Up for the Challenge: Realizing your Self-regulated Power Motivation Through Job Crafting

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Abstract

Job crafting (JC) is a set of creative work behaviors that employees engage in to achieve a better fit between their jobs and their needs and preferences (Tims & Bakker, 2010). To better understand the motivational antecedents of employees seeking to increase challenging job demands, one of the dimensions of JC, we investigate implicit (unconscious) motives and explicit (conscious) motives simultaneously. We argue that explicit integrative power motivation has a direct effect on increasing challenging job demands and that this effect is moderated by implicit self-regulated power motivation. Also, we hypothesize that increasing challenging job demands mediate the relationship between implicit and explicit motive interaction and work engagement, which in turn, influences job satisfaction.

We conducted our study among a sample of Lebanese nurses (N = 360) working in hospital settings. Our study showed that explicit integrative power motivation predicts increasing challenging job demands and that its effect is moderated by implicit self-regulated power motivation. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) indicated that increasing challenging job demands fully mediates the relationship between motive interaction and work engagement, which is in turn related to job satisfaction. Our results expand our knowledge about JC and work wellbeing and attitude by adding the implicit, self-regulatory level of power motivation and the explicit, integrative power motivation as important antecedents of increasing challenging job demands, work engagement, and job satisfaction.

Word count: 223

Keywords: motive congruence; explicit integrative power motivation; implicit self-regulated power motivation; job crafting; work engagement; job satisfaction; nursing
Introduction

Research on work motivation has long focused on how the job and work settings can influence employees. Recently however, the focus has shifted to trying to understand how employees influence their jobs (as a means of self-motivation) and who is more likely to do so. By redesigning and shaping their jobs, employees can create work environments in which they feel highly engaged and motivated. One of the job-shaping strategies that employees can adopt at work is job crafting. Job crafting is a set of creative work behaviors that employees engage in to create a fit between their needs and preferences on one hand and their job tasks on the other (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Many individual differences have been explored in relation to job crafting including five factor model of personality (e.g., Bell & Njoli, 2016), proactive personality (e.g., Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012), self-efficacy (e.g., Kanten, 2014; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014), and more recently in relation to Higgins (1997) regulatory focus (e.g., Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenhaler & Fischbach, 2019) in order to capture how individual temperaments and orientations influence job crafting behavior.

We know from recent evidence that employees craft their jobs by approaching favorable outcomes or avoiding unfavorable ones (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lopper, Horstmann, & Hoppe, 2020), however, the motivation behind these tendencies has been so far only investigated at the explicit level. Individuals choose to approach or avoid certain goals depending on whether or not this will satisfy their motives (Elliot, 2006; Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & Sheldon, 1997). Based on these affectively-driven tendencies, individuals are driven towards positive stimuli and away from negative ones (McClelland, 1985b).

In the present study, we aim to partially answer Berg, Dutton, and Wrzesniewski (2013)’s call to incorporate employee motives in the job crafting concept, since motives are argued to be
one of the most important personal characteristics that guide job crafting efforts. This will be done by examining the effects of self-regulated power motivation at the explicit and implicit levels motivation on one of the job crafting dimensions (increasing challenging job demands) in a sample of Lebanese nurses. Self-regulated power motivation is conceptualized as a subtype of the power motive, which reflects the need to assert one’s self, make decisions, and express emotions, staying calm in the face of conflict, and understanding and properly dealing with negative emotions (Winter, 1991). This need in particular can be realized by changing one’s situation and staying calm in the face of adversity (Baumann & Kuhl, 2020; Winter, 1973). We also investigate how the relationship between implicit and explicit self-regulated power motivation and job crafting influences work engagement and job satisfaction as outcomes.

**Increasing Challenging Job Demands and Self-regulation**

Using the job demands-resources theory (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), Tims and Bakker (2010) defined job crafting in terms of shaping job demands and job resources. Accordingly, they divided job crafting into two dimensions that revolve around crafting resources (increasing structural and social job resources) and two that revolve around crafting job demands (increasing challenging job demands and decreasing hindering job demands) (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). In this study we focus on one of the demands crafting dimensions (increasing challenging job demands) as the dynamic between job demands and amount of control that employees have at work has strong theoretical underpinnings (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003; Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Karasek, 1979). Although not explicitly stated, control falls under the umbrella of power motivation (controlling and influencing others), which is the core focus of this paper. The power motive is conceptualized as “a desire to influence, control, or impress others and, as a corollary, to receive acclaim or at least recognition
for these power-motivated behaviors” (Fodor, 2010, p. 3). The need for power or the power motive is most relevant for job crafting, especially since individuals are motivated to take initiative if they think that by doing so, they will gain control over the situation (Frese & Fay, 2001). We include in our investigation one of the approach job crafting job dimensions, since the they have shown promising results in research so far (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017).

