (2860) vs. Secondary breadwinner (290) vs. equal to partner (619)
Career Identity → Career Commitment	0.627*** vs. 0.635***	0.687*** vs. 0.618***	0.693*** vs. 0.590***	0.693*** vs. 0.630***	0.624*** vs. 0.701*** vs. 0.583***
Self-efficacy → Career commitment	0.103*** vs. 0.105**	0.144*** vs. 0.091**	0.164*** vs. 0.089*	0.164*** vs. 0.089**	0.091*** vs. 0.197* vs. 0.062 (p=0.294)
Career Identity X Self-efficacy → Career commitment	0.032(p=0.126) vs. 0.026(p=0.372)	0.074** vs. 0.010(p=0.656)	0.072** vs. 0.001(p=0.962)	0.072** vs. 0.017(p=0.570)	0.040** vs. 0.045(p=0.474) vs. 0.016(p=0.681)
CMIN/DF	6.73	6.67	5.32	5.192	5.369
CFI	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.94
GFI	0.93	0.93	0.91	0.91	0.94
NFI	0.94	0.94	0.92	0.92	0.93
RMSEA	0.039	0.039	0.043	0.042	0.034
SRMR	0.048	0.048	0.051	0.051	0.044
Pclose	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < 0.001

Source: own work

Results of goodness-of-fit indices for each model demonstrated a good fit. Further, the results show that there are differences within gender. For females, being married and having dependents impacted positively the significance of self-efficacy as moderator in the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Meanwhile, for males, having dependents impacted positively the significance of the role of self-efficacy as moderator.

Table 5: Result for regression coefficients, p-values and model fit characteristics for females

Females (2035)	Married (1216) vs. Single (819)	With dependents (712) vs. Without dependents (1323)	Married with dependents (539) vs. Married without dependents (613)	Married with dependents (539) vs. Single without dependents (710)	Primary breadwinner (1012) vs. Secondary breadwinner (517) vs. equal to partner (506)
Career Identity → Career Commitment	0.564*** vs. 0.697***	0.0569*** vs. 0.654***	0.512*** vs. 0.614***	0.512*** vs. 0.687***	0.708*** vs. 0.544*** vs. 0.651***
Self-efficacy → Career commitment	0.031(p=0.434) vs. 0.112**	0.007(p=0.898) vs. 0.10**	0.013(p=0.826) vs. 0.072 (p=0.191)	0.013(p=0.826) vs. 0.117**	0.091* vs. 0.021(p=0.711) vs. 0.181**
Career Identity X Self-efficacy → Career commitment	0.051** vs. 0.007 (p=0.816)	0.064*** vs. 0.017 (p=0.489)	0.054* vs. 0.074*	0.054* vs. - 0.009 (p=0.707)	0.041(p=0.127) vs. 0.019(p=0.61) vs. 0.069*
CMIN/DF	4.56	4.82	3.85	3.42	3.90
CFI	0.93	0.93	0.91	0.930	0.92
GFI	0.913	0.91	0.88	0.90	0.90
NFI	0.92	0.91	0.88	0.91	0.90
RMSEA	0.042	0.043	0.050	0.044	0.038
SRMR	0.056	0.076	0.069	0.069	0.055
Pclose	1.000	1.000	0.557	1.000	1.000

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < 0.001

Source: own work

1.5 DISCUSSION

This chapter explored the link between career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy across gender and within gender for employees with different family obligations. I proposed (H1) that career identity will be positively related to career commitment. The relationship was supported for both males and females ($\gamma = .635, p \leq .001$; $\gamma = .621, p \leq .001$). Such results are in line with previous findings which have shown that career identity is relevant to career progress (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). The results are also in line with studies which have shown that employees who identify with their career are more involved in career-related behaviours (Leung and Clegg, 2001) and tend to develop attitudes that show commitment (Carson et al., 1999; Hirschi, 2011; Kiesler, 1971). I also proposed (H2) that self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between career identity and career commitment. The relationship was supported for females (2036) ($\gamma = .056, p \leq .01$). However, the relationship was not supported for males (3769) ($\gamma = 0.018, p = 0.276$). Such results relate to studies which have established self-efficacy to have a significant role in career choices, outcomes and success (Ballout, 2009; Lent et al., 1994; Xu and Tracey, 2014). However, in contrast to previous studies, my results depict that self-efficacy is a significant moderator only for female employees. This finding might be as a result that males are known to be more career oriented than females and as such can commit to a career without needing to have high self-efficacy beliefs.

Regarding within gender differences, I set two research questions where I asked whether family obligations influence the nature of relationship between a female and male employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy. I have shown that there are differences within genders at the moderator level (see Table 4 and 5). Such findings are in line with the study which has shown that immediate social and family factors influence the decision to pursue a career (Greenhaus and Powell, 2012). Furthermore, the results are in line with study which has shown that marital status, children, social and/or family support impact the social cognitive variables and career development outcomes of an individual (Brown, 2002). Specifically, being married/cohabiting and/or having dependents in the household played an important factor in establishing differences within females with regards to the importance of the moderator. For females who were married and/or had dependents the moderator was significant. This result also corresponds with the statement that "women are more likely to work outside the home and their earnings are more important to family well-being than ever before" (Boushey, 2009, p.31). The results also correspond with the fact that career related decisions are likely not made by the individual alone but rather in consultation with partner, especially true within families with dual-earner couples (Challiol & Mignonac, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

I also found out that for single females and females who are primary breadwinner in the household the moderator is not significant. One explanation for this result can be the fact

that breadwinner females show resemblance to males when it comes to career development. If they grant importance to their career they will commit to a career without needing to believe that they have the ability to accomplish difficult tasks. Meanwhile, an interesting finding results for females who are equal breadwinners with their partners. For these females the moderator is significant. One explanation for this is that although the female may earn equally to her partner or more than her partner, her main role in the family might be taking care of family members (Masterson & Hoobler, 2014). The other partner might be earning a lower wage but choose a job that will in the future provide for career advancement.

Differences within males with different family obligations have also been confirmed. Having dependents in the household played a decisive role in the significance of self-efficacy as moderator in the link between career identity and career commitment. For males who are married/cohabit and who are single the moderator is not significant for either group. One reason for such a result might be that group of males who are married might see themselves in “traditional couple” type and be career oriented (Masterson and Hoobler, 2014). For males who are married and have dependents self-efficacy strengthens the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Meanwhile males who are married but do not have dependents do not follow the same path. Similarly, for males who are single and that do not have dependents the moderator is not significant. This finding is in line with the previous two groups that we analysed. For males who are primary breadwinners self-efficacy plays the role of the moderator that strengthens the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Meanwhile, males who are secondary breadwinners or equal contributors to household income self-efficacy does not play the role of the moderator.

1.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

This chapter presents three contributions to self-efficacy literature, work–family literature, and SCCT. The first contribution of the chapter is presented to SCCT (Lent et al., 1994). The results of the chapter show that the higher self-efficacy beliefs are the stronger is the relationship between career identity and career commitment. By showing that personal resources are significant factors in career development I extend the literature on SCCT (Lent et al., 1994). To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that has shown that self-efficacy buffers the relationship between career identity and career commitment. There is only one previous study which has established self-efficacy as a significant moderator in the relationship between career commitment and career success (Ballout, 2009).

The second contribution is presented to work-family literature by depicting that the model proposed does not hold equally when analysed within different groups of males and females based on family characteristics. The chapter has shown that family characteristics influence the nature of relationship between a female and male employee’s career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy. A previous study has shown that work-life

balance is positively related to career commitment but it did not focus on gender differences or specific family obligations/characteristics (Amin, Arshad, & Ghani, 2017). To my knowledge, this study is one of the first to answer the call made by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) to empirically test the impact of family characteristics in work and career related decisions. Results reveal that family context such as being married and/or having dependents has an impact in the role of self-efficacy as moderator between career identity and career commitment. For females, marital status and dependents play a decisive role in the significance of self-efficacy as moderator in the link between career identity and career commitment as females who are married and/or have dependents self-efficacy is important moderator while for the other groups it is not. For males, having dependents in the family plays a decisive role in the significance of self-efficacy as the moderator is significant for this group while insignificant for the other groups. Furthermore, it is also, one of the first studies to answer the call made by Lent, Brown and Hackett (2000) to test if inner environmental factors such as family context plays a buffering or hampering role in career choice behaviour.

Finally, results of the chapter have further contributed to literature by showing that the model proposed does not hold equally across genders since for females the moderator is significant while for males it is not. In this way, I have answered the calls made by Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) to analyse gender differences when testing variables such as career identity. More specifically, I have extended the existing literature by focusing the search in across and within gender differences and showing the actual differences. Other studies have mainly focused in analysing the effect of self-efficacy in career related outcomes but without dwelling in within gender differences and specific family contexts.

1.5.2 Practical Implications

Results of this study hold implications for managers regarding how existing and future employees make work and career related decisions. The first implication for managers is that cognitive factors, such as perceived self-efficacy, play an important role in career commitment. Employees who identify with their careers and who have high self-efficacy beliefs will engage in activities that allow them to commit to a specific career. Knowing this, managers can undertake specific activities that would help their employees increase their self-efficacy beliefs. Managers can help their employees increase self-efficacy beliefs by constantly advising them to set goals that are motivating and that they can measure and achieve (Bandura, 1977). To make sure that the initiative is successful managers can organize workshops where they can explain to employees how to measure goals and evaluate whether the goals has been achieved. Supervisors can help employees increase their self-efficacy through role modelling (i.e. being honest to employees, communicating openly with them, treating employees with respect, show humility) and constant encouragement that they can achieve goals they set for themselves (Bandura, 1977). All this initiatives are termed by

Bandura (1977) as mastery experiences. Employees can also increase their self-efficacy beliefs themselves through engaging in vicarious learning which involves watching someone else perform a particular task and instilling in yourself the belief that you can perform the task as well (Bandura, 1977).

The second implication is that family characteristics such as marital status and/or dependents in the family play a crucial part in the buffering role of self-efficacy in career decision making. As such, managers can undertake initiatives to help increase self-efficacy beliefs for the groups of female employees who are married and/or have dependents and/or earn equally to their partners as self-efficacy was a significant moderator for these groups. Similarly, initiatives can be undertaken for those group of male employees who have dependents and are primary breadwinners. Initiatives that can be undertaken by managers to increase the self-efficacy of the specific groups of employees are similar to the initiatives presented above. Namely self-efficacy can be increased through role modelling, encouragement and through watching a colleague perform a particular task and instilling in oneself the belief that one can perform the task as well (Bandura, 1977).

1.5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has limitations that should be noted. First, the response rate is slightly above 10%. However, it should be noted that 15% of the emails in the database were reported to bad by researchers who conducted the survey. Furthermore, the email sent might have been re-directed to junk-mail. Another reason might be that alumni could have developed ways to use filter software that filters and deletes all unwanted e-mail even if the e-mail is not read (Sheehan, 2001). An additional reason might be that alumni once they graduate they are not motivated to keep in contact with their alma mater. Nevertheless, Fowler (2002, p. 42) stated that “there is no agreed-upon standard for a minimum acceptable response rate”. Additionally, the American Education Research Association (2006) does not mention either a minimum or nominally acceptable response rate for survey research. Yet, one way to motivate alumni the next time could be to send a pre-notice and follow-up reminders as they have been shown to successfully attain higher response rates (Yun & Trumbo, 2000).

Second, the cross-sectional nature of data used does not allow to observe causality. Future studies should include longitudinal data to observe casual relationships and changes that might happen through time with regards to work-life and career decisions. Future studies can also use experiments with couples to see the work and career related decisions made by dual earner couples.

Third, the survey was conducted only in United States and that limits the generalizability of the data to other cultures. In other cultures, for example collectivist cultures, family inclusion

in the work-force and dual-earner couples might not be in increase and the same results might not be found.

Fourth, relatively high mean values of constructs are one indicator of social desirability issue and hence can lead to common method bias. However, to avoid this problem, some questions in the questionnaire were reverse coded and variables that are person related that only individuals themselves are able to answer were used. Variables such as self-efficacy, career identity, and career commitment that only employees themselves are best suited to provide information about (Conway & Lance, 2010). Furthermore, questions in the online questionnaire were randomized, and clear and easy to understand instructions and items in the questionnaires were provided as recommended by Hirschi et.al (2014). Furthermore, respondents were assured anonymity and that there are no right or wrong answers and questions should be answered as honestly as possible (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To avoid the problem of common method bias with the data, CFA was used to show that the constructs used are distinct.

Finally, it should be noted that some of the effect sizes in the present study are relatively small, especially for moderation effect. One study that tested the moderating effect of self-efficacy in the relationship between career commitment and career success reported a slightly higher moderation effect (Ballout, 2009). Given this, if the moderation is tested in a much lower sample size we would potentially risk getting insignificant results. Nonetheless, the effect sizes need to be considered in future studies that could replicate the proposed model using a different and lower sample size.

1.6 CONCLUSION

This study has explored how family responsibilities transcend in career decision making and work domain in the presence of cognitive factors. I have tested the link between career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy. These patterns of relationships are investigated across gender and within gender for individuals with different family situations. From the results I have shown that for females the moderator is significant while for males the moderator is not significant. When analysing within gender differences, I have shown that for females who are married/ cohabit and/or have dependents self-efficacy is a significant moderator. Meanwhile, for males who have dependents or hold the role of primary breadwinner self-efficacy resulted to be a significant moderator. However, for females who hold the role of primary breadwinner the moderator is not significant. Meanwhile for those who earn equally to their partners the results are shifted. For males who are equal earners the moderator is not significant while for females who are equal earners the moderator is significant. Results of the study show that decisions related to career are impacted by cognitive factors and family obligations.

2 JOB CRAFTING AND WORK–SELF FACILITATION: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Managing work and family responsibilities and the resulting work–home processes is becoming ever more difficult for the majority of individuals across Europe (Michel, Bosch & Rexroth, 2014). This has prompted scholarly interest in discovering how people manage their different life roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Spector et al., 2004), particularly in the area of human resource management (HRM) (Raiden & Caven, 2011; Boekhorst, Singh, & Burke, 2017), because an employee’s juggling of responsibilities in various life roles impacts their performance at work (Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten, 2011). Initial studies in the area of work-nonwork dynamics demonstrated that the individual’s participation in one role creates problems with successful engagement in another role, calling it work-family conflict (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Mihelič, 2014). Later on, researchers focused on the positive side of participating in different roles with one role emerging as an ally to the other, which was termed work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Tadić, Bakker, & Oerlemans, 2015; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007) and work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Wayne et al., 2007). The difference between enrichment and facilitation, as suggested by Russo and Buonocore (2012), is that enrichment refers to “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p.73), while facilitation refers to developments in the life system that result from resources that are obtained in a particular domain of life (Grzywacz & Butler, 2008).

Yet, work and family are not the only domains an individual devotes their time and energy to. As recently emphasised, employees need to think of more than their work and families (Demerouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013). They need to think of their personal interests and hobbies, an area captured in a different life domain, namely “the self”, referring to the distinctive attributes of an individual that are different from other roles played such as at work or in the family (Demerouti, 2012). As a concept, the “self” originated due to the need to describe “the individuality of the behaving organism” (Viney, 1969, p. 349). The “self” domain in this context comprises the “time spent on personal interests independent of the family domain or work area” (Demerouti, 2012, p. 185). Through the “self” domain, Demerouti (2012) and Demerouti et al. (2013) introduced work–self facilitation, which occurs when resources generated at work positively influence time devoted to personal interests (Demerouti, 2012). This construct therefore offers a more personal perspective to HR professionals regarding how employees manage work and responsibilities outside of work.

The existing literature on antecedents and consequences, although sparse, shows that supervisor support is positively related to work–self facilitation (Demerouti et al., 2013) and that work–self facilitation mediates the relationship between job resources and an individual’s energy (Demerouti, 2012). It has also been demonstrated that work–self facilitation indirectly influences exhaustion (Demerouti, Sanz-Vergel, Petrou, & van den Heuvel, 2016). The potential benefits that work–self facilitation may bring to individuals are a higher level of energy and greater time to invest in personal interest, better health (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009), and potentially enhanced well-being over time (Demerouti, 2012; Demerouti et al., 2013). For organisations and leaders, the potential benefits of work–self facilitation are motivated employees who will exhibit a better job performance as they are satisfied with work facilitating their personal interests rather than interfering in their personal life (Demerouti et al., 2013) and lower levels of absenteeism (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009).

Although the pursuit of personal interests and hobbies is an important domain for individuals, researchers have ignored how these domains and time for oneself affect and are affected by their work (Demerouti et al., 2013). Work–family literature has chiefly focused on measuring work and family or life as domains while neglecting to consider personal interests (Demerouti et al., 2016). As a result, we know relatively little about the role of personal resources in the “self” domain (Demerouti et al., 2013). One potential resource is self-efficacy, defined as the confidence in one’s ability to perform certain actions and, as such, it is the most prevalent and central socio-cognitive mechanism of personal agency (Bandura, 1986a, 2012). It is beneficial at work because it affects task performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984), job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), and career decision-making (Lent et al., 1994). Further, individuals with high self-efficacy are more creative in devising strategies in times of high demands and are eager to undertake new tasks at work (Bandura, 1997).

The aim of this chapter is to explore the mediating role of self-efficacy in the link between job crafting and work–self facilitation. Job crafting refers to proactive behaviours undertaken by an individual at work which entail changes in the level of job demands and job resources to make one’s job more fulfilling and important (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Further, I also test whether the quality of the leader–member exchange (LMX), which captures reciprocal exchanges between the leader and an employee (Blau, 1964; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997), moderates the link between job crafting and self-efficacy. I test whether work–self facilitation is experienced by those employees who craft their jobs, have higher perceived self-efficacy and a good quality of exchange with their supervisor. The Work–Home Resources Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) will be used as the theoretical framework.

The results of this chapter aim to provide four main contributions to the existing literature. Firstly, I aim to complement work–family literature by investigating work–self facilitation, a new and understudied concept (Demerouti et al., 2016) as the bulk of the empirical work largely focuses on analysing family domain while leaving personal interests and hobbies to one side. Every individual has personal interests or personal outcomes that he/she expects, regardless of family status, that motivate him/her to behave in a certain way (Demerouti et al., 2016) and makes decisions based on whether choices fulfil their personal interests (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), which demonstrates the importance of considering the self-domain in developing HR interventions devoted to motivating employees at work.

Secondly, I aim to demonstrate the process leading towards experiencing work–self facilitation, thereby providing a new perspective by focusing on antecedents of work–self facilitation. While previous studies tested outcomes of work–self facilitation (Demerouti 2012; Demerouti et al., 2016), this study considers antecedents and examines self-efficacy as the underlying mechanism. To date, to the best of my knowledge, job crafting has not been explored in this context.

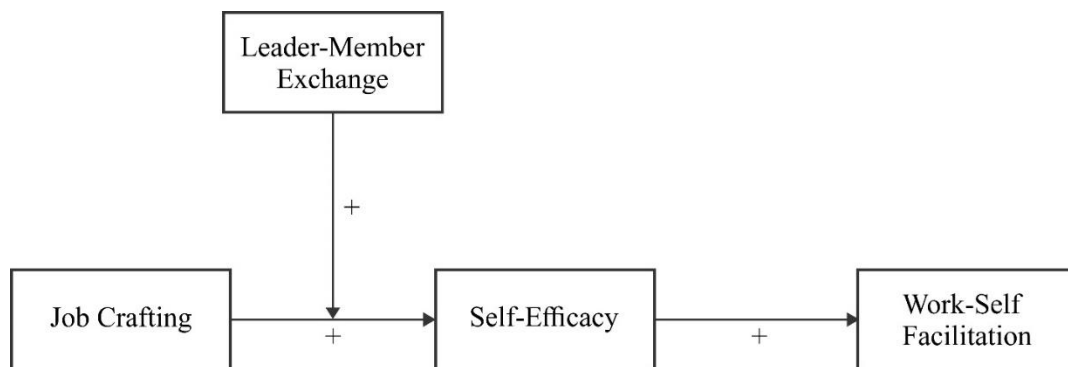
Thirdly, the present study aims to answer the calls to test a proposition from the Work–Home Resources Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), more specifically how the work domain, for example work resources, influence the home domain through personal resources. While scholars have recently tested whether self-efficacy results from work–self facilitation and obtained a non-significant result (Demerouti et al. 2016), my study examines the reverse relationship and aims to establish self-efficacy as a relevant predictor to work–self facilitation. In complementing existing research, I aim to demonstrate that a personal resource is instrumental in experiencing more work–self facilitation.

Fourthly, I aim to follow the suggestion by the authors of the Work–Home Resource Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) to include moderator variables in the relationship between work resources, personal resources and home outcomes. More precisely, to account for the relational aspect of work, which has gained traction in the HR literature (Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000), I introduce LMX as a moderator in the relationship between work resources (i.e. job crafting) and personal resources (i.e. self-efficacy). This aims to add to recent existing literature which mainly focuses on analysing the direct relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy (van den Heuvel, Demerouti, & Peeters, 2015; van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2017b), without testing for potential moderator effects. My research aims to reveal that individuals with high quality LMX are more likely to develop self-efficacy skills and experience work–self facilitation.

2.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The Work–Home Resources Model presents a theoretical framework within which work–home processes are described in detail (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The model is founded on conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which has been used by HR scholars as a theoretical framework in numerous studies (i.e. Boekhorst et al., 2017; Eldor, 2017; Uppal, 2017). The model states that contextual resources, such as culture or social support, and personal resources, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and optimism, are the missing link between the work domain and the home domain (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). More specifically, the model’s authors (ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012) explain how personal resources connect aspects and outcomes between different life domains. As such, I will use the model as a theoretical framework to propose that job crafting leads to work–self facilitation through self-efficacy. Figure 5 represents the proposed conceptual model depicting the hypotheses. In what follows, I develop arguments regarding each relationship that is proposed.

Figure 5: The proposed conceptual model



2.2.1 Job crafting and perceived self-efficacy

The theoretical definition of job crafting is developed from the Job Demand-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). According to the model, job crafting can be described as the changes employees make in their job demands and job resources (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Tims et al., 2012). Job crafting exemplifies the actions employees take to modify the type or number of activities in the job, how one sees the job, and with whom one interacts at work (Tims et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting involves employees engaging in activities that increase job resources, increase challenging job demands, and decrease hindering job demands (Petrou et al., 2012; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012; van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker, 2017a). Job resources such as autonomy, supervisory coaching and performance feedback are proven to help in reducing job demands (Hobfoll, 2002). Job crafting has been shown to increase meaningfulness at work through person–job fit (Tims, Derks, & Bakker,

2016) and to lead to better health and well-being (Bakker, Rodriguez-Munoz, & Sanz-Vergel, 2016). Job crafting positively impacts work performance (Dorenbosch, Bakker, Demerouti, & Van Dam, 2013), thereby making the concept relevant to HR specialists (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) state the motivation for job crafting arises from the need and desire of an employee to portray a positive self to others.

By engaging in job crafting, employees may perceive they are in control of their work environment which, in turn, may elevate their personal resources (van Wingerden et al., 2017b). Therefore, I argue that job crafting behaviours will increase beliefs in oneself. Support for this can be found in a study which demonstrated that employees who engaged in job-crafting interventions had a better self-image (van den Heuvel et al., 2015) and higher self-efficacy (van den Heuvel et al., 2015; van Wingerden et al., 2017b). Further, while crafting his/her job an employee tries to expand their fundamental job resources through maturing oneself professionally which then may boost that employee's self-efficacy (van Wingerden et al., 2017b). Job crafting has been found to correlate positively with the variables of self-image, perceived control and readiness to change (Lyons, 2008). Bakker (2011) stated that days on which an employee is exposed to more job resources stimulate job crafting behaviours, which consequently lead to increased self-efficacy. The perceived self-efficacy will eventually contribute to positive outcomes at home (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The main reason personal resources will lead to positive outcomes is that people who possess more personal resources such as self-efficacy are inclined to better deal with problems and handle stress (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Resources are "objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). It is assumed that resources can generate other new resources and, once obtained, create a gain spiral in which resources accumulate (Hobfoll, 1989). Further, it has been shown that job crafting creates extra job resources (van den Heuvel et al., 2015). It can therefore be assumed that individuals who engage in job-crafting behaviours will increase their job resources and, as a result, generate additional new resources which may lead to positive psychological and organisational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). For example, it has been shown that task resources have a positive effect on efficacy beliefs (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2007).

According to Bandura (1986), because self-efficacy refers to the beliefs that people hold regarding their abilities to exercise control over events, individuals who engage in activities that enable them to craft their jobs will be more confident in their ability to exercise control over the activities undertaken. In addition, employees who are active in job crafting can experience an increase in their personal resources since their level of competence grows and they feel able to cope with difficulties they might face in the future (Berg, Dutton, &

Wrzesniewski, 2007). Another reason it can be assumed that job crafting leads to higher levels of perceived self-efficacy is the fact that employees are motivated to change their job demands and resources in order to present a more positive sense of self to their co-workers (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Moreover, employees who are active in job crafting may feel higher levels of self-efficacy since they believe they can improve their work situation in a proactive manner (van Wingerden et al., 2017b). Moreover, employees who engage in proactive behaviour to increase their job resources and challenging job demands will engage in activities that help them further increase other resources such as personal ones. I thus hypothesise that:

H3: Job crafting will be positively related to perceived self-efficacy.

2.2.2 Perceived self-efficacy and work–self facilitation

Personal interests and hobbies are relevant to every individual and analysing how work influences them and the other way around will prove beneficial to organisations. Kreiner, Hollensbe, and Sheep (2006) proposed that aspects of self ought to be integrated into the interface among different life domains. The reason for this proposition is that individuals do not define themselves as just group members and spouses or parents, but in terms of personal characteristics as well (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009), such as individual identity. Therefore, in order to obtain an all-inclusive view of how individuals function, the “self” domain should be integrated into the work-non work interface (Demerouti, 2009). The “self” is not age or education, but comprised of interests and hobbies that are unique qualities of an individual (Hall, 1972). The “self” determines how one defines oneself (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Further, individuals are prone to worry about their self-interest and try to protect it continuously (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). The present study thus focuses on analysing what impacts work–self facilitation.

According to Hobfoll (1989), individuals tend to invest personal resources with the goal to avoid stressful situations and handle unfavourable circumstances. Since personal resources generate other resources, favourable outcomes such as successful handling of problems and well-being can be expected (Hobfoll, 2002). In this line of thinking, it has been shown that health-related self-efficacy is negatively related to irritation (Krisor & Rowold, 2014). Moreover, self-efficacy has been shown to be negatively related to exhaustion over time (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Therefore, individuals who have high personal resources, such as self-efficacy, will achieve better well-being (De Caroli & Sagone, 2014) and have time to devote to their personal interests. Self-esteem, as another form of personal resource, has been found to predict future work self (Cai et al., 2015) and job performance (Liu, Hui, Lee, & Chen 2013). Further, it has also been shown that optimism, a similar personal resource, is positively related to work outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction, work happiness

(Youssef & Luthans, 2007), well-being (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001) and effective coping with life stressors (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2000).

Given that personal resources, such as perceived self-efficacy, positively influence dealing with contextual demands while at the same time improve the use of contextual resources (social support from the supervisor or co-workers), persons who have higher self-efficacy beliefs are more prone to experience work–home enrichment (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In addition, perceived “self-efficacy contributes to motivation by influencing the challenges that people pursue, the effort they spend, and their perseverance in the face of obstacles” (Guglielmi, Simbula, Schaufeli, & Depolo, 2012, p.377). Moreover, people who possess high perceived self-efficacy are better at dealing with stressful situations (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). “Employees with high self-efficacy may perceive they have a better balance between work and life, causing them to be more confident in their perceptions of both their job and their life in general” (Seong, 2016, p. 912). Another study (Noraani, Aminah, Jegak, & Khairuddin, 2011) shows that single mothers who possessed high self-efficacy also experienced a high level of work–family facilitation. Further, it has already been shown that optimism is related to higher work–self facilitation (Demerouti et al., 2016). Therefore, I propose that perceived self-efficacy will lead to employees gaining from resources at work and using those gains to promote the use of time devoted to personal interests. Moreover, it is also noted that individuals generalise experiences learned from work to situations outside work (Kohn & Schooler, 1982). Accordingly, I hypothesise that:

H4: Perceived self-efficacy will be positively related to work–self facilitation.

Researchers (e.g. Judge et al., 1997) have proposed that personal resources tend to function as mediators in the relationship between environmental factors and outcomes. Personal resources are described as those aspects of the self that are linked to resilience and concern the perception of an individual regarding their ability to control and influence their environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). In addition, personal resources might also outline the way individuals understand and respond to the environment that surrounds them (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003; Judge et al., 1997). Prior studies have shown that personal resources may play the role of a mediator between environmental factors and work-home outcomes. Balance self-efficacy, the belief in being able to manage resources and demands at work and family (Zanhour, 2015), has been shown to mediate the relationship between a family-supportive culture and work–family enrichment (Zanhour, 2015). In addition, organisation-based self-esteem has been shown to mediate the impacts of servant leadership and job social support on family satisfaction and family life quality (Yang, Zhang, Kwan, & Chen, 2015). Moreover, self-assurance, which includes positive emotions such as pride and self-confidence, has been shown to mediate the relationship between work engagement and work–home enrichment (Clark, Michel, Stevens, Howell, & Scruggs, 2014).

The mediating role of personal resources is also explained through the Work–Home Resources model, which states that personal resources are the missing link relating the work domain to the home domain (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Accordingly, work resources lead to more personal resources which, in turn, lead to positive outcomes at home (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). I can therefore propose that the job crafting initiatives undertaken by an employee to increase job resources will lead to higher perceived self-efficacy, which will then lead to positive outcomes at home, such as work–self facilitation.

H5: Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation.

2.2.3 The moderating role of leader–member exchange

In addition to the main effect explained above, we argue that social exchange relationships with one’s supervisor also play a critical role in the process. One form of social exchange is LMX, defined as reciprocal exchanges between leaders and their subordinates based on trust, respect and obligations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX consists of the dyadic relationship between leader and employee that develops through cumulative reciprocal exchanges between the two parties (Cropanzano, Dasborough, & Weiss, 2017; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX theory holds that leaders have distinctive relationships with each employee (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Martin, Thomas, Legood, & Russo, 2018) that result from role expectations and fulfilments (Liao, Hu, Chung, & Chen, 2017). Having high-quality LMX means a high-quality relationship between leader and follower, which is associated with superior performance (Liao et al., 2017). People who have a good quality of exchange with their supervisor will engage in activities that help them increase resources, increase challenging tasks that motivate them to work, and reduce demands (Tims et al., 2012). Further, employees with a high-quality relationship with their supervisor will enhance their work engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015; Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013; Khan & Malik, 2017), task performance (Martin et al., 2015) and may be more optimistic (Tims et al., 2011). In terms of behavioural outcomes, high-quality LMX is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour and innovative work behaviour (Khan & Malik, 2017). When the quality of LMX is high, the leader can expect the subordinate to execute non-routine tasks (Graen & Cashman, 1975) that can be similar to job-crafting initiatives. Superior support, which is similar to LMX, has been shown to significantly impact work role ambiguity (Au & Ahmed, 2016). Further, high-quality LMX can make employees more willing to undertake additional tasks at work and try out innovative behaviour at work (Peng, 2016) that helps them increase their self-beliefs. By virtue of the high-quality relationship with the supervisor, employees may feel more energised to perform well and engage in tasks that are intrinsically motivating. It has also been proven that LMX is positively related to psychological empowerment (Wang, Gan, & Wu, 2016) and the meaningfulness of work (Tummers & Bronkhorst, 2014).

According to ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012), contextual resources at work, which include quality of the exchange with one's supervisor, can lead to key personal resources such as perceived self-efficacy. Effective leaders have the ability to inspire employees to undertake challenging tasks (Eden, 1990). High-quality LMX is positively related to psychological capital with self-efficacy as one of its components (Liao et al., 2017). According to Luo and Cheng (2014), when supervisors inform employees that they have high expectations of them, employees get the hint that the supervisors believe in them and acknowledge them. Such a hint motivates employees to become more courageous to handle challenging tasks, thereby resulting in heightened self-efficacy beliefs (Luo & Cheng, 2014). There are other scholars as well who claim that high quality LMX fuels employees' self-efficacy (Biao & Shuping, 2014; Schyns, 2004; Schyns, Paul, Mohr, & Blank, 2005). According to Walumbwa, Cropanzano and Goldman (2011, p. 743), "LMX boosts effective work behaviours providing in this way an opportunity to employees to develop new skills and to gain confidence in their own ability". Job crafting represents one strategy for the individual's learning and self-development. One way that the quality of LMX can increase self-efficacy is by leaders using appropriate verbal persuasion that boosts worker self-confidence (Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Based on the above and "given the importance of the dyadic linkages on social-cognitive constructs such as self-efficacy" (Reynolds, 2002, p. 78), it seems viable that LMX can strengthen the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. It can be assumed that employees who have a high quality of LMX will craft their jobs and in return develop self-efficacy beliefs. Employees with a high quality LMX will undertake initiatives to increase their job resources and demands, which can result in stronger beliefs in the ability to perform challenging tasks at work. As a result, I propose that LMX, as one form of social exchange variable, can boost crafting's positive effect on perceived self-efficacy. I thus hypothesise that:

H6: LMX will moderate the positive relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy, where the relationship will be stronger for employees with a higher quality of LMX.

2.2.4 The mediating role of perceived self-efficacy and the moderating role of LMX

Hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 suggest that job crafting has an impact on work-self facilitation through perceived self-efficacy. Hypothesis 6 states that LMX will moderate the relationship between job crafting and perceived self-efficacy. These relationships are depicted in the overall theoretical model illustrated in Figure 5. Models with such a configuration are identified as moderated mediation models (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes 2007). Although Hypotheses 3, 4 and 6 may be examined by testing the significance of individual paths in the model, research indicates that testing individual paths is insufficient for establishing mediation and moderated mediation effects (Ambrose et al., 2013; Hayes, 2012). As a result,

I provide a final hypothesis, which specifies the overall moderated mediation effects predicted by the model:

H7: Job crafting will be related to work–self facilitation via conditional indirect effects, such that its relationship with work–self facilitation will be moderated by LMX and mediated by self-efficacy.

2.3 METHODS

2.3.1 Sample and Procedures

Full-time employees participated in this study. Data were gathered during fall 2016 via an electronic survey that was administered to a 1000 alumni of the Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) in Kosovo during the second half of 2016 via the Alumni Office. The RIT in Kosovo is a not-for-profit, higher education institution chartered in Kosovo and offers degrees from the Rochester Institute of Technology in Rochester, NY, USA. The response rate was 20%. Out of 204 respondents, 57% were female and 43% were male. The mean age of the respondents was 29.050 (SD=5.186). Participation in the study was voluntary and employees were not offered any gifts. In order to reduce the potential social desirability bias, the respondents were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality.

2.3.2 Measures

Unless otherwise noted, seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (“never” and “strongly disagree”) to 7 (“always” and “strongly agree”) were used for the purposes of the study. We used established scales for all constructs and adopted a translation-back-translation procedure. The following is a description of the measurement scales used for the variables. Detailed information on each scale used is provided in Appendix C.

Job crafting. Job crafting was measured with 10 items from Tims et al. scale (2012) – $\alpha = .828$. The scale includes items such as “I ask colleagues for advice” and “When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as a project co-worker”.

General self-efficacy. General Self-Efficacy was measured with an 8-item scale developed by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) – $\alpha = .788$. The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate how confident they feel in their ability to perform effectively across different tasks and situations at work. The scale includes items such as “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself” and “I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks”.

Leader–member exchange. Leader–Member Exchange was measured with a 7-item scale developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) – $\alpha = .878$. The scale asked respondents to indicate to what extent they agree with statements indicating that their supervisor understands employee’s needs and recognises employee’s potential (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). The questionnaire included items such as “My supervisor would ‘bail me out’ at his/her expense”.

Work–self facilitation. Work–self facilitation was measured with a 4-item scale by Demerouti (2009) – $\alpha = .806$. The questionnaire included items such as “After work you really feel like pursuing your personal interests”.

Control variables. Participants’ gender, age, education, years of working for the current employer, and working hours in an average week were included as control variables since the same were used in previous studies and found to be relevant to the subject (Demerouti *et al.*, 2013). I also included work position (coded as: 1-Administrative Employee, 2-Service provider, 3-Lower level management, 4-Medium level management, 5-Senior level management, 6-Academic staff, 7-other), hours spent working on the weekend, marital status (coded as: 1-Single, 2-Married, 3-Divorced/Separated, 4-Living with partner, 5-Widowed) and number of children as control variables.

2.4 RESULTS

Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, correlations and reliability coefficients of the four focal variables and control variables used in the study are given in Table 6. The correlations between the main variables are significant and range between 0.210 and 0.386. The correlation between the control and focal variables is significant and positive between gender and self-efficacy ($r = 0.166$), gender and LMX ($r = 0.163$), children and self-efficacy ($r = 0.153$), and negative between supervisory position and self-efficacy ($r = -0.181$). Cronbach’s alpha coefficient range from 0.788 to 0.878, showing that all measurement scales are internally consistent (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Before testing the proposed hypotheses, I evaluated the factor structure for the four constructs: job crafting, self-efficacy, LMX and work-self facilitation. The proposed structure estimated with the maximum likelihood estimation method showed the following results: $\chi^2 [266] = 410.381$, CFI = 0.921, TLI = 0.911, SRMR = 0.065, RMSEA = 0.052. The goodness-of-fit indices (Marsh *et al.*, 2004) demonstrated a good fit. All item loadings were statistically significant. I tested alternative models to assess discriminant validity and the results showed a worse fit with the data (LMX and work-self facilitation items on the same factor: $\chi^2 [269] = 615.668$, CFI = 0.811, TLI = 0.789, SRMR = 0.089, RMSEA = 0.080 ($p = 0.000$); self-efficacy and job crafting items on the same factor: $\chi^2 [269] = 506.886$, CFI = 0.870, TLI = 0.855; SRMR = 0.076, RMSEA = 0.066 ($p = 0.002$)).

To analyse the proposed hypotheses, I used Hayes' Process Macro for SPSS Model 7 (Hayes, 2012). This tool is appropriate for testing moderated mediation models (Hayes, 2012), similar to the one proposed in this study because, besides testing the individual paths, Process allows tests for moderation and mediation effects, both individually and together. The results from Process are broken down into three main sections in Table 7. The first part of the table shows the test results for Hypotheses 3, indicating that job crafting is positively and significantly related to self-efficacy ($\gamma = .144, p = .001; r^2 = 0.195, p < 0.01$). Further, the results show that LMX moderates the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy with a marginally significant interaction term ($\gamma = .070, p = .10; r^2 = 0.195, p < 0.01$). In this way, the results provide support for Hypotheses 6. The first part of the table shows results for Hypothesis 4 as well, indicating that self-efficacy is positively and significantly related to work–self facilitation ($\gamma = .338, p < .05; r^2 = 0.215, p < 0.01$). The results show support for Hypothesis 4.

Although the direct path results and interaction term show that job crafting interacts with leader–member exchange and self-efficacy to influence work–self facilitation, I tested the model for the moderated mediation effect (Hypotheses 5 and 7). Following the recommendation by Hayes (2012), I based my decision on the conditional indirect effect depicted in Figure 5. The results show that I examined the conditional indirect effect of job crafting on work–self facilitation through self-efficacy at the mean value, one standard deviation below the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean of leader–member exchange. The results presented in Table 7 show that the conditional indirect effects at the mean and one standard deviation above the mean were significantly different from zero, while the conditional indirect effect for one standard deviation below the mean was not significantly different from zero (Hayes, 2012). Since the sampling distribution of the conditional indirect effect should not be assumed to be normal, through Process I extracted asymmetric bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals for making inferences about the conditional indirect effects using 5,000 bootstrap samples (Hayes, 2012). A 90% bootstrap confidence interval for the conditional indirect effect is significantly different from zero among all except those with a very low quality of LMX. Those who have a score of LMX at the mean or higher than the mean are more likely to develop self-efficacy skills and experience work–self facilitation (mean 0.049 CI = 0.011-0.105; +1 SD 0.018-0.146). For those who score lower in the quality of LMX, the indirect effect is not different from zero (-0.010-0.088). These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 7 as self-efficacy mediates the effect of job crafting on work–self facilitation among those who have higher levels of LMX. Further, the index of moderated mediation is significantly different from zero with an effect of 0.024 and confidence interval ranging from 0.002 to 0.063, thus supporting my claim that there is a moderated mediation process that leads from job crafting to work–self facilitation.

Table 6: Descriptives, correlations and reliabilities^{a, b, c, d}

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Age	29.050	5.186	-												
2 Gender	1.571	0.496	0.162*	-											
3 Education	3.621	0.571	0.436**	0.112	-										
Years working for current employer	4.240	3.996	0.591**	-0.080	0.260**	-									
5 Supervisory position	1.540	0.499	-0.383**	0.177*	-0.163*	-0.337**	-								
6 Job position	3.471	1.457	0.276**	-0.080*	0.331**	0.206**	-0.462**	-							
7 Working hours per week	40.130	11.505	0.180**	-0.148*	0.064	0.211**	-0.308**	0.148*	-						
8 Marital Status	1.722	0.811	0.449**	-0.062	0.275**	0.267**	-0.267**	0.349**	0.030	-					
9 Children	1.711	0.455	-0.670**	0.012	-0.297**	-0.445**	0.393**	-0.288**	-0.149*	-0.452**	-				
10 Job crafting	4.731	0.931	0.011	0.027	-0.025	0.039	-0.115	0.127	-0.008	0.082	-0.093	(0.828)			
11 Self-Efficacy	5.992	0.571	0.070	0.166*	0.119	0.061	-0.181**	0.114	0.050	0.035	-0.153*	0.275**	(0.788)		
12 LMX ^c	5.167	1.025	-0.135	0.163*	-0.057	-0.105	-0.069	0.131	-0.029	0.001	0.054	0.386**	0.210**	(0.878)	
13 Work-self facilitation	4.717	1.141	-0.123	0.127	-0.010	-0.029	-0.020	0.097	0.127	0.022	0.070	0.379**	0.268**	0.376**	(0.806)

^a n=204

^b Coefficient alphas are on the diagonal in parentheses

^c LMX - leader-member exchange

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

^d For gender, 1 = “male”, 2 = “female”. For education, 1 = “less than four years of high school”, 2 = “high school”, 3 = “bachelor degree”, 4 = “master degree”, 5 = “doctorate”. For supervisory position, 1 = “yes”, 2 = “no”. For job position, 1 = “administrative employee”, 2 = “service provider”, 3 = “lower level management”, 4 = “medium level management”, 5 = “senior level management”, 6 = “academic staff”. For marital status, 1 = “single”, 2 = “married”, 3 = “divorced/separated”, 4 = “living with partner”, 5 = “widowed”. For children, 1 = “yes”, 2 = “no”.