Increasing challenging job demands fall under the approach component of job crafting and are driven by an approach orientation (Bipp & Demerouti, 2015; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). The job crafting dimension of increasing challenging job demands revolves around expanding one’s job by taking on more tasks. Examples of this behavior are volunteering to take on new projects, doing extra tasks at work, and keeping abreast of work-related updates. Engaging in challenging job demands creates opportunities for growth and development (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000) and a problem-focused coping mindset in employees (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010). Individuals who engage in this job crafting dimension focus on positive outcomes, are eager to expand their abilities, and know that they can handle more workload (Gorman, Yu, & Alamgir, 2010). Such an orientation requires a considerable amount of self-regulation. Bakker and Oerlemans (2019) argued that job crafting, in general, requires significant self-regulation. Motives are highly relevant for self-regulation; however, and it is still unclear how the self-regulated enactment of motives relates to job crafting.

The Dual-motives System

Motivation is conceptualized as a cognitive operation that is guided by two processes (Kuhl, 2000; McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2010;
Woike, 2008): one that is explicit (conscious) and another that is implicit (unconscious). Though they both determine human motivation, explicit and implicit motives are statistically unrelated (e.g., Baumann, Kaschel, & Kuhl, 2005; Hofer, Busch, Bond, Li, & Law, 2010; Spangler, Tikhomirov, Sotak, & Palrecha, 2014), but function in parallel (McClelland et al., 1989). Ample evidence supports how different explicit and implicit motives are. For example, according to McClelland et al. (1989), implicit motives predict long-term spontaneous behavior, while explicit motives predict planned short-term behavior (e.g., Aydinli, Bender, Chasiotis, Cemalcilar, & Van de Vijver, 2014). Explicit and implicit motives also differ in terms of their developmental origins: implicit motives develop early in life through preverbal interactions with parents, explicit motives develop later in life through verbally mediated learning (McClelland et al., 1989; McClelland & Pilon, 1983). Additionally, explicit motives are sensitive to social-extrinsic incentives, while implicit motives are more sensitive to emotional-internal cues (Baumann, Kazén, & Kuhl, 2010; Bender, Woike, Burke, & Dow, 2012). Unlike implicit motives, explicit motives are accessible in the form of clearly communicated values (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; McClelland et al., 1989; Schultheiss, 2001). Explicit motives are usually measured using self-report tools, while implicit motives are measured using projective tools, since they are not consciously accessible to individuals (Chasiotis, 2015; McClelland et al., 1989).

Job crafting is a planned type of coping behavior (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2008) demonstrated in an organizational setting that is usually bordered by external incentives and expectations. This indicates that it is predicted by explicit rather than implicit motives, since the first predict planned, incentive-driven, short-term behaviors (McClelland, 1985a; McClelland et al., 1989). Individuals who score higher on the explicit and implicit power motivation are more
likely to volunteer to help their colleagues or to decide to enroll in an online course to help them develop a certain skill. This will allow them to influence others and ultimately their own work.

Increasing Challenging Job Demands and Explicit Integrative Power Motivation

Different individuals seek to satisfy their explicit power motivation in different manners. One of the explicit power motivation facets that revolves around self and emotion-regulation is explicit integrative power. This facet of explicit power motivation views the person as an active component of emotion-regulation (Baumann & Kuhl, 2020). Being on this level of explicit motivation makes individuals less hesitant to take action and allows them to acknowledge the personal difficulties they are facing (Kuhl, 2000; Roth & Assor, 2010, 2012; Roth et al., 2018; Rothermund, Voss, & Wentura, 2008). Employees scoring high on this explicit power motivation facet might increase their challenging job demands in order to take control of their jobs and avoid feelings of alienation from it. Accordingly, we hypothesize that explicit integrative power motivation has a direct effect on increasing challenging job demands.

\[ H1: \text{Explicit integrative power motivation is positively related to increasing challenging job demands.} \]

Motive Congruence and Increasing Challenging Job Demands

Goal directed behavior usually takes place as a function of an explicit (conscious) path governed by cognitive processes, and another that is implicit (unconscious) based on affective processes. Though they both determine human motivation independently (e.g., Baumann et al., 2005; Hofer et al., 2010; McClelland et al., 1989), they can sometimes align and become congruent. Motives are said to be congruent, when explicit and implicit motives direct towards the same incentives are both strong (Thrash & Elliot, 2002). For example, individuals who score high on implicit prosocial power motivation, but low on explicit prosocial power motivation
might be involved in spontaneous acts of help but fail to organize their lives in ways that might allow them to capitalize on their prosocial motivation (see Aydinli et al., 2014).