Source: own work

Table 7: Process results for individual paths, moderation and mediated moderation model^{a, b, c}

	Job Crafting→ Self-efficacy	Intercept (Moderation)	Self-efficacy → Work–self facilitation		
Constant	5.940 **	5.940 **	2.261†		
Age	-0.003	-0.003	-0.020		
Gender	0.190*	0.190*	0.190		
Education	0.100	0.100	0.011		
Working for current employer	-0.010	-0.010	0.004		
Supervisory position	-0.195	-0.195	0.014		
Job position	-0.010	-0.010	0.075		
Working hours per week	0.002	0.002	-0.002		
Marital Status	-0.035	-0.035	0.013		
Children	-0.116	-0.116	0.231		
Job crafting	0.144**	0.144**			
Self-Efficacy			0.338*		
LMX		0.070 †			
Work–Self Facilitation					
R-sq	0.195**	0.195**	0.215**		
Conditional indirect effects of X on Y at values of the moderator					
Mediator					
	LMX	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	BootULCI
Self-efficacy	-1SD (4.14)	0.024	0.030	-0.010	0.088
Self-efficacy	Mean (5.16)	0.050	0.029	0.011	0.105
Self-efficacy	+1 SD (6.19)	0.073	0.039	0.018	0.146
Index of moderated mediation					
Mediator					
	Index	SE (Boot)	Boot LLCI	BootULCI	
Self-efficacy	0.024	0.019	0.002	0.063	

^an=204; ^b= Values in bold are relevant to the tested hypotheses; ^c= Based on 5,000 bootstrap samples; Boot Ind. Eff. Bootstrap indirect effects; **p<0.01, *p<0.05, †p ≤ .10

2.5 DISCUSSION

The main aim of this chapter was to analyse the process through which work–self facilitation occurs. Such aim offers HR researchers an improved understanding of factors leading to work–self facilitation and provides HR practitioners with specific recommendations on how employees can achieve work–self facilitation. Drawing on the Work–Home Resources Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I analysed the effect of job crafting on work–self facilitation via self-efficacy, and considered the moderating role of LMX. I demonstrated that job crafting leads to self-efficacy, supporting the third hypothesis (H3: $\gamma = .144$, $p = .001$). This result is in line with the results of two recent studies, with one being conducted on employees from a Dutch police district and the other on teachers, which showed that job crafting initiatives led to higher self-efficacy (van den Heuvel et al., 2015; van Wingerden et al., 2017b). Moreover, the results support the sixth hypothesis (H6: $\gamma = .070$, $p = .10$), proposing that LMX moderates the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. Whereas in previous studies LMX directly predicted self-efficacy (e.g. Schyns, 2004; Schyns et al., 2005; Biao & Shuping, 2014) and job crafting (Peng, 2016; Tims et al., 2012), this study went one step further and established LMX as a moderator in the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. I demonstrated that the relationship is stronger for individuals with a higher quality of LMX.

Further, the fourth hypothesis is also supported (H4: $\gamma = .338$, $p < .05$) by showing that self-efficacy leads to work–self facilitation. This complements previous findings in work–family literature showing that people with high self-efficacy have a better work–life balance and experience work–family facilitation (Noraani et al., 2011; Seong, 2016). The results reveal that, besides impacting the work–family domain, self-efficacy positively impacts the “self” domain or the time devoted to personal interests. In addition, the fifth and seventh hypotheses were supported, indicating that job crafting is related to work–self facilitation via conditional indirect effects, such that its relationship is moderated by leader–member exchange and mediated by self-efficacy. My results complement a prior study which demonstrated that personal resources function as a mediator between family supportive culture and work–family enrichment (Zanhour, 2015). Regarding moderation, the results indicate that a high quality of LMX strengthens the positive association between self-efficacy and work–self facilitation.

It should be noted that the effect sizes in the present study are relatively small, except for the one between self-efficacy and work–self facilitation. However, based on previous studies, such effect sizes could be expected. For example, one study that tested if job crafting interventions led to higher self-efficacy (van den Heuvel et al., 2015) reported a small effect size. Further, a previous study that tested the link between LMX and self-efficacy also reported a relatively small effect size (Biao & Shuping, 2014) in the link between LMX and job crafting (Li, 2015). Nonetheless, the effect sizes need to be considered in future studies

that could replicate the proposed model using other occupational samples. The following section presents three specific points concerning how our study advances the theory.

2.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

This study makes four unique contributions to work-family literature and HR literature. First, by focusing the attention on work–self facilitation, I expand what is known about a novel employee outcome, which thus far has been explored in only three studies (Demerouti, 2012; Demerouti et al., 2013; Demerouti et al., 2016). The vast majority of the work concerning work–nonwork interface has been dedicated to work–family or work–life dynamics (Allen et al., 2015; Lapierre et al., 2017; McNall et al., 2010), while the role played by work regarding personal interests has been neglected (Demerouti et al., 2013). In addition, there is hitherto a “lack of studies combining work and personal interests and examining how conflict or facilitation between them may affect well-being and performance” (Demerouti et al., 2016, p. 392). In doing so, I respond to suggestions by Demerouti et al. (2013) to expand the research on work–self facilitation and those by Kreiner et al. (2006) to include the aspects of self in the interface among life domains. Research in ‘the self’ domain is important and in harmony with the current predisposition in organisational and HR research to attend to employees’ desires in designing their jobs (Demerouti et al., 2016).

Second, I improve current understanding of the process that leads to work–self facilitation. The study provides a new perspective by focusing on antecedents of work–self facilitation, whereas previous studies considered work–self facilitation as predicting outcomes or as a mediator between job resources and an individual’s energy (Demerouti, 2012; Demerouti et al., 2013; Demerouti et al., 2016). However, job crafting has not been considered in relation to work–self facilitation. As such, with this work I add new knowledge to the work–self facilitation literature by explaining how the process in which initiatives undertaken at work to increase job resources and challenges and decrease job demands may lead to employees’ work–self facilitation. More specifically, I show that job crafting has a positive indirect relationship with work–self facilitation. It is relevant to understand the organisational conditions that increase work–self facilitation because for employees who experience work–self facilitation their level of exhaustion decreases considerably (Demerouti et al., 2016). Moreover, time devoted to personal interests can improve performance at work (Demerouti et al., 2016) which, in turn, results in positive outcomes for the organisation. With challenges pertaining to managing different responsibilities being of concern to HR researchers (Raiden & Caven, 2011), I inform HR literature about how proactive behaviours practised at work indirectly and personal resources directly impact an employee’s work–self facilitation.

The third contribution entails testing a proposition from the Work–Home Resources Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) regarding the role of personal resources between the work domain and the home domain, by demonstrating that self-efficacy is relevant in

understanding how employees experience work–self facilitation. This study is a response to the suggestions made by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) to test the proposed relationships which allocate personal resources as a missing link between work and home processes. I show that self-efficacy can be regarded as a viable personal resource in this context. Researchers have proposed that perceived self-efficacy acts as a self-motivating mechanism in such a way that, once employees perceive they have the capabilities required, they are motivated to spend significant effort to overcome obstacles and achieve the desired goals (Guglielmi et al., 2012). In addition, individuals with higher level of self-efficacy beliefs are more prone to experience work–home enrichment (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Moreover, related research has explored the factors leading to work–family facilitation and work–life balance by showing that high self-efficacy leads to a higher level of work–family facilitation and better work-life balance (Noraani et al., 2011; Seong, 2016). In complementing existing research, I show that employees’ self-efficacy – a personal resource, is also conducive of experiencing more work–self facilitation, rather than the other way around. Namely, scholars have recently tested whether self-efficacy results from work–self facilitation but obtained a non-significant result (Demerouti et al. 2016). By demonstrating that self-efficacy leads to work–self facilitation, the HR literature is informed of the important role played by personal resources in achieving work–self facilitation.

The fourth contribution lies in showing that the interaction between job crafting and LMX needs to be considered when explaining the link between job crafting, self-efficacy and work–self facilitation and in answering the calls (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) to explore moderating variables in the relationship between work resources, personal resources and home outcomes. To the best of my knowledge, no research has analysed the moderating effect of LMX on the relationship between job crafting and perceived self-efficacy. Namely, previous recent studies mainly analysed the direct linkage between job crafting and self-efficacy (van den Heuvel et al., 2015; van Wingerden et al., 2017b) while neglecting tests for moderating effects. The results of the study establish LMX as a relevant relational variable that moderates the positive relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy, where the relationship is stronger for employees with a higher quality of LMX.

Concretely, individuals who initiate actions that help them increase their job resources and challenging job demands while reducing hindering job demands feel more confident in their abilities to perform challenging tasks at work when the quality of LMX is high. Further, I show that individuals who have a LMX score at the mean or above the mean are more likely to develop self-efficacy skills and experience work–self facilitation. More particularly, LMX moderates the indirect relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation via self-efficacy such that high quality LMX strengthens the positive indirect relationship. With such a result, I complement a previous study which showed that a related variable, supervisor

support, which entails the perception of employees regarding how much the supervisor acknowledges their contribution and cares about their welfare (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), is positively related to work–self facilitation (Demerouti et al., 2013). Building high quality relationships between leaders and employees represents the core of HR practices (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000), making this contribution relevant to HR literature. Moreover, showing that the quality of LMX indirectly impacts work–self facilitation is important for HR researchers wishing to understand the impact of LMX on managing different life roles.

2.5.2 Practical Implications

Managers and HR practitioners have gradually come to understand that combining work with non-work roles is no longer just an individual challenge and that different stakeholders and interests play a role in creating and/or solving problems in inter-role management (Demerouti et al, 2013). As shown in this study, personal interests play a significant role in inter-role management. The study results outline implications for HR managers and employees.

The first implication is that HR practitioners must take account of the fact that, besides influencing home or family life, work influences personal life as well. As such, HR managers could implement policies that help employees devote sufficient time to their personal interests as that time can affect employees' performance and feelings about work. Individuals who feel that work is facilitating the time they devote to personal interests will have greater energy and exhibit better job performance (Demerouti et al, 2013). Therefore, HR managers could support employees to achieve work–self facilitation. Our study shows that employees can achieve work–self facilitation through job crafting initiatives and self-efficacy.

The second implication is that managers together with HR professionals could devote more attention to developing interventions that can be introduced to stimulate employees to craft their jobs in order for employees to become more efficacious, involved and happy at work (Berg et al., 2008) and feel that their work role helps them in pursuing their personal interests. Although job crafting occurs without leaders' knowledge or formal support and is completely based on employees' own will, managers and HR professionals can still undertake initiatives that help employees engage in proactive behaviours to increase job resources and challenging job demands. Training, which is a central part of HRM (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), can be undertaken to encourage employees to engage in job crafting initiatives. One intervention to increase job crafting was used by van den Heuvel, Demerouti and Peeters (2015) and “consisted of a 1-day training session on the theory and practice of job crafting, a 4-weeks period of applying job crafting and a half-day reflection session” (p. 523). Employees were trained to make small adjustments to their work situation and

formulated their job-crafting goals in a personal plan. The results showed that the intervention was successful for motivating employees to engage in job-crafting behaviours (van den Heuvel et al., 2015).

The third implication concerns an employee's own initiatives to increase their self-efficacy as this can lead to work–self facilitation. One way an employee can boost their self-efficacy is by observing someone else perform a particular task, and persuading oneself that if others can do it then they should be able to do it as well, otherwise termed vicarious experience (Bandura, 1977). Another method to increase self-efficacy beliefs is through controlling anxiety (Bandura, 1977). Controlling for anxiety helps an employee experience enthusiasm that encourages higher self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977). Supervisors can also help employees increase their self-efficacy because this might be helpful not only in their work but also in their other domains. One way for supervisors to increase the level of employees' self-efficacy is to develop a coaching style of leadership (Demerouti et al., 2016). Another way that supervisors can increase self-efficacy is by role modelling, verbal persuasion or encouragement, and telling employees to set specific, realistic and motivating goals, otherwise termed mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977, 1997; van den Heuvel et al., 2015).

The fourth implication for HR managers is that, once employees feel that the quality of the exchange with their supervisor is high, their self-efficacy beliefs increase. If the same employees engage in job-crafting initiatives, the increased self-efficacy from the high quality of LMX will help them promote their functioning or affect the time devoted to personal interests. The quality of LMX can, for example, be enhanced by HR managers devoting more time to supervisor–employee informal conversations. HR managers can help build up the quality of the dyadic relationship by motivating employees to be honest and establish a good relationship with their supervisor (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014) and motivating supervisors to build a good relationship with each employee so that cumulative positive exchanges are established. Another way is for the supervisor to provide help to employees in career planning. A further way to increase the quality of LMX is by encouraging employees to seek performance feedback (Lam et al., 2007). One more way for HR managers to boost the quality of LMX is through the same interventions proposed to increase job-crafting behaviours (van den Heuvel et al., 2015). Authors of the study (van den Heuvel et al., 2015) found that job-crafting interventions positively affected LMX.

2.5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has limitations that should be noted. First, the data are self-reported, which might create problems with common method bias. To avoid this problem, some items in the questionnaire were reverse-coded and we used variables that are person-related such that only individuals themselves were able to answer. One such variable is work–self facilitation that only employees themselves are best suited to provide information about (Conway &

Lance, 2010). Further, questions in the online questionnaire were randomised, and clear and easy-to-understand instructions and items in the questionnaires were provided as recommended by Hirschi, Herrmann, and Keller (2014). Respondents were also informed that there are no right or wrong answers. To further support our claim that common method bias is unlikely to be a concern, Siemsen, Roth, and Oliveira (2010, p. 470) stated that “there is no reason that common method bias would create an artificial interaction effect”. Second, the cross-sectional nature of the data used does not allow causality to be observed. Future studies should include longitudinal data to observe causal relationships and changes that might happen through time with regard to job crafting and work–self facilitation. Future studies could also use experiments or interventions in the workplace to analyse the proposed relationships.

Regarding future research, one suggestion for HR researchers is to compare individuals who work in more and less stressful occupations in order to test whether there is a difference between the two groups. Another avenue for future research would be to repeat the study with individuals who work in a specific job position to see if the same results are achieved. An additional research avenue is testing country of origin as a potential moderator, especially Asian countries as the concept of ‘self’ differs between individuals from Asian and Western countries (Demerouti et al., 2013). Such a test would enable us to understand whether our findings can be generalised to non-western cultures. One other avenue for future research is to test whether age or career stage are critical since it has been proposed that younger workers have a different attitude to work and leisure to mid-age workers and older workers.

2.6 CONCLUSION

Participation in one’s work role can greatly affect one’s performance in non-work responsibilities and in other roles in life such being a partner, or a parent, and the other way around. Further, the work role can affect personal interests as well, and vice versa. Since work–self facilitation can have an important impact on every individuals’ life and organisation as well, the process that leads to it should be analysed. This study underscores the importance of self-efficacy as the missing link between the work domain and the home domain. In other words, I demonstrate that work–self facilitation can be achieved through job crafting as mediated by self-efficacy and moderated by a high quality of LMX, thereby pointing to HR practices that may be promoted in organisations and providing a direction for future HR researchers to focus on work–self facilitation.

3 SELF-EFFICACY, PROMOTION FOCUS AND FAMILY–WORK ENRICHMENT AS JOINT PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The growing interdependence of workplace tasks obliges employees to perform on-the-job activities that fall outside their official responsibilities (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). As such, organisations have focused their attention on employee work behaviour (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) and on recruiting and retaining employees who engage in voluntary behaviour in order to maximise their performance at work. One such behaviour is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (hereafter: OCB), namely, an individual's voluntary commitment within an organisation that is not part of their predetermined responsibilities (Organ, 1997). Organisations benefit from employees performing beyond their job duties because OCB improves organisational efficiency and effectiveness, plays a relevant role in the organisation's survival (Organ, 1988; Walz & Niehoff, 1996), positively impacts innovation and adaptability (Walz & Niehoff, 1996), decreases counterproductive behaviour (Dalal, 2005) and leads to enhanced productivity and thus potential profitability (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011).

Given the above, it is very important for organisations to understand the conditions that facilitate employees' OCB. Specifically, it is necessary to understand the role individual characteristics play in OCB as they have been shown to be relevant predictors of OCB (Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008; Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2016; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). For example, Emotional Stability, Extraversion, Openness/Intellect, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness have all been shown to predict OCB (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011). Optimism and self-esteem have also been shown to be positively related to OCB (Ariani, 2012; Ugwu & Igbende, 2017; Norman, Avey, Nimmicht, & Pigeon, 2010). Self-efficacy, the belief that an individual possesses the competencies they need to take control of life events (Bandura, 1997; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998), has been revealed as leading to more OCB (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Paramasivam, 2015; Shahidi, Shamsnia, & Baezat, 2015). Employee morale and role perceptions, as individual characteristics, have been found to increase OCB while indifference to rewards was found to reduce OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bacharach, 2000). Regarding inter-role relationships, work–family enrichment has been shown to be positively related to OCB (Jenkins, Heneghan, Bailey, & Barber, 2014) while work–family conflict has been established as being negatively related to OCB (Cloninger, Selvarajan, Singh, & Huang, 2015).

Researchers contend there can be a ‘too much of a good thing’ effect where “positive phenomena reach inflection points at which their effects turn negative” (Grant & Schwartz, 2011, p. 61). One variable proposed to have such an effect is self-efficacy (Grant & Schwartz, 2011), yet this has not been empirically tested with OCB. Further, it is still unclear how self-efficacy interacts with self-regulatory and inter-relationships variables to impact OCB. Researchers have so far not tested for the specific conditions in which high self-efficacy would have a positive impact on performance. It is therefore paramount to test for the conditions in which a high level of self-efficacy would lead to more OCB.

This chapter’s aims are to test: 1) if self-efficacy can have a positive relationship with OCB to a certain point and then have a negative relationship; and 2) the triple interaction between self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus significantly impacts the OCB of employees in a service delivery context. These specific variables were chosen because it has been shown that strategic orientation in pursuing goals impacts OCB (Higgins, 2000) and that inter-role relationships may also interact with self-efficacy to impact citizenship behaviour. Family–work enrichment has been conceptualized as a process where participation in the family role increases the quality or performance in the role at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), while promotion focus has been defined as a regulatory state concerned with achieving an ideal self and producing sensitivity to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (Lockwood et al., 2002). I build on control theory (Powers, 1973), which holds that an employee’s motivation to invest resources depends on their assessment of current and anticipated states and goals (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006), to investigate the three-way interaction of inter-role relationships (i.e. family–work enrichment), regulatory focus (i.e. promotion focus) and self-efficacy on service delivery OCB.

The results of the chapter intend to provide three main contributions to the literature. First, I aim to complement the self-efficacy literature by investigating the U-shaped relationship between self-efficacy and OCB. I thereby intend to answer the call made by Grant and Schwartz (2011) to look for curvilinear relationships in positive phenomena. To date, to the best of my knowledge, no study has tested a curvilinear U-inverted relationship between self-efficacy and OCB.

Second, I aim to contribute to a more nuanced understanding of the antecedents of OCB by testing the triple interaction of self-efficacy, family–work enrichment and promotion focus. I aim to answer Vancouver and Kendall’s call (2006) to test for the conditions in which self-efficacy can positively impact performance. Such a contribution is important as it would point to the circumstances in which high self-efficacy can lead to positive performance. Moreover, it would extend the work on family–work enrichment, an area considered to be relatively understudied (Mishra, 2015; Jain & Nair, 2017), and show organisations and employees that non-work roles have an important effect in service delivery OCB.

Third, I aim to extend the work on service-oriented OCB. Namely, very few studies have focused on OCB in a service setting, especially in employees who deal with customers (Wang, 2009). It is relevant to focus on analysing OCB in a service setting as the service industry is expanding rapidly (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Chen, 2016; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Wang, 2009). Studying OCB in the service industry is also important because employees offering services are those who promote the company's product and services to the customer, their observations impact customers' observations of the company, and they are the ones who convey the customers' message to company management (Chen, 2016; Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001). Therefore, since service industry employees ought to show responsive and polite behaviour it is relevant to study what impacts citizenship behaviour in the service setting (Chen, 2016).

3.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.2.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour and the service industry

OCB is about an employee voluntarily deciding to go beyond what is required of them (Chen, 2016). It is the work behaviour that is most flexibly undertaken by employees (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). According to Organ (1988), OCB includes five behaviours: altruism, kindness, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civil virtue. Such behaviours benefit the organisation's performance (Organ, 1988). OCB can also be directed to the individual and/or organisation (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Citizenship behaviours are reinforced by the desire to be included in the organisation's goals (Ahmad et al., 2010) and to portray a good persona among one's friends and colleagues (Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2016). As such, self-regulatory efforts are needed in order to create a good image (Vohs, Baumeister, & Ciarocco, 2005). Although it has been considered that OCB is a behaviour not recognised by an organisation's rewards system (Organ, 1988), this view was recently changed as it was shown that supervisors actually recognise OCB during performance appraisal (Organ, 1997). Therefore, companies from different sectors are focusing their attention on encouraging OCB. The services sectors is one of the sectors that have started to pay attention to OCB.

The services sector is proving to be very important in the current century as service organisations are the highest in number from any other organisations (Wang, 2009). In light of this fact, the way employees behave towards customers plays an important role in the opinion customers create about the company and the services it offers (Wang, 2009). Therefore, it is very important for organisations operating in the services industry that their employees engage in service-oriented OCB and identify the process that leads to OCB (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Wang, 2009). Regarding measurement, service-oriented OCB is the most appropriate for use when analysing citizenship behaviour in a service setting (Wang 2009, Bettencourt et al., 2001). Employees can exhibit three types of service-oriented OCB: i) loyalty OCB, which mainly has to do with promoting the organisation to customers

(Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994); ii) participation OCB, chiefly focusing on how to improve the service delivered to customers (Moorman, 1991); and iii) service delivery OCB, which concentrates on showing meticulous behaviour while delivering the service (Bowen & Schneider, 1985). In this study, I will explore service delivery OCB, which outlines how to treat customers and how to present the organisation to people outside (Bettencourt et al., 2001). Specific examples of citizenship behaviour in the service sector, such as employees in call centres, include responding in a reliable manner to their claims (Chen, 2016) and carefully following guidelines for customer promotions.

3.2.2 Self-efficacy and organisational citizenship behaviour

Self-efficacy concerns the judgement of what an individual can do with their abilities (Liu, Song, & Wang, 2011; Gayathri & Karthikeyan, 2016) and about the individual's estimation of their capacities to mobilise the actions and resources needed to control events happening in their life (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). As an important predictor of individuals' thinking and acting, self-efficacy relates to human behaviour and performance (Prieto, 2009). One specific type of self-efficacy is job self-efficacy, which refers to the beliefs an individual holds about their ability to successfully accomplish tasks at work (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008; Spreitzer, 1995). Job self-efficacy was chosen for this study as it has been proven to be a strong predictor of job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Most studies thus far have shown that employees with high levels of self-efficacy will exhibit good work performance, job satisfaction, and positive behaviour and attitudes at work (Bandura, 1977, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Latham, 2005). Perceived self-efficacy has also been found to affect current performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984) and future performance (Debusscher, Hofmans, & Fruyt, 2016). Such findings relate to OCB as the concept is considered to be one of the broad performance domains (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

To date, most studies assumed a positive linear relationship between self-efficacy and OCB. For example, it has been shown that for faculty members, self-efficacy is linearly related to OCB (Shahidi, Shamsnia, & Baezat, 2015). One study found that white collar employees with high self-efficacy are more prone to taking charge of actions which can lead to them exhibiting citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Employees who have high levels of self-efficacy can engage in activities such as making recommendations and suggestions for improvement and implementing new procedures that help the organisation become more effective (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Yang, Ding and Lo (2016) found that for employees working in different organisations in Taiwan self-efficacy plays a mediating role in the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB directed to the organisation and OCB directed to the individual. Another study looked at engineering

college teachers and showed that self-efficacy was positively related to OCB (Paramasivam, 2015).

Studies have also shown that high levels of self-efficacy are negatively related to performance (Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002; Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). Vancouver and Kendall (2006) showed that employed undergraduate students with high levels of self-efficacy tend to be overconfident, invest fewer resources and exhibit negative performance. Another study that compared managers with high self-efficacy with those low in self-efficacy showed that managers with high levels of self-efficacy tended to increase their commitment to ventures that were not productive (Whyte & Saks, 2007; Whyte, Saks, & Hook, 1997). It has also been shown that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs and who think of a task as being easy to deal with invest less effort (Salomon 1984). Individuals with high self-efficacy become overconfident (Stone, 1994) and thus invest fewer resources toward a specific activity or task (Prieto, 2009) and do not persist very long in successful tasks (Whyte, Saks, & Hook, 1997). A direct negative link between self-efficacy and OCB has so far not been established, yet OCB is considered one of the three broad performance domains (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002) and, since self-efficacy has been shown to be negatively related to performance, it can be assumed that it can have a negative relationship with OCB as well.

Different from the positive perspective, one study managed to show that the relationship between general self-efficacy and participation in citizenship behaviours was non-significant for women (Beauregard, 2012). In my case, I propose the relationship between self-efficacy and OCB is curvilinear rather than linear, meaning that too much self-efficacy can actually be positive up to a certain point and then have negative impacts in OCB. I build the hypothesis on the control theory (Powers, 1973), which foresees a negative relationship between self-efficacy and performance (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002; Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). According to the theory, individuals aspire to reduce the discrepancy between the desired level of performance and perception of performance (i.e. preparedness for a task) (Powers, 1973). The individual's main goal is to reduce the discrepancy between preparedness and the perception of preparedness (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). Thus, if the discrepancy is large, the individual will devote greater time (allocate more resources) to reduce the discrepancy, and the other way around (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). The perception as to whether the discrepancy is high or low is based on judgement (Koriat, 1997) and a very reliable measure of individual judgement is self-efficacy beliefs (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). As a result, when an individual's self-efficacy beliefs are high, the individual will dedicate fewer resources because the discrepancy will be smaller (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). In this case, when an employee's self-efficacy beliefs are high, that employee will invest fewer resources

and engage less in citizenship behaviour as the particular employee will feel that all customers' claims are easy to handle.

Based on control theory (Powers, 1973) and the findings reported above, I further examine the possibility that an inverted U-shaped function exists between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. I argue that employees with high job self-efficacy will engage in service delivery OCB (treating customers with respect, regardless of the circumstances and responding to complaints in less time than required) up to a point after which they will start feeling overconfident, feel that they know how to handle all customers' claims since they are easy, and as a result engage in less service delivery OCB. Hence, I propose that:

H8: There will be an inverted U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.2.3 The interplay of self-efficacy, promotion focus, and family–work enrichment in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour

Although I propose that too much self-efficacy can negatively influence work performance, it may be that in certain conditions high job self-efficacy has a positive impact on OCB. My proposition is that particular variables can interact with self-efficacy to enable a positive impact on service delivery OCB. In line with control theory (Powers, 1973), one variable that can impact OCB is the self-regulation mode or regulatory focus, defined as the way an individual describes and tries to achieve goals (Higgins, 1997; Mossholder, Richardson, & Setton, 2011). To support my proposition, I note that it has been reported that an employee's decision to engage in OCB is likely to be influenced by the strategic orientation in pursuing goals (Higgins, 2000). Specifically, employees who are promotion-focused constantly desire to achieve their goals and objectives and are attentive to potential gains (Lockwood et al., 2002). Further, promotion-focused employees tend to pursue rewards at work via OCB (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). Employees do that because pursuing rewards via OCB enables them to adjust their needs for promotion within the organisation (Scholer & Higgins, 2010). As such, it can build upon control theory (Powers, 1973) since it integrates individual and environmental factors of a behaviour that is goal-directed.

However, an employee's behaviour at work may be impacted not just by the strategic orientation in pursuing goals but by facilitation or conflict that one experiences from family as well. While work–family conflicts have been explored in relation to OCB (Cloninger, Selvarajan, Singh, & Huang, 2015; Thompson & Werner, 1997), enrichment processes have been neglected. Specifically, family–work enrichment may be relevant in this case because I am interested in knowing how the family domain facilitates work performance (i.e. OCB). As such, I assume that job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus

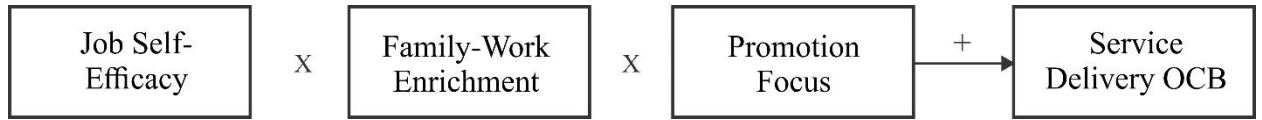
interact with one another and influence service delivery OCB. In the following paragraphs, I will elaborate more on the proposed condition.

In my condition (depicted in Figure 6), based on control theory I propose that promotion focus will interact with job self-efficacy and family–work enrichment to impact service delivery OCB. When employees have a strong promotion focus, self-efficacy will also be strong as those employees who are promotion-focused believe in their ability to carry out activities required to achieve tasks and goals at work (Higgins, 1997a). This is in line with control theory (Powers, 1973) as the role of personal goals is central to control theory (Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001) and the theory holds that if an individual agrees to take on a challenging goal then the result can be a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance (Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). Therefore, an individual who is promotion-focused will always have the goal of achieving the ideal self at work and, in those instances, high self-efficacy will actually lead to positive performance at work. In this case, employees who are promotion-focused and hold high self-efficacy beliefs will voluntarily engage in extra-role behaviours at work (i.e. OCB). In support of this, one study showed that promotion-focused employees are dedicated to achieving advancement (Higgins, Idson, Freitas, Spiegel, & Molden, 2003). To further support my claim, one paper revealed that promotion-focused employees have higher self-efficacy possibly because self-efficacy presumes that tough tasks are challenges that ought to be dealt with rather than avoided (Carmona, Buunk, Dijkstra, & Peiró, 2008). It is argued that promotion-focused employees engage in OCB since such behaviour sustains their goal for status and recognition at work (Brockner & Higgins, 2001) and because self-regulation capabilities were found to impact the consequences of engaging in OCB (Mischel & Ayduk, 2002; Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016).

In order to show citizenship behaviour at work, employees with high expectations regarding their ability to accomplish tasks and who are promotion-focused need to experience family–work enrichment. Family–work enrichment is related to positive outcomes at work (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010) and OCB is considered a positive outcome for an organisation. Further, Jenkins, Heneghan, Bailey and Barber (2016, p. 130) proposed that “OCBs may be a behavioral outcome of FWE” and suggested further research is needed to study the effect of the family role in an employee’s ability to perform their work role (Jenkins et al., 2016). As such, I argue that employees whose role in the family facilitates their role at work will be motivated to engage in citizenship behaviour. Employees who experience family–work enrichment gain from the positive feelings produced and, as a result, beliefs regarding their ability to accomplish tasks increase (Chan et al., 2016). In addition, it has been proven that social support from family, partner, and colleagues increase an employee’s belief in their ability to complete a task (Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O’Brien, 2001). Family–work enrichment has also been related to higher levels of promotion focus (Dahm, 2015).

Therefore, for a promotion-focused employee the level of family–work enrichment needs to be high in order for that employee to engage in OCB.

Figure 6: The proposed conceptual model



In sum, a high level of self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment is required to stimulate higher levels of OCB. Employees with high levels of self-efficacy beliefs and who are promotion-focused will need to experience family–work enrichment in order to show citizenship behaviour at work. Since promotion-focused employees constantly desire to achieve their goals and objectives (Lockwood et al., 2002), they will need to experience facilitation from the family role in order to be able to achieve their goals. As such, family–work enrichment and promotion focus together will interact with job self-efficacy to impact service delivery OCB. I therefore assume that there will be a triple interaction effect between self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus on service delivery OCB. Thus, I propose that:

H9: The three-way interaction among job self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment will predict service delivery OCB such that when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job-self efficacy will have the strongest positive relationship with service delivery OCB.

3.3 METHODS

3.3.1 Sample and Procedures

Employees working at a call centre operating in Kosovo participated in this study. Data were gathered via an electronic survey during the summer of 2017. An email was sent to 543 call centre agents via the Human Resource Department explaining the reason for the survey, and 211 employees responded to the survey (a 38% response rate). Thirteen questionnaires were removed from further analysis due to missing values. Out of the remaining 198 respondents, 52% were female and 48% were male. The respondents' mean age in years was 31.31 (SD=7.91). Participation in the study was voluntary and employees were not offered any rewards. In order to reduce potential social desirability bias, the respondents were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality. The respondents were also instructed that there were no right or wrong answers.

3.3.2 Measures

Unless otherwise noted, seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (“never” and “strongly disagree”) to 7 (“always” and “strongly agree”) were used for the study’s purposes. I used established scales for all constructs and adopted a translation-back-translation procedure. The following is a description of the measurement scales used for the variables. Detailed information on each scale used is provided in Appendix D.

Job self-efficacy was measured with the 3-item scale developed by Spreitzer (1995) – $\alpha = .85$. The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate how confident they feel in their ability to perform effectively with respect to different tasks and situations at work. The scale includes items such as “I am confident about my ability to do my job” and “I have mastered the skills necessary for my job”.

Family–work enrichment was measured with the 9-item scale developed by Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz (2006) – $\alpha = .89$. The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate how often it happens that involvement in their family assists them with their role at work. The scale includes items such as “Involvement in your family helps you to gain knowledge and this helps you be a better worker”, “Involvement in your family puts you in a good mood and this helps you be a better worker” and “Involvement in your family requires you to avoid wasting time at work and this helps you be a better worker”.

Promotion focus was measured with the 9-item scale developed by Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda (2002) – $\alpha = .83$. The scale includes items such “I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations” and “I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future”.

Service delivery organisational citizenship behaviour was measured with the 6-item scale developed by Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter (2001) – $\alpha = .78$. The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate how often they engage in specified activities at work. The scale includes items such as “I follow up in a timely manner to customer request and problems” and “perform duties with unusually few mistakes”.

Control variables. Participants’ gender, age, education, years of working for the current employer, working hours in the average week, marital status, and number of children under 6 years were included as control variables. Gender was coded as: 1-Male, 2- Female. Marital status was coded as: 1-Single, 2-Married, 3-Divorced/Separated, 4-Living with partner, 5-Widowed. Education was coded as: 1- High School, 2- Bachelor Degree, 3-Master, 4- Doctorate.

3.4 RESULTS

Table 8 provides descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliability coefficients of the four focal variables and control variables used in the study. Although the correlations between the four variables from the conceptual model slightly exceeded the 0.30 threshold, the VIF test indicated there should no concern regarding the presence of multicollinearity in the data as the VIF index was below 10. Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0.78 to 0.89, showing that all measurement scales are internally consistent (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 8: Descriptives, correlations and reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Service delivery OCB	6.11	.73	(0.78)										
2. Job Self Efficacy	6.28	.72	.44**	(0.85)									
3. Family-Work Enrichment	5.30	1.0	.35**	.24**	(0.89)								
4. Promotion Focus	5.80	.80	.43**	.41**	.42**	(0.83)							
5. Gender	1.52	.50	.24**	.00	.18*	.21**	-						
6. Age	31.31	7.91	.17*	.05	-.09	-.02	.06	-					
7. Education	2.23	.73	0.02	.21**	.04	.17*	.16*	.20**	-				
8. Years working in the company	5.41	5.06	0.13	.11	-.08	-.01	.00	.57**	.17*	-			
9. Hours of work per week	39.96	12.83	-0.06	.00	-.08	-.16*	-.09	.23**	.07	.10	-		
10. Marital Status	1.64	.73	.17*	.09	.02	-.02	.05	.41**	.18**	.30**	.11	-	
11. No. of children under 6 years	.39	.63	-0.1	-.05	-.08	-.07	-.07	.21**	.13	.26**	.16*	.32**	-

Notes: $n = 198$. OCB—organisational citizenship behaviour. The coefficient α 's are on the diagonal in parentheses. For gender, 1="male," 2="female."; For marital status: 1-Single, 2-Married, 3-Divorced/Separated, 4-Living with partner, 5-Widowed; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Before testing the proposed hypotheses, I evaluated the factor structure for the four constructs: job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, promotion focus, and service delivery OCB. The proposed structure estimated with the maximum likelihood estimation method fit the data well: χ^2 [241] = 389.50, CFI = 0.94, TLI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.059, RMSEA = 0.056. All item loadings were statistically significant. I tested alternative models to assess discriminant validity and the results showed a worse fit with the data (job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB items on the same factor: χ^2 [244] = 544.596, CFI = 0.884, TLI = 0.868, SRMR = 0.0833, RMSEA = 0.079; FWE and promotion focus items on the same factor: χ^2 [248] = 1145.928, CFI = 0.625, TLI = 0.613, SRMR = 0.115, RMSEA = 0.136). I thereby demonstrated the discriminant validity.

To test the hypotheses, I used a moderated hierarchical regression analysis. The results are presented in Table 9. Hierarchical regression analysis is the method most commonly used to test for curvilinear relations and interaction effects (Le et al. 2011). As per Aiken & West (1991), I grand-mean-centred the three independent variables before testing in order to avoid multicollinearity between the linear term and quadratic term. The five models include the same control variables. In Model 1, I entered the control variables. In Model 2, I included all linear effects of the three independent variables, job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus. Job self-efficacy was positively related to service delivery OCB ($\beta = 0.32$, $p = 0.000$), family–work enrichment was positively related to service delivery OCB as well ($\beta = 0.15$, $p = 0.015$), promotion focus was also positively related to service delivery OCB ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = 0.001$).

In Model 3, I included the quadratic term of job self-efficacy (job self-efficacy squared) in order to test for hypothesis 8, which stated that self-efficacy would have a curvilinear U-inverted relationship with service delivery OCB. As depicted in Table 9, the coefficient associated with this term was negative but statistically non-significant ($\beta = -0.03$, $p = 0.683$), thus I cannot support H8 and therefore need to reject it. In Model 4, I entered all two-way interactions and the only marginally significant interaction was that between job self-efficacy squared and family–work enrichment ($\beta = 0.18$, $p = 0.079$), thus showing that the relationship between job-self efficacy and service delivery OCB is U-shaped rather than U-inverted for employees who experience family–work enrichment.

In order to test hypothesis 9, which proposed a three-way interaction between job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus, I multiplied the centred values of the three independent variables (job self-efficacy x family–work enrichment x promotion focus) and entered the values in Model 5. The linear three-way interaction effect was significant ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = 0.011$). Such results give support to H9, which states that the three-way interaction among job self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment will predict service delivery OCB such that, when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job-self efficacy will have the strongest positive relationship with service

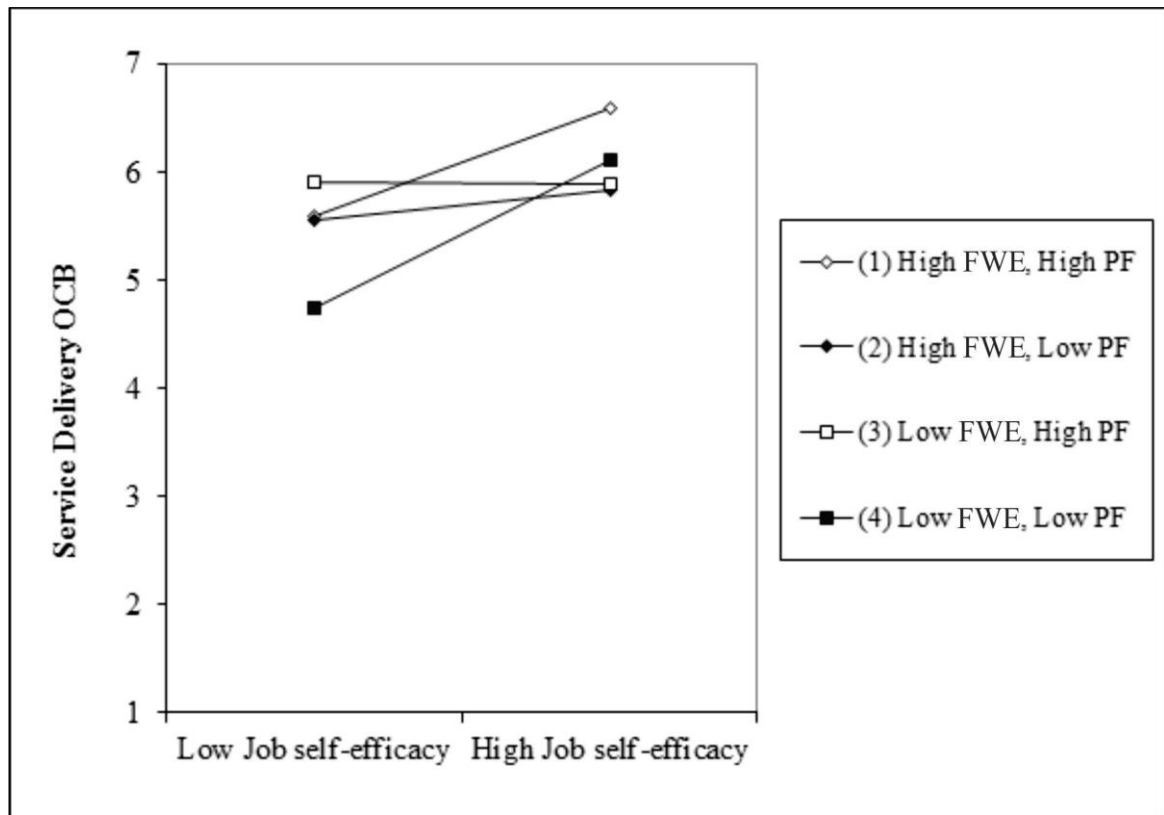
delivery OCB. This interaction is shown in Figure 7 where it is evident that, when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job-self efficacy has the strongest positive relationship with service delivery OCB, thereby supporting H9 .