To investigate the relationship between motive congruence and the job crafting dimension of increasing challenging job demands, we measure the implicit counterpart of explicit integrative power motivation: implicit self-regulated power motivation. This facet of implicit power motivation is characterized by the tendency to approach situations even though they might be challenging and possibly result in negative emotions (Kuhl & Scheffer, 2001b). Individuals who score high on this power motivation facet are equipped with a flexible, and creative way of coping with threats related to their power (Baumann & Kuhl, 2020). Individuals who score high on the implicit self-regulated power motive have higher self-regulatory abilities and can cope with their negative emotions and adapt their behaviors effectively in order to regain or maintain power.

Explicit and implicit motive congruence facilitates progress towards goals that are emotionally relevant which results in individuals experiencing positive affect (Brunstein, Schultheiss, & Grässman, 1998). Positive affect is particularly conducive to proactive behaviors, such as job crafting because it leads to more flexible cognitive processes as well as feeling energized (Parker & Wu, 2014), can help improve flexible thinking (Derryberry & Tucker, 1994; Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) and shifts the attention of individuals to new possibilities and opportunities rather than limitations (Kimchi, 1992), which in turn can facilitate job crafting. Therefore, our second hypothesis is the following:

\[ H2: \text{Implicit self-regulated power motivation strengthens the positive effect of explicit integrative power motivation on increasing challenging job demands.} \]

Motive-congruence and Positive Work Outcomes
Ample research has supported the positive influence that motive congruence has on wellbeing and health (Brunstein et al., 1998; Hofer & Chasiotis, 2003; Thrash, Cassidy, Maruskin, & Elliot, 2010). However, little is known about its influence on work-related outcomes such as work-engagement and job satisfaction. Job crafting has been shown to be related to work engagement concurrently (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2005) and over time (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). A meta-analysis by Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) provide evidence that challenging job demands are positively associated with work engagement. We argue that individuals who score high on implicit self-regulated and explicit integrative power motivation and who engage in increasing challenging job demands will most likely experience high work engagement (H3.a).

Previous research has empirically demonstrated the relationship between work engagement and job satisfaction (e.g., Beek, Taris, Schaufeli, & Brenninkmeijer, 2013). Accordingly, we expect to find similar relationships and hypothesize that work engagement is positively related to job satisfaction (H3.b) and that nurses who score high on self-regulated power motivation at the implicit level and integrative power motivation at the explicit level (motive congruence/interaction) and who engage in increasing challenging job demands, are more likely to have higher work engagement and as a result have higher job satisfaction (H3.c).

Job satisfaction has also been shown to be linked to job crafting as a single construct and to its dimensions (for a review, check Rudolph et al., 2017). Through job crafting, employees shape their demands and resources to satisfy their needs and preferences and increase their job satisfaction (De Beer, Tims, & Bakker, 2016). Moreover, a metaanalysis by Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine (2007) indicated that challenging job demands were positively related to job
satisfaction. Accordingly, we will hypothesize a direct positive relationship between increasing challenging job demands and job satisfaction \((H3.d)\).

**Method**

**Sample and Procedure**

This study was conducted among a sample of nurses working in urban, rural, public, and private hospitals in Lebanon. After receiving ethical approval from the researcher’s institution in Lebanon and the Netherlands (reference numbers: OSB.LD.23/SBS-2017-0519 and EC-2017.EX54), we collected data from 482 nurses from 18 hospitals across Lebanon. The questionnaires were administered in Arabic after careful scale adaptation process conducted by bilingual researchers who are familiar with the language and culture (van de Vijver & Leung, 2000). The participants who took part in the study were enrolled in a draw. For every 50 participants, a draw for two $25 and one $50 prizes was held. Moreover, the participants were informed that for every survey collected, 1 US Dollar will be donated to the Children’s Cancer Center of Lebanon (CCCL) and accordingly $500\(^1\) were donated to the CCCL. The survey distribution plan went as follows: we first agreed with the hospitals on the number of surveys that they would be willing to distribute, and then delivered the agreed upon number of surveys. The 500 surveys that we distributed, we received 482 back (response rate: 96.4\%). The demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1.