Table 9: Results of moderated hierarchical regression analyses

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Intercept	5.33 (0.30)***	5.58 (0.26)***	5.59 (0.26)***	5.71 (0.26)***	5.78 (0.26)***
Gender	0.22 (0.10)**	0.16 (0.09)**	0.16 (0.09)**	0.15 (0.09)*	0.14 (0.09)*
Age	0.11 (0.01)	0.16 (0.01)*	0.16 (0.01)*	0.16 (0.01)*	0.18 (0.01)*
Education	-0.05 (0.07)	-0.17 (0.06)**	-0.17 (0.06)**	-0.17 (0.06)**	-0.19 (0.06)**
Years working in the company	0.07 (0.01)	0.03 (0.01)	0.03 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Hours of work per week	-0.07 (0.00)	-0.03 (0.00)	-0.03 (0.00)	-0.06 (0.00)	-0.08 (0.00)
Marital Status	0.14 (0.08)†	0.10 (0.07)	0.10 (0.07)	0.11 (0.07)	0.11 (0.07)
No. of children under 6 yrs	-0.11 (0.09)	-0.06 (0.07)	-0.06 (0.07)	-0.08 (0.08)	-0.09 (0.07)
Job S.E.		0.32 (0.07)***	0.30 (0.08)***	0.31 (0.09)***	0.23 (0.09)**
FWE		0.15 (0.05)*	0.16 (0.05)*	0.08 (0.06)	0.02 (0.06)*
Promotion focus		0.24 (0.06)***	0.24 (0.06)***	0.23 (0.07)**	0.19 (0.07)
Job S.E. ²			-0.03 (0.06)	0.02 (0.07)	-0.03 (0.07)
<i>Interaction effects</i>					
Job S.E. x FWE				-0.01 (0.09)	0.00 (0.09)
Job S.E. ² x FWE				0.18 (0.07)†	0.15 (0.09)
Job S.E. x Promotion Focus				-0.07 (0.12)	-0.03 (0.12)
Job S.E. ² x Promotion Focus				-0.05 (0.09)	0.08 (0.11)
FWE x Promotion Focus					
Focus				-0.02 (0.06)	-0.06 (0.06)
Job S.E. x FWE x Promotion Focus					0.28 (0.10)**
F	3.44**	11.58***	10.50***	7.82***	7.66*
R	0.34	0.62	0.62	0.64	0.66
R ²	0.11	0.38	0.38	0.41	0.44
Adjusted R ²	0.08	0.35	0.35	0.36	0.38

Notes: n=198. S.E. – self-efficacy; FWE – family–work enrichment; PF– promotion focus. Standardised regression coefficients and estimations of standard errors are displayed. †p≤0.10; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Figure 7: Three-way interaction of job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus in predicting service delivery OCB



Notes: FWE – family–work enrichment; PF – promotion focus

3.5 DISCUSSION

In this study, I tested for a curvilinear relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB and explored whether job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus jointly interact to impact service delivery OCB. Hypothesis 8 was rejected and thus I did not find support to show there is an inverted U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. One reason for this result might be that an individual who chooses to accept a challenging goal, such as always striving to provide superior service to customers, really does make sure they perform well in the workplace because their motivation increases (Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). In this context, it might be that call centre employees who have set themselves the goal to diligently respond to customers' claims show high performance due to increased motivation. Another reason might be the scale used to measure OCB. Other studies that measured the effect of personality traits or the 'too much of a good thing' effect on job performance and OCB used a scale that measures OCB directed to the organisation and/or OCB directed to the individual developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) or Lee and Allen (2002), or OCB as a construct

with five dimensions developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). In this study, a different scale was employed, namely, the one that measured service delivery OCB developed by Bettencourt et al. (2001). However, I managed to show that the relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB followed a U-shaped function for employees who experience family–work enrichment.

Moreover, I found support for hypothesis 9 and showed there is a three-way interaction between job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus. More specifically, the level of service delivery OCB is high when job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment, and promotion focus are all high. In order for an employee to show citizenship behaviour at work, they will need to have relatively high self-efficacy beliefs, experience family–work enrichment, and be promotion focused (i.e. determined to achieve the ideal self (Lockwood et al., 2002)). My findings complement the results of previous studies which showed that self-efficacy is related to OCB (Paramasivam 2015, Shahidi, Shamsnia, & Baezat, 2015). The findings also complement studies which propose that promotion-focused individuals are prone to engaging in OCB (Mischel & Ayduk, 2002; Kopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016). The results are also in line with studies showing that family–work enrichment is related to positive outcomes at work (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). However, I went one step further and revealed that the three variables interact together to positively predict OCB. The results are consistent with previous studies which showed that cognitive/personal variables, self-regulatory variables and family–work variables can impact outcomes at work like better performance (Carmona, Buunk, Dijkstra, & Peiró, 2008; Jenkins et al., 2016; Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016).

3.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

To date, the majority of research on the relationship between self-efficacy and work outcomes focused on testing a linear relationship and the results were inconsistent with certain studies showing a positive relationship and others showing a negative one. So far, to the best of my knowledge no paper has tested a curvilinear relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. My aim with this study was to complement the self-efficacy literature by investigating a curvilinear relationship between job S.E. and service delivery OCB. I wanted to show that too much self-efficacy is not good for performance at work, but I was unable to find support for the hypothesis. However, the results provide marginally significant support for a U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB for employees who experience family–work enrichment.

Second, I broaden the understanding of how an individual characteristic, family and interpersonal context, and a self-regulatory variable interact to impact service delivery OCB. This contribution is important because it reveals to leaders and managers the conditions in which high self-efficacy can lead to a positive work performance (Vancouver and Kendall,

2006). Rather than just thinking of self-efficacy as the sole variable that impacts service delivery OCB, the study shows that family–work enrichment and promotion focus interact with job self-efficacy to positively impact service delivery OCB. Moreover, I contribute to the work–family literature by extending the work on family–work enrichment, considered to be an understudied phenomenon (Mishra, 2015; Jain & Nair, 2017). This study is one of the first to show that family–work enrichment is linked to service delivery OCB. This contribution is also valuable for showing organisations and employees that non-work roles have an important impact on service delivery OCB. For employees who experience family–work enrichment, in other words for employees for whom their participation in the family role increases the quality or performance of their role at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), engagement in service delivery OCB happens in combination with individual characteristics (i.e. S.E.) and self-regulation (i.e. promotion focus). Such results provide an initial and unique understanding of how family and interpersonal context, a personal variable and a self-regulatory variable interact together to influence outcomes at work, in this case service delivery OCB.

Finally, I contribute by extending the work on service-oriented OCB. The bulk of research has primarily examined OCB directed to the individual, the organisation and teachers' OCB, while very few studies have focused on service OCB (Wang, 2009). The few studies that concentrated on service delivery OCB were mainly done on nurses and hotel frontline employees, meaning there is very limited empirical support regarding service quality OCB (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997). It is relevant to focus on analysing OCB in a service setting as the services industry is expanding rapidly (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Chen, 2016; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Wang, 2009). Studying what impacts OCB in a service setting is also important since service industry employees are expected to engage in responsive and polite behaviour (Chen, 2016). Further, it is very important to study service OCB in call centres since such organisations are all about service and thus the way call centre agents provide services to customers is paramount to the effectiveness, productivity and performance of their organisation.

3.5.2 Practical Implications

The results of the study offer various practical implications. First, managers and supervisors should understand that for call centre employees the relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB is linear, meaning it benefits call centre agents when they believe in their abilities to accomplish tasks at work since in this way they will engage in service delivery OCBs. Based on these results, managers could encourage their employees to increase their self-efficacy beliefs. One way for supervisors to increase the level of employees' self-efficacy is to develop a coaching leadership style (Demerouti et al., 2016). Another way supervisors can increase self-efficacy is through role modelling, encouragement, and telling employees to set specific, realistic and motivating goals,

otherwise called mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977, 1997; van den Heuvel et al., 2015). Employees themselves can increase their self-efficacy levels as well. One way an employee can boost their self-efficacy is by observing someone else perform a particular task, and persuading oneself that if others can do it then they should be able to do it as well, otherwise known as vicarious experience (Bandura, 1977). Another method to increase self-efficacy beliefs is by controlling anxiety (Bandura, 1977). Controlling for anxiety helps an employee experience enthusiasm that encourages higher self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977).

Second, the study shows that employees whose role in the family enhances their performance at work and who believe they are able to accomplish tasks required by their job will engage in citizenship behaviour. Therefore, managers could encourage their employees to increase family–work enrichment by encouraging them to prepare well in advance for any upcoming activity they might have at work and by training them to schedule activities on time and informing family members of the scheduled activities in order for them to be mentally prepared (Mishra, 2015). One more way managers can help employees experience family–work enrichment is to introduce initiatives that help employees increase their work-role salience since the more important one’s work role is, the more an employee will make effort to use the resources gained from the family domain in order to achieve success at work (Mishra, 2015). Yet another way to encourage family–work enrichment is for managers and HR executives to establish ties with their employees’ family members by inviting them to participate in celebratory events (Jain & Nair, 2017).

Third, a self-regulatory state is also a relevant factor that influences the citizenship behaviours undertaken by employees. The three variables, job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment and promotion focus, jointly interact to increase service delivery OCB. Therefore, managers should bear in mind they need to design initiatives which help their employees be promotion-focused rather than prevention-focused. Such initiatives are possible as it has been shown that employees can be convinced to apply a specific regulatory focus independent of their orientation (Friedman & Foerster, 2001). An example of initiatives that can be introduced is training employees to improve their self-regulatory skills (Bryant, 2007; 2009), to pay special attention to emerging patterns of pertinent factors that help come up with solutions that are innovative (Corbett & Hmieleski, 2007). Another example is supervisors who are promotion-focused who can motivate and guide employees on how to be promotion-focused and how to see the ‘big picture’ (Baron, 2006) by applying on-the-job exercises (Bryant, 2009).

3.5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has limitations that should be noted. First, the data used to test the hypotheses were self-reported and thus common method bias may be an issue. In order to avoid common method bias, some questions in the questionnaire were reverse-coded. Further, questions in

the online questionnaire were randomised, and clear and easy-to-understand instructions and items in the questionnaires were provided (Hirschi et al. 2014). Moreover, Fecteau and Craig (2001) suggest that self-reported performance, in this case service delivery OCB, is comparable to evaluations made by other sources. Carpenter, Berry and Houston (2014) also gave evidence that supports the use of self-rated OCB. In any case, the study might have benefited from measuring service delivery OCB from the supervisor rather than by way of respondents rating the behaviour themselves. Other variables used in the study are person-related such that only individuals themselves were able to give answers (Conway & Lance, 2010). For example, questions on self-efficacy can only be answered by the individual himself/herself, FWE and promotion focus as well. Spector (1994) also proposed that data which are self-reported can be used to measure the perception of employees. To further back my claim that common method bias should not be a concern, Siemsen et al. (2010) stated that “[f]inding significant interaction effect despite the influence of common method bias in the data should be taken as strong evidence that an interaction effect exists” (p.470).

Second, the data used are cross-sectional and our ability to make conclusions regarding causality is thus limited. In order to observe causality or to confirm the direction proposed in the model, future studies should employ longitudinal designs. Further, future studies could also conduct experiments which would allow us to understand the causality.

Third, data were restricted to call centre employees and accordingly, to confirm the results can be generalised to other industries or job positions, the proposed relationships could be tested on frontline employees working in other industries such as hotels or banks. Fourth, a larger number of respondents would have allowed me to generalise the study results. Collecting data in other countries or cultures may provide an avenue for future studies. Fifth, future studies could include a social-exchange variable to test its effect in the proposed model. Finally, although I did not manage to show an inverted U-shaped relationship between job S.E. and service delivery OCB, the theory provides strong support for such a hypothesis. Therefore, researchers should further explore the relationship between the two variables and attempt to provide support for the conditions in which an inverted U-shaped relationship arises between the two focal variables.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This study tested a curvilinear relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. Further, the study has analysed a triple interaction between job self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment in predicting service delivery OCB. Results of the study showed that there is a linear relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. Additionally, results showed that the three-way interaction among job self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment predicts service delivery OCB such that when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job-self efficacy has

the strongest positive relationship with service delivery OCB. Theoretical and practical implications of the study are provided.

4 GENERAL DISCUSSION

The purpose of the dissertation was to analyse the different roles played by perceived self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities. To achieve this purpose, I tested the moderating role, the mediating role, and predictor role of perceived self-efficacy in different outcomes related to work behaviour and management of inter-role relationships. I linked self-efficacy with work and non-work domain in three ways by exploring: 1) how self-efficacy works in the context of different family structures when analysing the relationship between career identity and career commitment; 2) how it relates to personal aspects of self (i.e. work–self facilitation); and 3) how self-efficacy in interaction with home domain (i.e. family–work enrichment) and promotion focus impacts work behaviour (i.e.OCB). In what follows, I represent the findings of the dissertation, theoretical contributions, practical implications, and limitations of the dissertation.

4.1 Main findings of the dissertation

In the first study of the dissertation, drawing on SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) I analysed the relationship between career identity and career commitment of employees from the United States of America (USA). I proposed that there will be a positive relationship between career identity and career commitment and that the relationship will be moderated by self-efficacy (hypotheses of the dissertation are summarized in Table 10). Furthermore, I put forward two research questions asking whether family obligations influence the nature of relationship between a female and male employee’s career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy. Besides analysing the model for the groups as a whole, I conducted the analysis across gender and within gender for individuals with different family obligations. With this study I wanted to analyse if family responsibilities impact the buffering role of self-efficacy in the relationship between career identity and career commitment.

From the analysis conducted in the first study, I found out that career identity leads to career commitment for both male and female employees. This result demonstrates that employees with a high career identity tend to be more committed to their career. The finding is in line with studies which have shown that employees who identify with their career tend to be more involved in career related behaviours (Carson et al., 1999; Hirschi 2011). Regarding the role of self-efficacy as a moderator, the results showed that the relationship was supported for females but not for males. Such a result means that for female employees the higher perceived self-efficacy is the stronger is the relationship between career identity and career commitment meanwhile for male employees the same is not true. Additionally, I demonstrated that there are differences within genders at the moderator level. Specifically, marital status and/or having dependents in the household played a significant role in establishing differences within females with regards to the importance of the moderator. For females who were married and/or had dependents the moderator was significant. The same

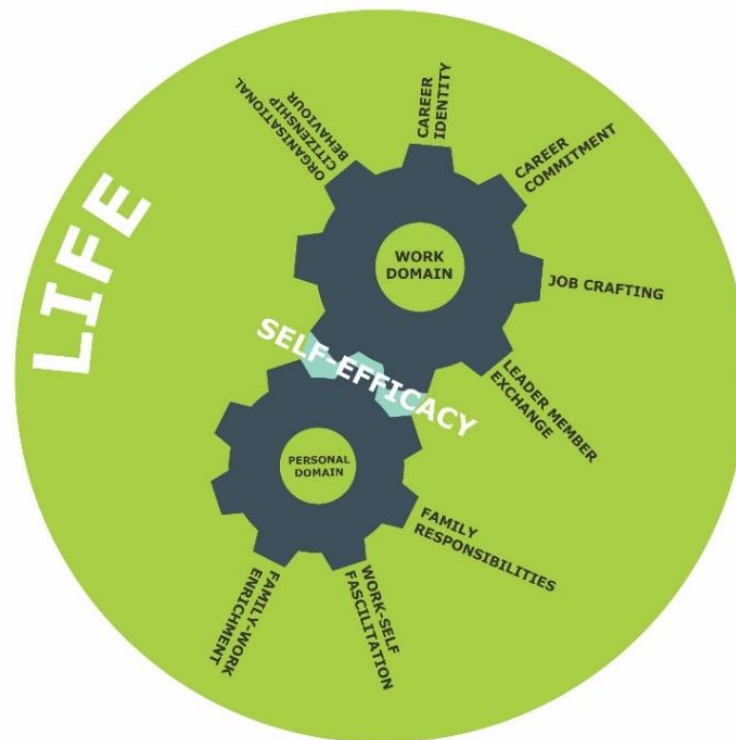
was not true for females who were single and/or did not have dependents. One reason for insignificant moderator might be that single females or females that do not have dependents tend to behave similarly to males when deciding to commit to a career. Meaning that personal resources are not needed to strengthen the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Further, these specific groups of females have potentially deliberately decided to sacrifice creating their own family so that they can have a fulfilling career as it is still difficult for females to have both, family and career (Kargwell, 2008; Mihelič, 2014). Differences within males with different family obligations have also been confirmed. Having dependents in the household played a crucial role in the significance of self-efficacy as moderator in the relationship between career identity and career commitment. For males who were married and had dependents self-efficacy strengthened the relationship between career identity and career commitment. Meanwhile, the same was not true for males who were married but did not have dependents. Similarly, for males who were single and did not have dependents the moderator was not significant. These results demonstrate that the responsibilities in the family that an employee has play a significant factor in understanding how they feel about their careers, achieving in this way the first part of the purpose of the dissertation. The present findings are relevant for companies, managers, and employees themselves as understanding what impacts an employee's career commitment is relevant in this day of age when employees are responsible to manage their own careers (Baruch and Bozionelos, 2011) which have become unstable and short-term (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015a).

In the second study, which involved employees who previously studied at an American business school located in Prishtina, Kosovo, I analysed the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between job crafting and work-self facilitation. The Work-Home Resources Model (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) was used as the theoretical background. Furthermore, I analysed the moderating role of LMX in the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy. I proposed that there will be a moderated mediation process that leads from job crafting to work-self facilitation. My aim in this study was to analyse how self-efficacy impacts non-work responsibilities such as personal interests and hobbies.

Results from the analysis conducted in the second study show that job crafting leads to self-efficacy. This result means that employees who engage in proactive behaviours at work, such as engaging in activities that increase job resources and challenging job demands and decrease hindering job demands (Tims & Bakker, 2010), will experience increased beliefs in their abilities to accomplish tasks. Moreover, the results showed that LMX moderates the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy in such a way that the relationship is stronger for individuals with a higher quality of LMX. Additionally, I found that self-efficacy leads to work-self facilitation, which means that self-efficacy positively impacts time devoted to personal interests. This result is in line with studies which have shown that self-

efficacy leads to work-family facilitation and better work-life balance (Noraani et al., 2011; Seong, 2016). In addition, I found that job crafting is related to work–self facilitation via conditional indirect effects, such that its relationship is moderated by leader–member exchange and mediated by self-efficacy. This means that job crafting impacts work–self facilitation through perceived self-efficacy for those employees who experience a good quality of exchange with their supervisor. With this study, I have demonstrated that self-efficacy is important in order for employees to experience that resources generated at work facilitate time devoted to personal interests and hobbies, achieving in this way the second part of the purpose of the dissertation. Information of this kind is important to organisations in their attempts to support employees’ juggling of different life domains as successful management of inter-role relationships boosts employee performance at work (Carlson et al., 2011). A brief visualization of variables studied in the dissertation and their relationship with different life domains is presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Visualization of variables from different life domains tested in the dissertation



Source: own work

In the third study, which involved employees working at call centres in Kosovo, I built on control theory (Powers, 1973), to examine job self-efficacy as a predictor variable to service delivery OCB. I proposed a U-inverted relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB as the aim here was to analyse whether too much self-efficacy can have a negative consequences on OCB. Furthermore, I proposed that under a certain condition high

job self-efficacy can actually have a positive impact on service delivery OCB. The condition proposed was that job self-efficacy, family–work enrichment and promotion focus will jointly interact to positively impact service delivery OCB. My other goal with this study was to analyse how job self-efficacy facilitates work behaviour.

Table 10 Summary of hypotheses

	Hypotheses	Status	Study
Hypothesis 1	<i>Career identity will be positively related to career commitment.</i>	Supported	Study 1
Hypothesis 2	<i>Perceived self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between career identity and career commitment. The higher self-efficacy is the stronger the relationship between career identity and career commitment will be.</i>	Supported for females but not for males	Study 1
Research question 1a	<i>How does family type influence the nature of relationship between a female employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?</i>		Study 1
Research question 1b	<i>How does family type influence the nature of the relationship between a male employee's career identity and career commitment as moderated by self-efficacy?</i>		Study 1
Hypothesis 3	<i>Job crafting will be positively related to perceived self-efficacy.</i>	Supported	Study 2
Hypothesis 4	<i>Perceived self-efficacy will be positively related to work–self facilitation.</i>	Supported	Study 2
Hypothesis 5	<i>Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation.</i>	Supported	Study 2
Hypothesis 6	<i>LMX will moderate the positive relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy, where the relationship will be stronger for employees with a higher quality of LMX.</i>	Marginally supported	Study 2
Hypothesis 7	<i>Job crafting will be related to work–self facilitation via conditional indirect effects, such that its relationship with work–self facilitation will be moderated by LMX and mediated by self-efficacy.</i>	Supported	Study 2
Hypothesis 8	<i>There will be an inverted U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery organizational citizenship behaviour.</i>	Not supported	Study 3
Hypothesis 9	<i>The three-way interaction among job self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment will predict service delivery OCB, in such a way that when promotion focus and family–work enrichment are both high, job self-efficacy will have the strongest positive relationship with Service delivery OCB.</i>	Supported	Study 3

Source: own work

Based on results received from third study, I could not show that there is an inverted U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB. One possible reason why the U-inverted relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB could not be supported can be the fact that the mean value for job self-efficacy was very high. However, I found that the relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB followed a U-shaped function for employees who experience family-work enrichment.

Regarding the triple interaction effect, the results showed that there is a three-way interaction between job self-efficacy, family-work enrichment, and promotion focus in relation to OCB. Such a result implies that the level of service delivery OCB is high when job self-efficacy, family-work enrichment, and promotion focus are all high. With the existing results, I have demonstrated that perceived self-efficacy, in interaction with family-work enrichment and promotion focus, facilitates a work behaviour such as service delivery OCB, achieving in this way the third and final part of the purpose of the dissertation. For companies and managers such a result implies that the interaction between an individual characteristic (i.e. job self-efficacy), inter-role relationship variable (i.e. family-work enrichment) and strategic orientation in pursuing goals (i.e. promotion focus) positively impacts citizenship behaviour in the workplace.

When designing the methodological aspect of the dissertation, I was able to choose from a wide range of measures for self-efficacy as research on self-efficacy is a vibrant area of research with more than a thousand studies in general and around 800 specifically focusing on industrial-organisational psychology (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott & Rich, 2007). The high number of studies has resulted in numerous scales being presented for the construct. Therefore, due to the availability of many scales, in order to test the three different roles played by perceived self-efficacy in work behaviour and non-work responsibilities, I used a different scale for each role. Moreover, since I had the opportunity to work with three different samples, I wanted to add richness and variety to the dissertation by working with three different scales.

For the first study, I used the self-efficacy scale developed by London (1983, 1993). This scale was chosen because it had a relatively good number of items, exactly 10 items, appropriate to be tested in SEM. Further, the scale was designed to measure self-efficacy at the level of a general personality disposition and some items were related to career. As such, the scale fit well with the constructs related to career choice such as career commitment.

In the second study, I chose a new general scale of self-efficacy which was validated by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) and was proven to have valid retest reliability and to be stable over time. The new validated scale was shown to be reliable and applicable for retesting in different contexts (Chen et al., 2001) and the study was cited 2138 times. It is one of the three scales used most often by researchers. The other two scales are the ones developed by

Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) and Sherer et al. (1982). As such, I decided to use it the second study as I deemed that it is more reliable measure as it is one of the most established ones.

In the third study, I decided to follow Bandura's (2001) recommendation to measure a domain specific type of self-efficacy that relates directly to the outcome variable. Since in the third study the outcome variable was about work behaviour, I chose a specific measure of self-efficacy, namely job self-efficacy because it measures an employee's beliefs regarding his/her ability to accomplish work tasks (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008; Spreitzer, 1995). This scale has been proven to be valid and reliable over time (Spreitzer, 1996; Uner & Turan, 2010).

Results from the three studies show that the mean values for perceived self-efficacy were relatively high in each one of them, ranging from 5.72 to 6.28 on a 7 point scale, and standard deviations ranging from 0.57 to 0.72. One reason for the high mean values of perceived self-efficacy could be that individuals have the tendency to overestimate their abilities and competencies in dealing with situations in different life domains (Kim, Kwon, Lee, & Chiu, 2016; Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Krueger & Mueller, 2002). This could also be linked with the Kruger and Dunning's (1999) effect which suggests that individuals tend not to evaluate their competencies correctly. The reason why individuals do not evaluate their competencies correctly is linked to cognitive awareness regarding their own abilities and because they are simply propelled to evaluate their abilities more positively (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). More specifically, lack of thorough awareness by an individual regarding their exact and real abilities and their inclination to think of their abilities favourably result in overestimation of one's abilities (Kim et al., 2016). One reason why individuals incorrectly evaluate their abilities might be that they get imprecise feedback (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Kim et al., 2016). Therefore, providing detailed and accurate feedback that is based on actual performance is crucial for individuals to evaluate their abilities correctly and build real self-efficacy beliefs.

Further, cross-cultural differences in the level of self-efficacy beliefs have been shown in a study that tested self-efficacy beliefs in individuals from 25 different countries (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). The study has shown that Japanese have lower self-efficacy beliefs while Americans score higher than the international average (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). That happens because individuals that come from different cultures have different personal motives that impact their predispositions and perceptions (Heine, Markus, Lehman, & Kitayana, 1999). Additionally, individuals from European countries such as Denmark, France, Italy, Netherland and Spain, have self-efficacy beliefs that are higher than the international average (Scholz et al., 2002). There were no direct estimations for Kosovo in the cited study, however, since it is a European country it can be assumed that the results

would be similar to European countries. As such, that can be one explanation as to why in all three studies I got high mean values for self-efficacy.

To sum up, the findings of the three studies conducted in the dissertation demonstrate that: i) employee family obligations impact the buffering role of self-efficacy in work related attitudes; ii) self-efficacy impacts personal interests and hobbies of an employee; and iii) family–work enrichment in interaction with self-efficacy and promotion focus impacts work behaviour.

4.2 Theoretical contributions of the dissertation

This dissertation broadens the understanding of the different roles played by perceived self-efficacy in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities. In this way, it provides various contributions to the existing literature in the area of organizational behaviour and human resource management. In the paragraphs that follow, I will elaborate in detail the theoretical contributions of the dissertation which are also summarized in Table 11. The first contribution of the dissertation adds further knowledge to SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) by showing that personal variables are important to the decision to remain in a specific career path. While one previous study established self-efficacy as a significant moderator in the relationship between career commitment and career success (Ballout, 2009), to date, to the best of my knowledge, no study has established self-efficacy as a moderating variable in the relationship between career identity and career commitment.

The dissertation further complements the work–family literature by showing that self-efficacy does not play the same role in work related attitudes for employees with different family obligations such as marital status and having dependents in the household. With such analysis, I have responded to recommendations made by Greenhaus & Powell (2012) to test how family obligations impact work decisions. Such a contribution is important as it informs managers that self-efficacy impacts the decision to stick to a career path.

Additionally, I contribute to literature by considering gender differences in career related issues. Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) suggested that researchers should include gender in decisions related to career. This contribution is important since it shows that gender is a significant moderator in the relationship between career identity and career commitment.

Another contribution of the dissertation is that it expands the knowledge on work–self facilitation, which is a fairly new concept that is the least studied in work–family literature (Demerouti et al., 2016). So far only three papers (Demerouti, 2012; Demerouti et al., 2013, and Demerouti et al., 2016) have tested work–self facilitation and all that is known about the construct comes from Demerouti and co-authors. Such a contribution is important as every individual has personal interests and hobbies, regardless of family obligations that motivate

an individual to behave in a certain way (Demerouti et al., 2016). Further, understanding how to experience work–self facilitation is important because when employees experience work–self facilitation their level of exhaustion decreases (Demerouti et al., 2016), which can result in improved organisational performance.

A further contribution of the dissertation is complementing the work–family literature and human resource (HR) literature by demonstrating the process towards experiencing work–self facilitation. Different from previous studies that tested consequences of work–self facilitation (Demerouti 2012; Demerouti et al., 2016), this dissertation considered antecedents of work–self facilitation, providing in this way a new perspective. Further, to date, to the best of my knowledge, job crafting has not been considered in relation to work–self facilitation. The results show that job crafting has a positive indirect relationship with work–self facilitation. Such knowledge is important to HR literature as challenges pertaining to managing different responsibilities are of concern to HR researchers (Raiden & Caven, 2011).

Further, the dissertation extends the literature on self-efficacy and HR by demonstrating that self-efficacy is conducive to work–self facilitation. With this study, I respond to suggestions made by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) to test how the work domain, for example work resources, influence the home domain through personal resources. Scholars have recently tested whether self-efficacy results from work–self facilitation but obtained an insignificant result (Demerouti et al. 2016). My study examined the reverse relationship and established self-efficacy as a relevant predictor to work–self facilitation. In complementing existing research, I demonstrate that self-efficacy as a personal resource is instrumental in experiencing work–self facilitation.

Moreover, I demonstrate that LMX moderates the relationship between work resources (i.e. job crafting) and personal resources (i.e. self-efficacy). As such, a further contribution of this dissertation is presented by following a suggestion made ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) to include moderator variables in the relationship between work resources, personal resources and home outcomes. Such results add new knowledge to recent existing literature which has focused in testing a direct relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy (van den Heuvel et al., 2015; van Wingerden et al., 2017b). The dissertation reveals that individuals who have a high quality of relationship with their supervisor are more likely to develop self-efficacy skills and experience work–self facilitation.

An additional contribution of the dissertation to self-efficacy literature is achieved by showing that there is a marginally significant U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB for employees who experience family–work enrichment. To the best of my knowledge, to date, no study has tested or proven such a U-shaped

relationship before. The results prove that high levels of family–work enrichment can have detrimental effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and service delivery OCB.

Table 11 Summary of the theoretical contributions of the dissertation

	Theoretical Contributions	Study
1	Explaining that personal resources are important variables in the decision to stick to a career.	Study 1
2	Providing empirical evidence that gender and family obligations impact the path from career identity to career commitment.	Study 1
3	Expanding the knowledge on a novel concept in work-family literature, namely work–self facilitation, by explaining the process that leads to more work–self facilitation.	Study 2
4	Explaining that interaction between job crafting and LMX needs to be considered, when explaining the link between job crafting, self-efficacy and work–self facilitation.	Study 2
5	Providing empirical evidence for a marginally significant U-shaped relationship between job self-efficacy and service delivery OCB for employees who experience family–work enrichment.	Study 3
6	Broadening the understanding of how self-efficacy, promotion focus and family–work enrichment interact to impact service delivery OCB.	Study 3

Source: own work

In addition, I extend the knowledge by adding detailed information on antecedents of OCB. I also contribute to self-efficacy literature by responding to Vancouver and Kendall's (2006) suggestion to test for specific conditions under which self-efficacy can have a positive impact on performance at work. Moreover, I extend the knowledge on an area that is considered to be understudied (Mishra, 2015; Jain & Nair, 2017), family–work enrichment. The results inform organizations and managers that non-work roles have an important effect in service delivery OCB.

The final contribution of the dissertation is extending the work on service oriented OCB. To this date, the number of studies that analysed OCB in the service setting, especially in employees who have direct contact with customers, is rather limited (Wang, 2009). Since the service industry has been expanding and is projected to continue expanding at a very high rate (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Chen, 2016; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Wang, 2009) it is relevant to analyse its antecedents. Furthermore, it is important to understand more about the OCB in service setting as employees offering services are the ones who transfer customers' message to company management and promote the company's product and service to customer (Chen, 2016; Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001).

4.3 Practical Implications of the dissertation

Findings of the dissertation offer several practical implications for managers, HR practitioners and employees. In the paragraphs that follow, I will elaborate in detail the practical implication that derive from my dissertation. The implications are summarized in Table 12.

The first implication of the dissertation is that immediate supervisors or department leaders could undertake initiatives that would help their employees maintain moderate to high levels of perceived self-efficacy beliefs. That aim can be achieved by immediate supervisors or department leaders advising employees to set goals that can be measured and achieved (Bandura, 1977). Immediate supervisors or department leaders can do that by organizing workshops on how goals are measured and evaluated. The workshops could also be used to encourage employees that they can achieve the goals they set (Bandura, 1977). Coaching style of leadership and role modelling by managers also help with maintaining moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977; Demerouti et al., 2016). Role modelling includes managers being honest to employees, communicating openly with them and treating employees with respect. Mentoring processes could also be used by managers to help employees maintain moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs.

The second implication of the dissertation is that employees themselves can also impact their self-efficacy beliefs. Moderate to heightened levels of self-efficacy beliefs can be achieved and maintained through watching someone else perform a particular task and instilling in oneself the belief that one can perform the task as well (Bandura, 1977). Employees can also increase self-efficacy through controlling for anxiety (Bandura, 1977). Employees could also build their self-efficacy beliefs by developing their growth mind-set (Yeager & Dweck, 2012), which involves employees believing that their abilities are changeable and that they can grow them. One way that abilities could change and grow is by engaging in continuous learning.

The third implication of the dissertation is that managers on different levels could help employees devote sufficient time to their personal interests and hobbies since time devoted to oneself can impact how an employee performs at work and feels about work. Highest serving managers can orient the strategy of the company to be more personal-time friendly and family friendly. Meanwhile, immediate supervisors can help employees devote more time to personal interests and hobbies through facilitating employees to undertake initiatives that increase their job resources and challenging demands while decreasing hindering job demands and undertaking initiatives that help employees to increase self-efficacy beliefs.

The fourth implication of the dissertation is that immediate supervisors could help employees engage in activities that involve increasing job resources, challenging job demands and

reducing hindering job demands, known as job crafting behaviours. One way to increase engagement in proactive behaviours is to undertake on the job interventions. In this regards, van den Heuvel, Demerouti and Peeters (2015) undertook a successful intervention which “consisted of a 1-day training session on the theory and practice of job crafting, a 4-weeks period of applying job crafting and a half-day reflection session” (p. 523). The end results showed that the intervention helped employees engage in job crafting behaviours (Heuvel et al., 2015). As such, similar intervention could be taken by companies in order to encourage employees to engage in job crafting behaviours. The fifth implication of the dissertation is that employees themselves can engage in proactive behaviours that help them increase job resources, challenging job demands and decrease hindering job resources. The reason why should they do so it that it increases the beliefs in their ability to accomplish tasks at work and leads to work–self facilitation.

The sixth implication of the dissertation is that higher level managers could focus on increasing the quality of the relationship between immediate supervisors and subordinates as a good quality of exchange between the two parties has positive outcomes for companies (Hobfoll, 2011). Quality of LMX can be improved through increasing the attention directed towards supervisor–employee informal exchanges, motivating managers to build a good relationship with each employee and helping employees in planning their career. The seventh implication is that employees could also help build the quality of LMX by being honest and establishing good relationships with their supervisors (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014) and by seeking performance feedback from supervisors (Lam et al., 2007).

The eighth implication is that managers could help employees experience that participation in the family role improves the performance in the work role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), known as family–work enrichment. That aim can be achieved by immediate supervisors encouraging employees to prepare well in advance for upcoming work related activities and inform family members on time in order to for them to be mentally prepared (Mishra, 2015). However, managers should consider the ethical aspect of potentially invading into family life when advising employees on how to prepare ahead of time for work related engagements. A further way to help employees experience family–work enrichment is for managers and HR practitioners to establish ties with their employees’ family members through inviting them to participate in organisation celebration events (Jain & Nair, 2017). Employees themselves can also increase family–work enrichment. They can do so by increasing their work–role salience since the more important an individual’s work role is the more that individual will try to use resources gained from the family role to the work role (Mishra, 2015).

The ninth implication of the dissertation is that managers should help their employees be promotion focused rather than prevention focused. That can be achieved by designing specific initiatives. One initiative that can be undertaken is to train employees to improve

self-regulatory skills and guide employees on how to be promotion focused by applying on-the-job exercises (Bryant, 2007, 2009).

The final implication of the dissertation is that senior level managers could devise strategies and company policies that encourage and support an environment which motivates employees to build resources, either personal or job related. The reason for promoting resource building is that individuals who have more resources are more productive meanwhile those that possess less resources can even become counterproductive (Hobfoll, 2011). Immediate supervisors could help in this direction by building good quality relationships with their subordinates.

Table 12 Summary of Practical Implications of the dissertation

1	Managers could undertake activities that would help their employees maintain moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs.
2	Employees themselves could increase and maintain moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs by observing someone else perform a task and instilling in oneself the belief that they could learn in order to perform the same task as well.
3	Employees could engage in proactive behaviours at work in order to increase their job resources and challenging job demands.
4	Managers could encourage job crafting behaviours.
5	Managers could stimulate initiatives to enhance the quality of relationship between leaders and employees.
6	Call centre managers could informally encourage employees to engage in activities that increase family–work enrichment.
7	Call centre managers could design initiatives which help their employees be promotion-focused rather than prevention-focused.
8	Senior level managers could encourage strategies and company policies that motivate and support employees in building personal resources.

Source: own work

4.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

While the dissertation offers various interesting insights in the role that self-efficacy plays in facilitating work behaviour and non-work responsibilities it also has several limitations. The first limitation of this dissertation is that data for all my studies were self-reported, which might create problems with common method bias. In order to avoid this problem, I used variables that are person-related such that only individuals themselves were able to answer. Variables such as self-efficacy, career identity, career commitment, job crafting, work–self facilitation, family–work enrichment and promotion focus that only employees themselves are best suited to provide information about. Regarding OCB, Fecteau and Craig (2001) suggest that self-reported performance, in this case service delivery OCB, is comparable to

evaluations made by other sources. Further, questions in the online questionnaire were reverse-coded and randomised, clear and easy-to-understand instructions and items in the questionnaires were provided as recommended by Hirschi et.al (2014). Respondents were also informed that there are no right or wrong answers. As a further support to my claim that common method bias should not be a concern is Siemsen et al. (2010, p. 470) statement that “there is no reason that common method bias would create an artificial interaction effect”. However, besides applying procedural remedies, future studies should apply statistical remedies in order to assess and account for common method bias. One thing could be applying the correlational marker technique using a marker variable that is nonrelated to the variables of interest in the study (Williams, Hartman, & Cavazzote, 2010). Marker variable approach has been used in numerous cross-sectional studies and expanded by researchers who have proposed different analytical techniques to follow in order to assess and account for common method bias (i.e. Lindel & Whitney, 2001; Richardson et al., 2009; Williams, Hartman, & Cavazzote, 2010).

The second limitation of the dissertation is that cross-sectional nature of the data used in all studies presented in this dissertation does not allow causality to be observed. Future studies should include longitudinal data to observe causal relationships and changes that might happen through time. Future studies could also use experiments or interventions in the workplace to analyse the proposed relationships in each study.

The third limitation of the dissertation are relatively high mean values of perceived self-efficacy across all three studies. The mean values range from 5.72 to 6.28 on a 7 point scale, and standard deviations are relatively low, ranging from 0.57 to 0.72. High mean values of perceived self-efficacy makes studying the variable difficult. Further, perceived self-efficacy is not necessarily the same as actual or real self-efficacy as individuals tend to be overconfident and overestimate their abilities (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Kim et al., 2016). As such, one avenue for research is to analyse how managers can help their employees to reduce the gap between perceived self-efficacy and real self-efficacy as they might be different.

The fourth limitation of the dissertation is that in the first and second study I could not control for different contexts and effects such as firm, company, and industry effect since data collection was done on alumni who finished university and who were working in different firms and industries. Moreover, the surveys were conducted on individuals who work on different job positions. As such, a suggestion for future research is to compare whether there is a difference between individuals who work in different industries, firms, and in a more and less stressful occupations.

The final limitation of the dissertation is that in the third study data collection was restricted to call centre employees and as such I cannot imply that the results can be generalised to

other industries or job positions. Hence, an avenue for future research is to test the proposed relationships in study three on frontline employees working in other industries such as hotels or banks.

A further research avenue is testing country of origin as a potential moderator. Potential countries would be Asian ones as the concept of 'self' differs between individuals from Asian and Western countries (Demerouti et al., 2013). The results would allow us to realize if the findings can be generalised to non-western cultures. Moreover, future research should analyse if family–work enrichment and promotion focus in different national cultures have the same impact in service delivery OCB as these two concepts might be impacted by a country's values that form the culture. Further cross-cultural variables that can be controlled for in future studies can be social values, societal well-being and ethical values and norms which are different among countries and individuals and can impact the focal variables of the dissertation such as career identity, career commitment, job crafting, LMX, and work–self facilitation. Another suggestion for future research is to test if age is an important factor that would impact the decisions for work and leisure. A final suggestion for future research is to analyse the impact of two dimensions of supervisor-subordinate relationship, namely economic (ELMX) and social (SLMX) (Kuvaas et al., 2012) in the relationship between job crafting, self-efficacy and work–self facilitation.

5 CONCLUSION

Changes in the work domain have impacted employees' productivity, performance and ability to achieve work objectives and also fulfil goals in other life domains. Aside from this, changes in the family have also impacted employees' ability to achieve work related goals. Consequently, the need to juggle work and family responsibilities has made it even more challenging for employees to accomplish what they have planned. Successful management of responsibilities in different life roles is relevant to employees because it leads to fulfilling and happy lives (Demerouti, 2012) but also organisations as it contributes to improved work performance (Carson et al., 2011).