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\(^1\) This amount was specified prior to data collection and was based on the number of surveys that were distributed.
Table 1

**Demographic Characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic - Mean (SD)</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>79.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age - 32.01 (8.17)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>28.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;40</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Nurse</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>73.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical Nurse</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other nursing positions</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Nursing</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baccalaureate(^a) Technical (BT) in Nursing</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technique Supérieure(^b) (TS) in Nursing</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>License Technique(^b) (LT) in Nursing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Sciences (BS) in Nursing</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters (MS) in Nursing</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Tenure - 8.66 (7.28)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>33.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5-10 years</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>25.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>21.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position Tenure - 7.65 (6.40)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>39.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5-10 years</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>26.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>18.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20 years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.89%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. a. Equivalent to the last year of high school.
b. Technical degrees. Some numbers are less than 360 due to missing values.
Measures

**Increasing challenging job demands.** This job crafting sub-scale was measured using a scale that we adapted from the widely used scale by Tims et al. (2012). We developed this scale as part of a larger project on distinguishing instrumental and affective qualities of job crafting (see supplemental material). The items under this sub-scale were adapted in a manner that gears them more towards the explicit motivational system, which is strongly influenced by social norms and interactions by highlighting their instrumentality (Koestner, Weinberger, & McClelland, 1991; McClelland, 1985a). We added an anticipation of a reward such as getting a promotion or attaining a desirable position at work. The final scale consisted of five items, example items are “When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects to enhance my abilities” and “When an interesting project comes along, I proactively offer myself to enhance my portfolio/resume”. All items were scored on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often)).

**Implicit Self-regulated Power Motivation.** We measure implicit motives using the Operant Motive Test (OMT; Kuhl, 2013; Kuhl & Scheffer, 1999; see Figure 1), which is inspired by the classical Thematic Apperception Test (TAT; Morgan & Murray, 1935). The TAT has been shown to be a reliable and valid method to measure implicit motives (Schultheiss & Pang, 2007; Slabbinck, De Houwer, & Van Kenhove, 2013). The OMT allows us to study motives and the way individuals realize them concurrently (Kuhl & Scheffer, 1999). It expands the classical distinction between approach and avoidance and further delineates four approach components and one avoidance component for each motive based on a matrix that has the two affective sources of motivation (positive and negative) crossing with self-regulated versus incentive-focused regulatory processes (Baumann et al., 2010). The OMT we used consisted of 12 pictures
portraying individuals in vague situations. Participants are first asked to choose a main character, and answer the following questions related to this main protagonist: “What is important for the person in this situation and what is he/she doing?”, “What are the person’s feelings?”, and “Why does the person feel this way?”. The Operant Motives Test has two main advantages over other variants of the TAT. First, the respondents are asked to provide shorter answers compared to stories as in the TAT, which makes it faster for the respondents answer and for the coders to code. Second, the OMT introduces five additional levels of emotional valence related to the three main motives (Affiliation, Achievement, and Power), which provides further differentiation in affect between participants (Kuhl, 2013; Kuhl & Scheffer, 2001a).

Figure 1. Examples of OMT pictures
Note. Participants were asked to answer three open questions “What is important for the person in this situation and what is he/she doing?”, “What are the person’s feelings?”, and “Why does the person feel this way?” (Kuhl & Scheffer, 1999)

The OMT coding procedure starts by checking for the presence of motive imagery (affiliation, achievement, power), otherwise, a “zero” is coded, indicating no motive imagery. After determining the motive content, the coder determines the realization of this motive according to the five enactment strategies (Kuhl & Scheffer, 1999). If approach behavior is present, then the coder uses levels 1 to 4, if avoidance behavior is present, the coder uses level 5. This last level is a combination of negative affect and passivity. The next step is to check for the affect that is guiding this behavior. Levels one and two are guided by positive affect, with level one being intrinsically driven and self-regulated, and the second level being more incentive driven. The third and fourth levels are guided by negative affect, with the third level describing a more self-regulatory way of coping with negative emotions, and the fourth level an incentive-driven way to reduce negative affect (Baumann et al., 2010; Kuhl & Scheffer, 1999; Kuhl, Scheffer, & Eichstaedt, 2003). The fifth level describes being overpowered by negative affect like fear, guilt, or loneliness that hinders self-regulatory abilities (Kuhl, 2001). For the purpose of our investigation, we focused on the third level of the power motivation in the OMT. Coding the answers was conducted by the first author who is bilingual (English, Arabic), and underwent coding training with the second author until the percentage of agreement between the trainer and the trainee reached more that 80%.