In three studies reported in this dissertation, I focused on self-efficacy, a personal resource and examined how it facilitates work behaviours and non-work responsibilities. I found that employees' perceived self-efficacy is positively related with career commitment, personal interests and hobbies and work behaviour. More specifically, in the first study I have shown that perceived self-efficacy strengthens the relationship between career identity and career commitment. In the second study, I have shown that self-efficacy is conducive to employees experiencing that resources gained at work facilitate time devoted to personal interests at hobbies. In the third study, I have shown that job self-efficacy interacts with family-work enrichment and promotion focus to positively impact work behaviour such as service delivery OCB.

Overall, results of the dissertation reveal that self-efficacy helps individuals lead happier and fulfilling lives and improves their performance at work. Showing in this way the relevance of a personal resource such as self-efficacy to individuals and companies. With this information in mind, employees and supervisors can undertake one of the numerous initiatives presented in the dissertation in order to help employees build self-efficacy beliefs.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix A: Summary in Slovene language/ Daljši povzetek disertacije v slovenskem jeziku

Uvod

Vse bolj prisotne značilnosti delovnega mesta kot so preobremenjenost, soodvisnost delovnih opravil, vse višje zahteve za posamezne zaposlene in hitrost njihovega dela so zaposlenim občutno otežili doseganje delovnih ciljev. Posledično so ti nedavni trendi vzbudili veliko zanimanje med raziskovalci vedenja v organizacijah (Amstad, Demerouti, & Semmer, 2016; Chan et al., 2016; Derks, Bakker, Peters, & van Wingerden, 2016; Martinez-Corts, Demerouti, Bakker, & Boz, 2015; Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). Nadalje zaposlenim dodatno otežuje usklajevanje doseganja delovnih ciljev z družinskimi obveznostmi. Vendar pa obstajajo posamezniki, ki so dokazano uspešni tako pri delovnih kot tudi nedelovnih obveznostih. Eden izmed vzrokov za to so lahko individualni ali kontekstualni dejavniki, ki služijo kot viri. Znanstveniki so na primer ugotovili, da delovni viri, kot so avtonomija in povratne informacije o delu, ugodno vplivajo na delovni angažma in uspešnost zaposlenega (Breevaart, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2014; Bakker, Demerouti, Hakanen, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). A ne vemo veliko o vlogi osebnih virov, ki so opredeljeni kot pozitivne evalvacije posameznika glede na njegovo sposobnost, da učinkovito vpliva na dogodke v svojem okolju (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003), pri delu, na primer vedenje pri delu, in nedelovnih obveznostih, kot so osebni hobiji in zanimanja. Poleg tega so se le redki znanstveniki lotili vprašanja, kako družinske obveznosti vplivajo na pristop k delu.

Na podlagi novejših ugotovitev v literaturi o delovno-družinski dinamiki (Barbier, Hansez, Chmiel, & Demerouti, 2013) smo se odločili raziskati, kako osebni viri, kot na primer zaznana samoučinkovitost, vplivajo na posameznikovo zmožnost opravljati svoje delovne dolžnosti in nedelovne obveznosti. V skladu s socialno kognitivno teorijo (SCT; Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 2012) je samoučinkovitost opredeljena kot vera vase oziroma zaznana zmožnost posameznika, da je sposoben opraviti določene naloge in je tako najbolj razširjen ter osrednji sociokognitiven mehanizem samoodločanja. Zaznana samoučinkovitost je dokazano koristna pri delu, saj vpliva na uspešnost opravljenih zadolžitev (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984), zaposlitveno uspešnost (Stajkovic in Luthans, 1998) ter sprejemanje kariernih odločitev (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Nadalje so posamezniki z višjo samoučinkovitostjo bolj ustvarjalni pri oblikovanju individualnih strategij odzivanja v obdobjih večjih obremenitev in so zagnani za nova delovna opravila (Bandura, 1997). Vendar pa ima zaznana samoučinkovitost pri delu tudi negativne učinke (Libano, Llorens, Salanova, & Schaufeli, 2012). Vancouver in Kendall (2006) sta na primer pokazala, da zaposleni dodiplomski študentje z visoko samoučinkovitostjo izkazujejo prekomerno samozavest, v delo vložijo manj osebnih virov in so posledično manj uspešni.

V tej disertaciji smo analizirali vloge zaznane samoučinkovitosti pri vedenju na delovnem mestu in izven organizacije. Natančneje smo raziskali, kako je samoučinkovitost povezana s karierno zavezanostjo, facilitacijo delo-jaz ter državljanjskim vedenjem. V prvem poglavju smo analizirali moderatorsko vlogo zaznane samoučinkovitosti. Drugo poglavje predpostavlja samoučinkovitost v mediatorski vlogi. Tretje poglavje pa obravnava zaznano samoučinkovitost kot napovedovalno spremenljivko v interakciji s še dve spremenljivkama pri napovedovanju vedenja na delovnem mestu. Tako izčrpno prikažemo različne vloge samoučinkovitosti pri uravnavanju delovnih in nedelovnih obveznosti.

1 Karierna identiteta in karierna zavezanost pri zaposlenih z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi: moderatorska vloga zaznane samoučinkovitosti

V organizaciji morajo zaposleni sprejemati različne z delom in zaposlitvijo povezane odločitve, kot na primer koliko ur na teden bodo delali (Ng & Feldman, 2008), ali bodo sprejeli/zavrnilo delovno mesto (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005) in ali naj pustijo trenutno službo (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Te odločitve temeljijo na posameznih preferencah in vrednotah, toda tudi drugi dejavniki kot zakonski stan in število otrok ali vloga posameznika pri odgovornostih gospodinjstva (tj. je glavni hranilec) vplivajo na to (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Če povzamemo, družinski dejavniki vplivajo na zaposlitvene odločitve (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Poleg tega obstoječe raziskave kažejo, da si vedno večje število očetov želi deliti vlogo vzgojitelja v gospodinjstvu (Harrington, VanDeusen, & Humberd, 2011). Nedavne raziskave prav tako kažejo, da niso samo moški karierno usmerjeni, pač pa tudi ženske izbirajo zaposlitve, ki jim nudijo možnosti za karierno napredovanje in zavezanost, saj si tako zagotovijo finančno stabilnost gospodinjstva (Masterson & Hobbler, 2014). Vendar kolikor nam je znano, še nihče ni oblikoval modela, ki podrobneje preučuje družinske značilnosti (zakonski stan, družinske obveznosti in družinske vloge) in njihovo vlogo pri kariernih odločitvah. Nadalje vemo le malo o tem, kako se karierna zavezanost razlikuje med ženskami in moškimi z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi.

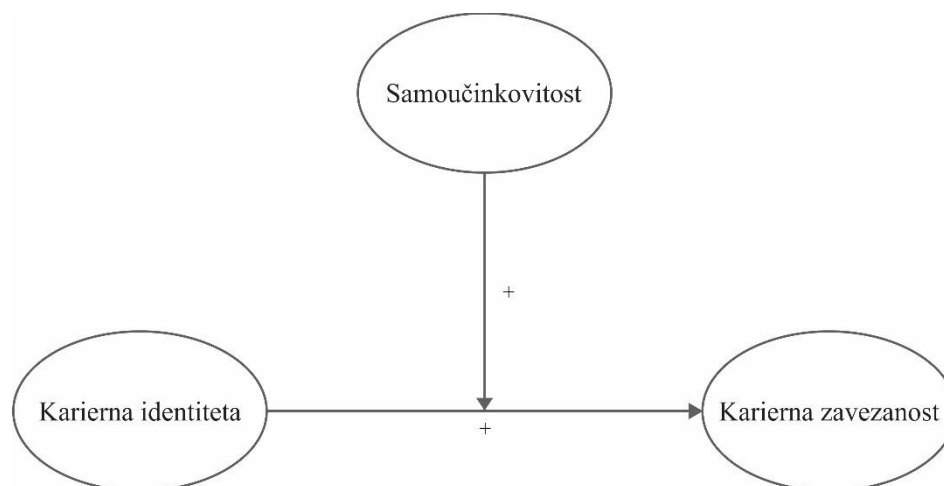
V prvem poglavju smo analizirali, kako se družinske obveznosti odražajo v kariernih odločitvah in domeni dela. To smo naredili s preverjanjem zveze med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo, tj. hipoteza ena, ter moderacijsko vlogo samoučinkovitosti v zvezi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo, tj. hipoteza dve. Karierna identiteta je koncept, ki opisuje v kakšni meri se posameznik opisuje s svojim delom ter delodajalsko organizacijo (London, 1993). Karierna zavezanost se navezuje na identifikacijo s svojim poklicem in na vpletenost vanj (Mueller et al., 1992).

Nadalje smo raziskali, če karierna pot pri moških in ženskah poteka enako, ter ocenili učinek razlik v družinskih strukturah na predlagano pot. V tem poglavju smo razvili naslednje hipoteze: 1) obstaja pozitivna zveza med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo in 2)

to zvezo bo moderirala samoučinkovitost. Poleg tega smo raziskali, če družinske obveznosti vplivajo na naravo razmerja med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo žensk in moških kot to moderira samoučinkovitost. Socialno-kognitivna karierna teorija (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hacket, 1994) je služila kot teoretični okvir za razvoj hipotez.

Raziskali smo modele zvez (glej sliko 1) med spoloma in znotraj njih. Analizirali smo razlike znotraj spola glede na različne družinske obveznosti: I) zakonski stan (poročeni/sobivajoči ali samski); II) vzdrževani družinski člani do 18 let (z njimi ali brez); III) zakonski stan in vzdrževani družinski člani (poročeni z vzdrževanimi člani ali poročeni brez njih); IV) zakonski stan in vzdrževani družinski člani (poročeni z vzdrževanimi člani ali samski brez vzdrževanih članov); V) finančni doprinos k prihodku družine (glavni hranilci ali sekundarni hranilci ali enako kot partner).

Slika 1: Razmerje med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo kot jo moderira samoučinkovitost



Hipotezi smo preverili s pomočjo modeliranja strukturnih enačb na vzorcu 5804 univerzitetnih diplomantov (3769 moških, 2035 žensk). Skozi analizo smo ugotovili, da je karierna identiteta pozitivno povezana s karierno zavezanostjo tako pri moških kot pri ženskah. Moderatorska vloga samoučinkovitosti je bila v rezultatih prisotna pri ženskah, pri moških pa ne. Ugotovili smo razlike na moderatorski ravni znotraj spola. Konkretno igrajo (zunaj)zakonska zveza in/ali vzdrževani družinski člani v gospodinjstvu pomembno vlogo pri razlikovanju pomembnosti moderatorja pri ženskah. Moderator pri ženskah, ki so poročene in/ali imajo vzdrževane družinske člane ali doprinesejo enako kot partner v proračun gospodinjstva, je bil značilen. Medtem pa pri samskih ženskah, ki so glavne hranilke gospodinjstva, moderator ni bil značilen. To pomeni, da bo ženskam, ki so poročene ali imajo vzdrževane družinske člane ali so enakovredne hranilke s partnerjem, sposobnost opravljanja zahtevnih nalog okrepila zvezo med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Isto ne velja za samske ženske ali za tiste, ki so glavne hranilke gospodinjstva.

Razlike pri moških z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi so prav tako bile potrjene. Vzdrževani družinski člani v gospodinjstvu so igrali ključno vlogo pri značilni vlogi samoučinkovitosti kot moderatorja v zvezi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Pri moških v (zunaj)zakonski zvezi in pri samskih moderator ni bil značilen. Pri poročenih moških z vzdrževanimi družinskimi člani je samoučinkovitost okrepila zvezo med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Medtem pa pri poročenih moških brez vzdrževanih družinskih članov moderator ni bil značilen. Prav tako pri samskih moških brez vzdrževanih družinskih članov moderator ni bil značilen. Pri moških, ki so primarni hranilci, je samoučinkovitost zavzela moderatorsko vlogo v odnosu med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Medtem pa pri moških, ki so sekundarni hranilci ali doprinašajo dohodku gospodinjstva v enaki meri, samoučinkovitost ni zavzela moderatorske vloge.

2 Samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela ter facilitacija dela in sebe: mediacijska vloga samoučinkovitosti

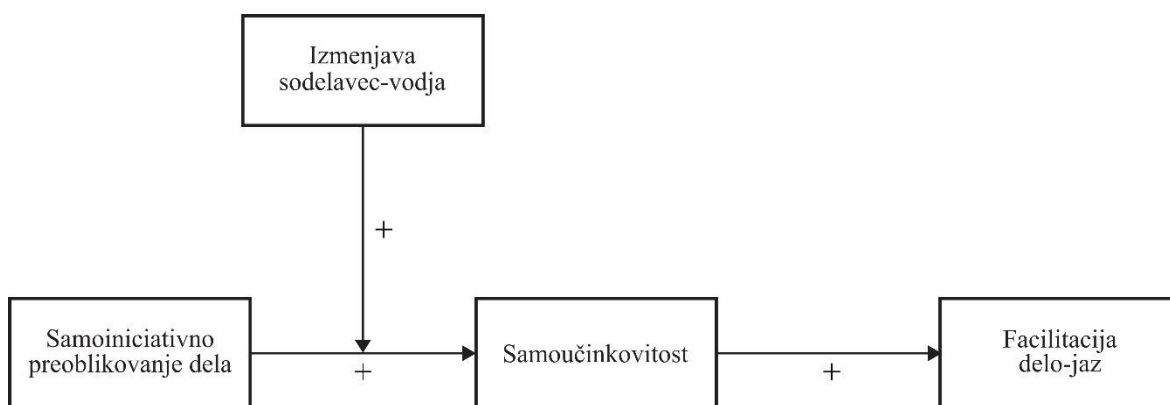
Vedno težje uravnavanje delovnih in družinskih obveznosti ter spremljajočih procesov pri delu in doma je raziskovalce motiviralo k raziskovanju področja usklajevanja različnih življenjskih vlog (Barnett in Hyde, 2001; Spector et al., 2004). Znanstvena literatura se je do zdaj osredotočala na analize konflikta med delom in družino (Amstad et al., 2011; Carlson et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus in Beutell, 1985; Mihelič, 2014), obogatitve dela in družine (Greenhaus in Powell, 2006; Tadić et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 2007) ter facilitacije dela in družine (Frone, 2003; Wayne et al., 2007). A poleg razmišljanja o delu in družini zaposleni razmišljajo tudi o lastnih interesih in hobijih. To področje se imenuje domena »sebe« in v tem kontekstu obsega tisti čas, ki ga oseba porabi za lastne interese, neodvisno od domene družine ali področja dela (Demerouti, 2012). Skozi domeno »sebe« so Demerouti (2012) in Demerouti et al. (2013) uvedli facilitacijo dela in sebe, ki opisuje pojav, ko viri iz domene dela izboljšajo kakovost časa, posvečenega osebnim interesom (Demerouti, 2012). Čeprav je ukvarjanje z osebnimi interesi in hobiji pomembna domena za posameznika, pa raziskovalci niso v večji meri upoštevali kako ta domena in čas, porabljen za sebe, vplivata na delo in kako delo vpliva nanju (Demerouti *et al.*, 2013). Poleg tega vemo relativno malo o vlogi osebnih virov na domeno »sebe« (Demerouti *et al.*, 2013).

Navzlic temu smo v drugem poglavju predvidevali, da bo zaznana samoučinkovitost kot osebni vir igrala mediacijsko vlogo v razmerju med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in facilitacijo delo-jaz. Samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela je opredeljeno kot proaktivno vedenje pri delu, ko zaposleni povzroči spremembe na ravni zahtev in virov dela, da naredi svoje delo smiselnejše, privlačnejše in bolj zadovoljujoče (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Poleg tega smo predpostavili, da bo kakovost izmenjave sodelavec-vodja (v nadaljevanju LMX) okrepila vlogo samoučinkovitosti v razmerju med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela ter facilitacijo dela in sebe (prikazano na sliki 2). Teoretično podlago predstavlja model

Work-Home Resources, ki predstavlja osebne vire kot manjkajoči člen med domeno delo in domeno doma (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Prva hipoteza tega poglavja se glasi: samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela bo pozitivno povezano z zaznano samoučinkovitostjo. Druga hipoteza: zaznana samoučinkovitost bo pozitivno povezana s facilitacijo delo-jaz. Tretja hipoteza: samoučinkovitost bo medirala zvezo med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela ter facilitacijo delo-jaz. Četrta hipoteza: LMX bo moderiral pozitivno zvezo med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo, pri čemer bo zveza močnejša pri zaposlenih z višjo kakovostjo LMX. Peta hipoteza: samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela bo povezano s facilitacijo delo-jaz s pogojnim posrednim učinkom, kar pomeni, da bo njegovo razmerje s facilitacijo dela in sebe moderiral LMX in medirala samoučinkovitost (glej sliko 2).

Slika 2: Razmerje med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela, samoučinkovitostjo, izmenjavo vodja-sodelavec in facilitacijo dela in sebe



Uporabili smo vzorec 204 zaposlenih iz ene evropske države, da smo preverili predlagan model moderirane mediacije. Na podlagi rezultatov smo ugotovili, da je samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela pozitivno povezano s samoučinkovitostjo. Nadalje smo ugotovili, da LMX moderira zvezo med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo. Ta rezultat je pokazal, da je zveza med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo močnejša za tiste z višjo kakovostjo LMX. Prav tako smo ugotovili, da je samoučinkovitost pozitivno povezana s facilitacijo delo-jaz, kar pomeni da samoučinkovitost pozitivno vpliva na domeno »sebe« oz. čas, posvečen osebnim interesom. Rezultati kažejo, da poleg vpliva na domeno dela in družine samoučinkovitost pozitivno vpliva na domeno »sebe« oz. čas, posvečen osebnim interesom. Poleg tega smo ugotovili, da je samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela s facilitacijo delo-jaz povezano s pogojnimi posrednimi učinki tako, da je zveza s komunikacijo vodja-član moderirana in s samoučinkovitostjo medirana. Z vidika moderacije so rezultati pokazali, da visoka kakovost LMX krepi pozitivno povezavo med samoučinkovitostjo in facilitacijo delo-jaz.

3 Samoučinkovitost, osredotočenost na napredovanje ter obogatitev družine in dela kot napovedovalci državljanskega vedenja

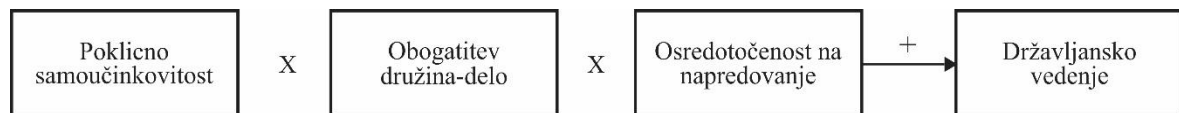
Povečana soodvisnost delovnih opravil zaposlenih posledično zahteva izvajanje opravil, ki so drugačna od formalnih dolžnosti (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017). Zato organizacije osredotočajo svojo pozornost na vedenje zaposlenih pri delu in na razumevanje dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na to vedenje (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Eno od takšnih je vedenje v dobrobit organizacije oziroma državljansko vedenje (v nadaljevanju OCB), ki je opredeljeno kot posameznikova prostovoljna predanost znotraj organizacije, ki ni del posameznikovih pogodbenih dolžnosti (Organ, 1997). Glede na to, da OCB izboljšuje učinkovitost in uspešnost organizacije (Organ, 1988), je za organizacije zelo pomembno, da razumejo kakšni pogoji omogočajo OCB zaposlenih. Izrecno je pomembno, da razumejo vlogo individualnih lastnosti, ki so relevantni napovedovalci OCB (Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2016; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Samoučinkovitost kot individualna lastnost lahko dokazano vodi v več OCB (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Paramasivam, 2015; Shahidi, Shamsnia, & Baezat, 2015). Študije so prav tako dokazale, da je visoka raven samoučinkovitosti negativno povezana z uspešnostjo (Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002; Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). Posamezniki s previsoko samoučinkovitostjo namreč postanejo prekomerno samozavestni (Stone, 1994) in posledično vlagajo manj virov v specifične aktivnosti ali opravila (Prieto, 2009). Znanstveniki so predvideli, da na tem področju obstaja učinek »preveč dobrega«, pri katerem pozitivni pojavi dosežejo prevoj, po katerem njihov učinek postane negativen (Grant & Schwartz, 2011 str. 61). Samoučinkovitost je ena izmed spremenljivk, za katero je bilo predvidevano, da ima takšen učinek (Grant & Schwartz, 2011).

Zato smo v tretjem poglavju preverili, če lahko preveč samoučinkovitosti do določene točke dejansko koristi, nato pa škodi OCB. OCB se smatra za eno izmed treh širokih domen uspešnosti (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002); glede na to, da je bilo dokazano, da samoučinkovitost negativno vpliva na uspešnost, lahko predpostavimo, da bo tudi na OCB imela negativen učinek. Potemtakem je prva hipoteza tega poglavja sledeča: razmerje med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in prenosom vrednosti vedenja v dobrobit organizacije bo v obliki obrnjene črke U. Kolikor vemo, se še niso izvajale analize za takšen nelinearen učinek.