Explicit Integrative Power Motivation. To measure explicit motives, we used the integrative power subscale from the Motive Enhancement Test (MET; Kuhl, 1999) since it portrays power in a proactive manner. This sub-scale comprises four items to which the participants were asked to rate the extent to which the statements apply to them on a four-point
Likert scale ranging from 1 = applies not at all 4 = applies completely. Example items are “I feel that most of the time I can speak my mind” and “During arguments, I can often think of ways to get the other person to agree with me”. A total score of integrative power motivation was calculated by using the mean score of these items.

**Work Engagement.** To measure work engagement, we used the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). The UWES is a 17-item self-report instrument that measures the three subdimensions of work engagement: dedication, absorption, and vigor. Examples of items include “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” and “I find the work that I do full of purpose and meaning”. Participants answered using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from (0) “never” to (6) “every day”.

**Job Satisfaction.** In order to measure job satisfaction, we used the three-item scale developed by Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2013). Example items are “I am satisfied with my current work” and “Generally speaking, I’m really satisfied with my job”. Participants were asked to respond using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

**Results**

For the purpose of the analysis, we first excluded 119 participants, since they had more than three missing values in the implicit motives measure (out of 12). We then removed three more participants, since they had surveys with missingness rates higher than 25%, to reduce bias (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The final sample size of the study was 360.

Before testing the hypotheses of the study, we report on the construct validity of the scales that we use. Using Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), we checked the structure of explicit integrative power motivation, increasing challenging job demands, work engagement,
and job satisfaction stands. We then move on to testing the hypothesized relationships between the variables. We first test for the direct effects of implicit self-regulated and explicit integrative power motivation on increasing challenging job demands, then we check whether there was an interaction effect using moderation analysis. Finally, we test a model that includes the hypothesized direct and indirect relationships between implicit/explicit motive interaction as the antecedent, increasing challenging job demands as the mediator, and work engagement and job satisfaction as outcome variables. The results are explained below.

**Step 1: Assessing the reliability and validity of the scales**

When assessing the reliability scores of the scales, all of them had good reliability scores (ranging from 0.79 to 0.94) except for the explicit integrative power motivation scale ($\alpha = 0.443$; for discussion, see limitations section). We then ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) per each scale used in this study. The model fit was evaluated using Chi-square tests, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). All the subscales had satisfactory model fit information (see Table 2).

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CFA Model Fit Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Challenging Job Demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Integrative Power Motivation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $\chi^2$ = Chi-squared; df = Degrees of Freedom; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker Lewis index; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = The Bayesian information criterion.*

**Step 2: Structural Equation Model**
Based on the codes generated from the OMT, we used the score of the third level of the implicit power motive (implicit self-regulated power). This score is binary, which means that “1” indicates that the participant had at least one implicit self-regulated power code, while “0” indicates that the participant has none. Descriptive statistics for the outcome variable “increasing challenging job demands” showed that the distribution is relatively normally distributed, since it was approximately within the -0.5 and 0.5 range (skewness = -0.45). Hence, we did not transform the data. Descriptive information is presented in Table 3.

For the purpose of this analysis and in order to test our hypotheses, we used structural equation modeling (SEM) (Byrne, 2010) on Mplus. This allowed us to model the relationships between the variables in the study and test for the main effects and the interaction effects. We
tested the theoretical model (model a. in Figure 2). All the variables in the model were observed ones that predict the items. The interaction between explicit integrative power motivation and implicit self-regulated power motivation was modeled as one observed variable in the model. The model had direct pathways between all the variables: interaction variable, increasing challenging job demands, work engagement (as one factor) and job satisfaction. We also tested for indirect effects through work engagement and increasing challenging job demands on job satisfaction.

The results indicated that the model fit the data very well ($\chi^2 (6, N=288) = 9.013; p = .173$, RMSEA = .042, 90% CI:.000, .094, CFI = .988, TLI = .975, AIC = 1938.729, BIC = 1982.685). Figure 2, model b. shows the resulting empirical model where the relationships and their estimates are displayed. Results revealed a significant positive direct effect of explicit integrative power motivation on increasing challenging demands ($\beta = .18, p = .04$), and a non-significant direct effect from implicit self-regulated power on increasing challenging demands ($\beta = .09, p = .09$). As hypothesized, there was a significant interaction effect on increasing challenging job demands ($\beta = .16, p = .03$). Simple slope analysis (see Figure 3) showed that implicit self-regulated power motivation strengthens the positive relationship between explicit integrative power motivation and increasing challenging job demands. This indicates that congruence between explicit integrative power motivation and implicit self-regulated power motivation promotes the engagement in increasing challenging job demands.
Figure 3. Level of Increasing Challenging Job Demands and its relationship with the association between explicit and implicit power motivation.