Do zdaj je bilo dokazano, da strateška usmerjenost pri doseganju ciljev vpliva na OCB (Higgins, 2000) in da zveze med vlogami lahko delujejo vzajemno tudi na samoučinkovitost ter tako vplivajo na vedenje v dobrobit organizacije. Vendar še vedno ni jasno, kako samoučinkovitost spreminja učinek osebnih spremenljivk (tj. osredotočenost na napredovanje) in spremenljivk, povezanih z dojemanjem odnosa med življenjskimi vlogami (tj. obogatitev družina-delo) vpliva na OCB. Zato je izredno pomembno preveriti, pod kakšnimi pogoji visoka samoučinkovitost vodi v več OCB. Tako se druga hipoteza tega

poglavja glasi: trojna interakcija med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo, osredotočenostjo na napredovanje ter obogatitvijo družina-delo vodi v OCB tako, da bo poklicna samoučinkovitost najbolj pozitivno povezana s prenosom vrednosti OCB, ko bosta osredotočenost na napredovanje ter obogatitev družina delo obe na visoki ravni (glej sliko 3).

Slika 3: Trojna interakcija med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo, osredotočenostjo na napredovanje in obogatitvijo družina delo, ki se nanaša na OCB



Za potrebe preverjanja hipoteze smo uporabili vzorec 198 uslužbencev klicnega centra. Analizo smo izvedli s pomočjo moderiranega hierarhičnega regresijskega modeliranja. Nasproti pričakovanjem smo prvo hipotezo tega poglavja ovrgli, saj med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in OCB ni bilo mogoče dokazati razmerja v obliki obrnjene črke U. Eden izmed razlogov za ta rezultat je morda ta, da posameznik, ki izbere zahtevnejši cilj, kot na primer da bo vedno stremel k nudenju izredne podpore strankam, resnično skrbi za to, da je na delovnem mestu vedno uspešen, saj s tem njegova motivacija raste (Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). V tem kontekstu je možno, da so uslužbenci klicnega centra, ki so si sami zadali cilj, da marljivo odgovarjajo na zahteve strank, kažejo višjo uspešnost zaradi povečane motivacije. Drug razlog bi lahko bila uporabljena lestvica za merjenje OCB. Druge študije, ki so poskušale izmeriti učinek osebnostnih lastnosti ali učinek »preveč dobrega« na delovno uspešnost in OCB, so uporabile lestvico, ki meri OCB napram organizaciji in/ali OCB napram posamezniku, ki so ju razvili Williams in Anderson (1991) ali Lee in Allen (2002), ali pa OCB kot petdimenzijski konstrukt – le-to so razvili Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman in Fetter (1990). V tej študiji je bila uporabljena druga lestvica, namreč tista, ki meri OCB, ki so jo razvili Bettencourt et al. (2001). Vendar smo ugotovili, da razmerje med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in OCB za zaposlene, ki doživljajo obogatitev družina-delo, riše funkcijo v obliki črke U. Glede druge hipoteze v tem poglavju smo ugotovili, da obstaja trojna interakcija med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo, obogatitvijo družina-delo ter osredotočenostjo na napredovanje. Takšen rezultat implicira visok OCB, ko so poklicna samoučinkovitost, obogatitev družina-delo ter osredotočenost na napredovanje na visoki ravni.

Teoretičen doprinos disertacije

Ta disertacija razširja naše razumevanje na področju vlog samoučinkovitosti pri vedenju pri delu in nedelovnih obveznostih. Na ta način je doprinos literaturi o samoučinkovitosti, vedenju v organizacijah (OB) ter literaturi o delovno-družinski dinamiki.

Kolikor vemo, do zdaj nobena študija ni vzpostavila samoučinkovitosti kot moderacijske spremenljivke v zvezi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo. Ta doprinos literaturi nadgrajuje SCCT (Lent et al., 1994) s prikazom pomembnosti individualnih spremenljivk z vidika odločitve, da posameznik ostane na specifični karierni poti (prvo poglavje). Nadalje doprinaša prvo poglavje k literaturi o delovno-družinski problematiki, saj dokazuje, da samoučinkovitost ne igra enake vloge pri ljudeh z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi, kot na primer zakonski stan in vzdrževani otroci v gospodinjstvu. S to analizo smo se odzvali pozivom, ki so jih objavili Greenhaus & Powell (2012), da je treba preveriti, kako družinske obveznosti vplivajo na delovne odločitve. Ta doprinos je pomemben, saj informira organizacije in poslovodje, da samoučinkovitost vpliva na karierni razvoj (Lent et al., 1994) in na odločitve, da posameznik ostane na svoji karierni poti. Prav tako razširjamo razumevanje z upoštevanjem razlik med spoloma pri kariernih odločitvah. Osipow in Fitzgerald (1996) sta pozivala k vključevanju spola v raziskovanju kariernih odločitve. Ta doprinos znanosti je pomemben, saj dokazuje, da je spol pomemben moderator v zvezi med karierno identiteto in karierno zavezanostjo.

Empirični dokazi iz drugega poglavja kažejo, da na temo facilitacije dela in sebe obstaja izjemno malo literature in da je koncept še najmanj raziskan na področju literature dela in družine (Demerouti *et al.*, 2016). Nadalje ne obstajajo informacije o tem, kako samoučinkovitost vpliva na domeno »sebe« oz. natančneje, kako samoučinkovitost vpliva na čas, posvečen osebnim interesom in hobijem. Tako drugo poglavje doprinaša razširitev znanja na področju facilitacije delo-jaz. Do zdaj so samo tri znanstvena dela (Demerouti, 2012; Demerouti et al., 2013, in Demerouti et al., 2016) raziskovala facilitacijo delo-jaz; vse kar je znano o tem konstrukt, je spisala Demerouti s soavtorji. Ta doprinos je pomemben, saj vsak posameznik izkazuje osebne interese in hobije, ne glede na družinsko stanje, ki motivirajo posameznika, da se vede na določen način (Demerouti et al., 2016). Nadalje je razumevanje doživljanja facilitacije delo-jaz pomembno, ker zaposleni ob doživljanju facilitacije lahko zmanjšajo raven utrujenosti (Demerouti et al., 2016), kar lahko pomeni izboljšano delovno uspešnost in posledično povečano dodano vrednost za podjetje.

S študijo v drugem poglavju doprinašamo k delovno-družinski literaturi ter literaturi OB z demonstracijo procesa k doživljanju facilitacije delo-jaz. Ta del je ključen, saj le redki prispevki obravnavajo ta koncept. Medtem ko so prejšnje študije raziskovale posledice facilitacije delo-jaz (Demerouti 2012; Demerouti et al., 2016), ta raziskava obravnava napovedovalne dejavnike facilitacije delo-jaz, s čimer tvori povsem novo perspektivo. Kolikor vemo, do zdaj še nihče ni raziskoval samoiniciativnega preoblikovanja dela v povezavi s facilitacijo delo-jaz. Naši rezultati kažejo pozitivno posredno povezavo s facilitacijo delo-jaz. To znanje je pomembno za literaturo na področju kadrovanja, saj so izzivi glede ravnanja z različnimi odgovornostmi relevantni za raziskovalce na tem področju (Raiden in Caven, 2011).

Nadalje drugi del drugega poglavja povezuje samoučinkovitost in kadrovanje z dokazom, da samoučinkovitost deluje spodbudno na facilitacijo delo-jaz. S to študijo smo se odzvali na pozive, ki so jih izrazili ten Brummelhuis in Bakker (2012), da je treba preveriti, kako domena dela, na primer delovni viri, vplivajo na domeno doma preko osebnih virov. Nedavno so znanstveniki preverjali, ali samoučinkovitost izhaja iz facilitacije delo-jaz, a so dobili neznačilen rezultat (Demerouti et al. 2016). Naša študija je raziskovala obratno zvezo in dokazala, da je samoučinkovitost relevanten napovedovalec facilitacije delo-jaz. Dopolnilne sorodne raziskave pokažejo, da je osebni vir ključen za doživljanje več facilitacije delo-jaz.

Poleg tega v drugem poglavju pokažemo, da LMX moderira zvezo med delovnimi viri (npr. samoiniciativno preoblikovanje dela) in osebnimi viri (npr. samoučinkovitost). Nadaljnji doprinos tega poglavja disertacije je predstavljen glede na predlog, ki sta ga izrazila ten Brummelhuis in Bakker (2012), da se vključi moderatorska spremenljivka v zvezi med delovnimi viri, osebnimi viri in razpletom doma. Takšni rezultati dodajajo vrednost nedavni literaturi, ki se je osredotočila na raziskovanje neposredne povezave med samoiniciativnim preoblikovanjem dela in samoučinkovitostjo (van den Heuvel et al., 2015; van Wingerden et al., 2017b), brez upoštevanja moderatorskega učinka. Naša študija dokazuje, da posamezniki z višjo kakovostjo LMX uživajo večjo verjetnost za razvoj samoučinkovitosti in doživetje facilitacije delo-jaz. Na ta način uspešno demonstriramo, da kakovosten odnos med vodjo in članom pomeni veliko z vidika facilitacije delo-jaz.

V tretjem poglavju predpostavljamo, da samoučinkovitost z OCB tvori razmerje v nelinearni obliki obrnjene črke U, s čimer sledimo pozivom Granta in Schwartza (2011) za raziskovanje nelinearnih zvez pozitivnih pojavov. Nasprotno našim pričakovanjem so rezultati pokazali linearno pozitivno zvezo med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in OCB. Vendar rezultati prav tako kažejo zvezo med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in OCB v obliki črke U v primeru zaposlenih, ki doživljajo obogatitev družina-delo. Na ta način dodatno doprinašamo k literaturi samoučinkovitosti, saj dokazujemo neznatno značilno zvezo med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo in OCB v obliki črke U za zaposlene, ki doživljajo obogatitev družina-delo.

Poleg tega v tretjem poglavju predpostavimo in dokažemo trojno interakcijo med poklicno samoučinkovitostjo, osredotočenostjo na napredovanje ter obogatitvijo družina-delo, ki vpliva na OCB. Na ta način doprinašamo k bolj raznolikemu razumevanju napovedovalcev OCB. V odgovor pozivom, ki sta jih izrazila Vancouver in Kendall (2006), dodajamo tudi literaturo samoučinkovitosti pod določenimi pogoji, kjer lahko samoučinkovitost pozitivno vpliva na delovno uspešnost. Razširjamo znanje na področju, ki ga znanstveniki dojemajo kot premalo raziskano (Mishra, 2015; Jain & Nair, 2017) – obogatitev družina-delo. Rezultati informirajo organizacije in vodje, da imajo nedelovne obveznosti pomemben učinek na OCB.

Dodaten pomemben doprinos tretjega poglavja je razširitev prispevkov glede OCB. Do zdaj je količina študij, ki se ukvarjajo z OCB v storitvenem sektorju, še posebej pri zaposlenih, ki so v neposrednem stiku s strankami, precej omejena (Wang, 2009). Glede na to, da storitveni sektor vztrajno raste in bo predvidoma hitro rasel še naprej (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Chen, 2016; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Wang, 2009), je relevantna analiza napovedovalnih dejavnikov. Poleg tega je pomembno bolje razumeti OCB v storitvenem sektorju, kjer zaposleni nudijo storitve, prenašajo sporočila strank vodstvu podjetja in oglašujejo izdelke in storitve podjetja strankam (Chen, 2016; Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001).

Praktična spoznanja disertacije

Dognanja te disertacije nudijo številna praktična spoznanja za organizacije, vodje, kadrovske službe in zaposlene. Prvo spoznanje za organizacije je to, da naučijo vodje lotevanja pobud, ki bodo zaposlenim pomagale dvigniti njihovo mnenje o samoučinkovitosti. Izrecne pobude bi se lahko izvedle za skupino moških in žensk z različnimi družinskimi obveznostmi, pri katerih je samoučinkovitost dokazano pomemben moderator. Samoučinkovitost lahko poslovodje povečajo tudi tako, da zaposlenim svetujejo, naj si zastavijo merljive in dosegljive cilje (Bandura, 1977). Poslovodje lahko ta cilj dosežejo s prireditvijo delavnice na temo meritev in evalvacij ciljev. Delavnica bi se lahko izkoristila za spodbudo zaposlenih, da so zmožni doseči zastavljene cilje (Bandura, 1977). Poslovodje, ki vodijo z vzorom, prav tako pomagajo pri povečevanju samoučinkovitosti (Bandura, 1977). Vodenje z vzorom vključuje iskrenost napram zaposlenim, odprto komunikacijo, spoštljivo obravnavo zaposlenih in izkazovanje skromnosti. Mentorski vodstveni način prav tako pomaga dvigniti mnenje o lastni samoučinkovitosti (Demerouti et al., 2016). Praktično spoznanje za zaposlene je to, da lahko sami dvignejo svoje mnenje o samoučinkovitosti. To lahko dosežejo z opazovanjem nekoga drugega, kako izvaja določeno nalogo, s čimer si vlijejo prepričanje, da lahko sami prav tako opravijo to nalogo (Bandura, 1977). Zaposleni lahko povečajo samoučinkovitost s pomočjo nadzorovanja zaskrbljenosti (Bandura, 1977).

Drugo spoznanje te disertacije je dejstvo, da bi organizacije morale podpirati svoje zaposlene, da dovolj časa posvetijo svojim osebnim interesom in hobijem, saj čas posvečen sebi lahko vpliva na delovno uspešnost in počutje zaposlenega pri delu. En način, kako lahko organizacije pomagajo zaposlenim posvetiti več časa osebnim zanimanjem in hobijem je skozi olajševanje uresničevanja pobud za zaposlene, ki povečujejo njihove delovne vire in dodajajo zahtevne izzive ob hkratnem zmanjševanju omejujočih zahtev ter uresničevanje pobud, ki povečujejo posameznikovo samoučinkovitost.

Tretje spoznanje disertacije je, da lahko poslovodje pomagajo zaposlenim samoiniciativno preoblikovati delo. S tega vidika so van den Heuvel, Demerouti in Peeters (2015) uspešno

izvedli intervencijo, ki je vključevala 1-dnevno delavnico o teoriji in praksi samoiniciativnega preoblikovanja dela, 4-tedensko obdobje uporabe samoiniciativnega preoblikovanja dela in pol dneva za refleksijo (str. 523). Četrto spoznanje za organizacije in poslovodje je dvig kakovosti LMX. Kakovost LMX se lahko poviša z večjo pozornostjo pri neformalni komunikaciji med nadrejenim in zaposlenim, motivacijo zaposlenih k iskrenosti in vzpostavitvijo dobrega odnosa z nadrejenim (Erdogan in Bauer, 2014), motivacijo vodij, da razvijajo dober odnos z vsakim izmed zaposlenih, da pomagajo zaposlenim pri načrtovanju kariere in vzpodbujanjem zaposlenih, da zaprosi za boljše povratne informacije (Lam et al., 2007).

Peto spoznanje za organizacije in vodje je pomoč zaposlenim, da si prizadevajo za obogatitev družina-delo. Ta cilj se lahko uresniči z vzpodbujanjem zaposlenih, da se pravočasno pripravijo za prihajajoče aktivnosti, povezane z delom in o njih pravočasno obvestijo družinske člane, da se lahko ti na to pripravijo (Mishra, 2015). Organizacije lahko ustvarjajo vezi z družinskimi člani zaposlenih s tem, da jih povabijo k sodelovanju na proslavah organizacije (Jain & Nair, 2017).

Šesto spoznanje za organizacije in vodje je to, da lahko oblikujejo pobude, ki zaposlenim pomagajo biti osredotočeni na napredovanje in ne na preprečevanje. Primer takšne pobude je učenje zaposlenih, kako uporabiti sposobnosti za nadzor sebe, in vodenje zaposlenih s pomočjo vaj ob delu, kako se osredotočiti na napredovanje (Bryant, 2007; 2009).

Appendix B: Information on sample size and scales used for the first study

Sample size: 5804

Information on sample: Employed alumni from Rochester Institute of Technology in Rochester, New York. The survey was conducted via email by RIT professors. I was given the permission to use the survey data for the purposes of the dissertation.

1) Career Identity items (1- disagree to 7-agree)

1. I am very involved with my job.
2. I see myself as a professional or technical expert.
3. I have taken courses that are related to my job.

2) Career Commitment items (1- disagree to 7-agree)

1. I would go to a different industry if it paid the same.
2. I want a career in my current industry.
3. If I could start again I would not choose this field
4. If I had all the money needed, I would still work in this industry.
5. I am disappointed that I ever entered this industry.

3) General Self-Efficacy items (1- disagree to 7-agree)

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
3. It is easy for me to stick to my plans and accomplish my goals.
4. I am confident that I can deal efficiently with unexpected events.
5. Because I am creative, I know how to handle surprising situations.
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
7. I can rely on my coping abilities, and so I remain calm when facing difficulties.
8. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.
9. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.
10. If I created a new business or product, it would be good for my career.

Appendix C: Information on sample size and scales used for the second study

Sample size: 204

Information on sample: Employed alumni from Rochester Institute of Technology in Kosovo. The electronic survey was sent to alumni via email by the RIT Alumni Office. This database is primary data collected by me.

1) Job Crafting items (1-never to 7- always)

Increasing structural job resources

1. I try to develop my capabilities.
2. I try to develop myself professionally.
3. I try to learn new things at work.
4. I make sure that I use my capacities to the fullest.
5. I decide on my own how I do things.

Decreasing hindering job demands

6. I make sure that my work is mentally less intense.
7. I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense.
8. I manage my work so that I try to minimize contact with people whose problems affect me emotionally.
9. I organize my work so as to minimize contact with people whose expectations are unrealistic.
10. I try to ensure that I do not have to make many difficult decisions at work.
11. I organize my work in such a way to make sure that I do not have to concentrate for too long a period at once.

Increasing social job resources

12. I ask my supervisor to coach me.
13. I ask whether my supervisor is satisfied with my work.
14. I look to my supervisor for inspiration.
15. I ask others for feedback on my job performance.
16. I ask colleagues for advice.

Increasing challenging job demands

17. When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker.
18. If there are new developments, I am one of the first to learn about them and try them out.
19. When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects.
20. I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them.
21. I try to make my work more challenging by examining the underlying relationships between aspects of my job.

2) General Self-Efficacy items (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

3) Leader-Member Exchange items (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree)

1. I usually know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do.
2. My supervisor understands well my job problems and needs.
3. My supervisor recognizes well my potential.
4. My supervisor would use his/her power to help me solve problems at work.
5. My supervisor would "bail me out" at his/her expense.
6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.
7. The working relationship with my supervisor is effective.

4) Work-Self Facilitation (1-never to 7- always)

1. You come home cheerful after work, which affects positively the experience of your personal interests?
2. After work you really feel like pursuing your personal interests.
3. You can also perform better in your personal activities as a result of things that you have learned at work.
4. You feel full of energy after work and therefore can enjoy your personal interests more.

Control variables

1. Age: _____ (in years)
2. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
3. Highest level of education:
 - a. Less than four years of high school
 - b. High school
 - c. Bachelor degree
 - d. Master degree
 - e. Doctorate degree
4. Years working for current employer: _____
5. Do you hold a supervisory position?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

6. Please indicate your job position:
- a. Administrative employee
 - b. Service provider
 - c. Lower level management
 - d. Medium level management
 - e. Senior level management
 - f. Academic staff
7. Working hours per week: _____
8. Marital status:
- a. Single
 - b. Married
 - c. Divorced/Separated
 - d. Living with partner
 - e. Widowed
9. Children:
- a. Yes
 - b. No

Appendix D: Information on sample size and scales used for the third study

Sample size: 198

Information on sample: Call Centre employees working in Kosovo. The electronic survey was sent to employees through email by the Human Resource Department. This database is primary data collected by me.

1) Job Self-Efficacy items (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree)

1. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
2. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
3. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

2) Family-Work Enrichment items (1-never to 7-always)

Family to work development

1. Helps you to gain knowledge and this helps you be a better worker.
2. Helps you acquire skills and this helps you be a better worker.
3. Helps you expand your knowledge of new things and this helps you be a better worker.

Family to work affect

4. Puts you in a good mood and this helps you be a better worker.
5. Makes you feel happy and this helps you be a better worker.
6. Makes you cheerful and this helps you be a better worker.

Family to work efficiency

7. Requires you to avoid wasting time at work and this helps you be a better worker.
8. Encourages you to use your work time in a focused manner and this helps you be a better worker.
9. Causes you to be more focused at work and this helps you be a better worker.

3) Promotion Focus items (1-not true at all to 7-very true)

1. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.
2. I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future.
3. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.
4. I often think about how I will achieve academic success.
5. My major goal in school right now is to achieve my academic ambitions.
6. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my “ideal self”—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
7. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.
8. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.
9. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

4) Service Delivery OCB items (1-never to 7-always)

1. I follow customer service guidelines with extreme care.
2. I conscientiously follow guidelines for customer promotions.
3. I follow up in a timely manner to customer request and problems.
4. I perform duties with unusually few mistakes.
5. I always have a positive attitude at work.
6. Regardless of circumstances, I am exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers.

Control variables

1. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
2. Age: _____(in years)
3. Highest level of education:
 - a. High school
 - b. Bachelor degree
 - c. Master degree
 - d. Doctorate degree
4. Years working for current employer: _____
5. Working hours per week: _____
6. Marital status:
 - a. Single
 - b. Married
 - c. Divorced/Separated
 - d. Living with partner
 - e. Widowed
7. Number of children under 6 years old: _____