Note. POW= Power Motivation; Integ.= Integrative.

According to the model b. shown in Figure 2, there was a significant relationship between increasing challenging job demands and work engagement ($\beta =.49, p=.00$), and work engagement and job satisfaction ($\beta =.63, p=.00$). However, there was no significant relationship between increasing challenging job demands and job satisfaction ($\beta =.05, p=.36$). The results also indicated that there was an indirect effect of the motivational interaction on work engagement through increasing challenging job demands ($\beta =.08, p=.03$). Moreover, there was a
**Figure 2.** Theoretical and Empirical Models

*Notes.* Model fit information: ($\chi^2 (2, N = 288) = 6.291; p = .043$, RMSEA = .086, 90% CI: .013, .166, CFI = .983, TLI = .948, AIC = 1941.288, BIC = 1977.918). The dashed arrow indicates a non-significant pathway.

**d.** The interaction term between implicit self-regulated power motivation and explicit integrative power motivation.

**** $p < .001$.  

**Notes.** Model fit information: ($\chi^2 (2, N = 288) = 6.291; p = .043$, RMSEA = .086, 90% CI: .013, .166, CFI = .983, TLI = .948, AIC = 1941.288, BIC = 1977.918). The dashed arrow indicates a non-significant pathway.

d. The interaction term between implicit self-regulated power motivation and explicit integrative power motivation.
significant indirect effect of the motivational interaction on job satisfaction through increasing challenging job demands and work engagement ($\beta = .05, p = .03$). Finally, there was a significant indirect effect of increasing challenging job demands on job satisfaction through work engagement ($\beta = .31, p = .00$). These results are discussed below.

**Discussion**

In this study we set out to understand the motivational story behind job crafting that has been argued to be a proactive work behavior driven to satisfy basic human needs and motives (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). We combined theoretical approaches from the fields of motivation (McClelland, 1985a) and work behavior (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), to enhance our understanding of the relationship between motivation and the shaping of job demands at work. Our results confirm how unconscious motives can serve as antecedents of job crafting, and therefore add to the findings on the relationship between individual differences and job crafting (see, Rudolph et al., 2017).

The results indicated that explicit integrative power motivation had a positive and direct effect on increasing challenging job demands and that this effect was amplified when congruent implicit self-regulated power motivation was high. As hypothesized, increasing challenging job demands fully mediated the relationship between motive congruence and work engagement which was ultimately related to job satisfaction.

**Increasing Challenging job demands and Self-regulated implicit and explicit motivation**

Although taking on challenging tasks might overwhelm the employee and deplete his or her energy, successfully completing those challenges can make them feel in control. However, not everyone is able to approach challenging tasks in a comfortable and mature manner. The results of the study indicate that mature power motive realization (self-regulated and integrative)
at both the explicit and implicit level influence the manner by which employees choose to shape their jobs in order to make it better matching with their needs and preferences. Explicit integrative power motivation helps individuals overcome challenges. Our results show that individuals who score high on explicit integrative power motivation are more likely to increase their challenging job demands and that this effect becomes stronger when they also have high implicit self-regulated power motivation. This finding is in line with the channeling hypothesis (Bing, LeBreton, Davison, Migetz, & James, 2007; Brunstein & Maier, 2005; Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998). According to the channeling hypothesis, there are many ways in which implicit dispositions can be expressed and that explicit dispositions shape and channel the manner by which implicit dispositions are expressed in behavior.

This investigation provides empirical evidence supporting the relationship between self-regulation and job crafting. Although we do not separately assess self-regulatory abilities, they are included, since the OMT measures the extent to which self-regulatory processes are incorporated into motive representations within the self (Baumann & Kuhl, 2020). Bakker and de Vries (2020) argued that job crafting is a form of self-regulated adaptive work behavior that employees engage in that can serve as a buffer against burnout. Our results suggest that self-regulated motive enactment at the explicit and implicit levels is conducive for increasing challenging job demands. We also provide insight into this buffering mechanism as motive-congruence was found to enhance work engagement through job crafting.

**Increasing Challenging job demands and Motive Congruence**

Our results indicate that when implicit and explicit power motivation are congruently directed towards achieving the same goals (Brunstein, 2018; Brunstein & Maier, 2005), i.e. when employees are able to deal with their emotions in a mature manner at work, and they are also
implicitly driven to cope with negative situations at work, individuals are more likely to increase their challenging job demands. Motive-congruence promotes the experience of positive affect (Brunstein et al., 1998), which can promote flexible thinking (Derryberry & Tucker, 1994; Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) that is focused on new possibilities and opportunities rather than limitations (Kimchi, 1992). In specific, self-regulation facilitates problem solving that is directed towards reducing the gap between the current state of the individual and a desired state (Karoly, 1993). Being constantly engaged at work and is a state of activation is very desired at work. According to the activation theory (Scott, 1966), individuals are motivated to maintain their level of activation by engaging in behaviors that stimulate them in various contexts (Fiske & Maddi, 1961). Scott (1966) added that the complexity of the task being performed increases the activation effect it has on the individual. With self-regulated motive congruence as a prerequisite, employees engage in job crafting behaviors, namely, increasing challenging job demands, to boost their level of activation at work and as a result feel more engaged and satisfied (see also: van Hooff & van Hooft, 2014; van Tilburg & Igou, 2012).

**Increasing Challenging Job Demands and Work Engagement**

Ample evidence supports the positive influence that congruence between the explicit and implicit motive systems has on health and wellbeing (Brunstein et al., 1998; Hofer & Chasiotis, 2003; Hofer, Chasiotis, & Campos, 2006; Schüler, Baumann, Chasiotis, Bender, & Baum, 2019; Thrash et al., 2010). In this study, we extend this finding by empirically showing that motive congruence has positive influence beyond the personal lives of individuals to enhance their work motivation and satisfaction. Employees who feel that their jobs are congruent with their views of themselves tend to feel more engaged at work (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). In most cases, these views are better represented in unconscious systems that we do not have direct access to
and giving them the chance to be channeled through conscious systems and relevant behaviors can yield positive outcomes. Through job crafting, employees align their jobs with their needs and preferences, which in turn increases their work engagement (Bakker et al., 2012). We also show that personal resources such as motive congruence have a role in enhancing work engagement and ultimately increase job satisfaction among employees. This adds to the evidence on the widely supported benefits of congruence between the explicit and implicit motivational systems (for recent overviews, Chasiotis, Hofer, & Bender, 2021; Schüler et al., 2019).

Unlike what we expected and what previous research has shown, increasing challenging demands was not directly related to job satisfaction, however, it was linked to job satisfaction through work engagement. It might be the case that taking work motivation (work engagement) into account explains the underlying mechanism that links increasing challenging job demands to job satisfaction. Research has shown that stimulating and challenging job tasks positively influence employee motivation (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005), which in turn might influence job satisfaction. Our results include important theoretical and practical implications on the phenomenon of job crafting.

**Practical Implications**

Previous research has indicated that it is critically important to understand work engagement in nursing, the largest health professional group (Antoinette Bargagliotti, 2012). This is particularly important since recent research shows how work engagement can serve as a protective strategy against the psychological distress that healthcare professionals might be subjected to in critical situations characterized by uncertainty and the scarcity of resources, such as the COVID-19 pandemic (Gómez-Salgado et al., in press). Our results indicate that nurses who score high on implicit self-regulated power motivation, as measured by the OMT, are more
likely to engage in job crafting and as a result feel more engaged and satisfied at work.

Healthcare organizations can use the OMT to select nurses based on their implicit motives knowing that this would positively influence their wellbeing at work. Recently, there has been a call to generate more human resource management-centric literature on projective tests (Carter, Daniels, & Zickar, 2013). The fact that these tests can be time-consuming and expensive makes them not very practical to use (Rieger, 1949). However, some efforts can be made to make them more easily administered such as including multiple choice answers and using computer-based testing.

Limitations and future research directions

This study has some limitations that should be acknowledged. The first limitation of our research is that the scale that we used to measure explicit integrative power motivation had a low reliability in our sample, although it showed an adequate structure in our CFA. Many reasons could have contributed to the low reliability of this scale. First, we collected data from a sample of nurses from a non-WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) population (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010) using scales that were developed in a Western context, which might have influenced the psychometric properties of the scales. Many scales, such as this one, have been developed without ensuring that the constructs that were created in WEIRD populations are applicable in non-WEIRD contexts. Individuals from different cultural backgrounds have different experiences and assumptions that might cause them to interpret words and phrases, scale items, or sometimes the entire scale differently (He & van de Vijver, 2012; Leung & Van De Vijver, 2008; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). The alpha reported by the original developers of the scale was satisfactory (α=0.70) (Kuhl, 1999), however, it is at the lower limit of the acceptable range of internal consistency scores, therefore making its use in a
non-WEIRD sample more threatening to its internal consistency. The second reason is related to problems with the conditions that need to be satisfied for the Cronbach alpha to be an accurate estimation of reliability. One of those conditions is unidimensionality, which is when the item responses are independent after controlling for a single latent factor (Reise, Morizot, & Hays, 2007) or when all the items load unto a single factor in a factor analysis. The problem with this condition is that in social sciences, item response matrices are rarely perfectly unidimensional (Reise et al., 2007). The complexity of the constructs being measured makes it necessary to enrich the content of the items being used to better capture the construct (Reise et al., 2007; Teo & Fan, 2013), which might influence the unidimensionality of the scale. For example, the developers of the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann Jr, 2003) claimed they sacrificed the internal consistency of their inventory and sought to maximize content validity and breadth of coverage, while avoiding redundancy. Thus, it is not surprising that the TIPI has an internal consistency lower that other similar tools (Romero, Villar, Gómez-Fraguela, & López-Romero, 2012). The third reason is that the low reliability score might be related to the length of the scale as it is a short four-item scale. Kline (2013) has questioned the use of the alpha coefficient for very short scales and some authors have suggested that low reliability scores are expected in short scales (Sprecher et al., 1994). In extreme cases, such as single-item scales, traditional tools that rely on internal consistency cannot be adopted and are therefore not presented (Cheung & Lucas, 2014). Cronbach’s can be a problematic estimate of reliability for short scales, making their reliabilities lower (e.g., test–retest, internal consistency) than long scales, but still satisfactory (Ziegler, Kemper, & Kruyen, 2014). Future research should test the equivalence of this scale across samples that differ across socio-cultural characteristics.
The second limitation of the present research is that all the data were collected from a single source (i.e. the same individual filled out the entirely self-report survey), which makes it prone to common method variance. This might have inflated the observed correlations between the variables in our study artificially, might have limited our perspective and consequently the results and conclusions of this study. We partially addressed this issue by adopting a multimethod approach to assessing motive as we used a projective technique to measure implicit motives. Implicit measures have been shown to be more resistant to validity threats such as socially desirable answers (Carter et al., 2013; Uhlmann et al., 2012). Future research should however still try to incorporate multi-source data collection strategies that involve direct nursing supervisors and colleagues in order to get better-informed conclusions.

The third limitation related to this research is that although we included two outcome variables in this study (work engagement and job satisfaction), they were limited to job attitude and wellbeing. We did not collect further data, for instance on objective performance and absenteeism. Future research could replicate and extend our study by including data about the performance of nurses to investigate the influence of motive-congruence on actual performance.

The final limitation is that our study is cross-sectional by design, which prevents us from making clear conclusions about the directionality of the relationships between the variables. Although we argue that motive congruence can serve as prerequisite for engaging in increasing challenging job demands, it might also be the case that engaging in this job crafting dimension is a self-regulatory strategy that enhances motive congruence (Brunstein, 2001; Thrash & Elliot, 2002). Moreover, it might also be possible that nurses who feel engaged at work increase their challenging job demands, and as a result enhance the alignment between their implicit and
explicit motives. Future research should adopt a longitudinal design to investigate the relationships in our study over time in order to make more informed conclusions.

**Conclusion**

Our study expanded the evidence available in the literature on how employees can influence their work environments to make them better matching with their needs and preferences. Our results indicate that employees who score high on explicit integrative power motivation are more likely to engage in increasing challenging job demands at work and that this relationship becomes stronger when implicit self-regulated power motivation is high. We also show how increasing challenging job demands mediates the relationship between the congruence between implicit self-regulated and explicit power motivation and work engagement that is consequently positively linked to job satisfaction. Employees have a lot of influence on their jobs, however, those who know that they can cope with negative emotions and scenarios should they arise are the ones who are more likely to increase their challenging job demands at work. They are even better able to cope when their unconscious motives are aligned with this ability to regulate negative emotions and overcome them. Taking on challenging job demands and successfully completing them allows individuals to feel more engaged at work and eventually more satisfied with their jobs. In the nursing context, this benefits the work wellbeing of the nurses, which also enhances patient care.
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