Job Crafting as Means to Live out One's Calling: An Examination of NPO Employees

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Abstract

Employees increasingly search for jobs in which they can pursue their preferences and interests – more precisely, their callings. Those pursuing their callings are assumed to be more satisfied with their job and to perform better. To provide more insight into this topic, this study examines the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction by actively pursuing the calling. However, it has not yet been extensively analyzed how employees can convert the perception of a calling at work into actually living it out. This question can possibly be explained by the emerging phenomenon called job crafting. Employees engaging in job crafting techniques might change their work environment in order to be able to live out their calling. Therefore, this study investigated the role of job crafting as moderator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling as well as in the relationship between living a calling and job satisfaction. The model was tested in a context of nonprofit organizations using a sample of 300 employees and a cross-sectional study design. Data was collected with an online survey for a period of three weeks and analyzed with IBM SPSS PROCESS by means of OLS regression analysis. Living a calling was found to be a full mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction. The variables scope of action, employment relationship, and gender are also significantly related to job satisfaction. Against expectations, job crafting does not show any of the two moderating effects but was found to be a partial mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling.

Keywords: Calling; job crafting; job satisfaction; nonprofit organizations.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem

Nowadays, people expect more from their work than mere financial rewards - they are searching for meaningful work where they are allowed to pursue their personal interests and preferences (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). According to Wrzesniewski (2003), employees who seek meaning and purpose at work and who weigh monetary outcomes less, consider work as a *calling*. Calling is understood as "an approach to work that reflects seeking a sense of overall purpose and meaning and is used to help others or to contribute to the common good, motivated by an external summons" (Duffy, Dik, Douglass, England, & Velez, 2018, p. 426). While the motivation by an external summons refers to religious callings provided by God, this study focuses on secular callings which emerge within an individual and do not result from divine advice (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Dik & Duffy, 2007; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Horvath, 2015; Steger, Pickering, Shin, & Dik, 2010).

Aligned with the presented definition, a secular calling or meaningful work can be seen in either an act of social contribution or simply in the execution of a specific task an individual enjoys performing. Employees of nonprofit organizations (NPOs) are assumed to have a sense of secular calling for social contribution because the organizations they work for already follow a social purpose. However, a high number of tasks to be done in NPOs are administrative tasks, as in for-profit companies, which individuals might not enjoy to perform and which do not immediately satisfy employees' aspiration to help others (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010a). Therefore, it cannot be said with certainty that the mere social purpose of a nonprofit organization completely fulfills their employees' calling. This will be subject of the subsequent analyses.

Pursuing a calling has positive outcomes for individuals and organizations. Besides merely the personal enjoyment of individuals, pursuing a calling also contributes to the achievement of the overall organizational goals. Therefore,

previous studies evaluated the relationship between callings and outcomes such as work commitment and job satisfaction (Chen, May, Schwoerer, & Augelli, 2017; Choi, Cho, Jung, & Sohn, 2017; Duffy, Allan, & Bott, 2012a), which in turn increase job performance (Kim, Shin, Vough, Hewlin, & Vandenberghe, 2018). Knowing about this positive relationship, pursuing a calling at work may positively affect both employee well-being and organizational performance (Choi et al., 2017; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Kim et al., 2018).

Drawing on the positive consequences of pursuing a calling at work, this study aims to examine whether employees in NPOs do actually live out their calling. Moreover, it is worth analyzing whether employees actively change their work environment to facilitate the living of their calling. So far, it has not been sufficiently determined whether employees design or restructure their jobs in order to live out their calling at work. This may be influenced by a recently emerged phenomenon called job crafting. Job crafting can be defined as "self-initiated change behaviors that employees engage in with the aim to align their jobs with their own preferences, motives, and passions" (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012, p. 173). Thus, it is assumed that employees of NPOs see job crafting as an opportunity to design their job according to their personal preferences and passions which foster the living of their calling.

1.2. Objective

Until now, most research has analyzed respondents who already live their calling and was therefore focused on the examination of the outcomes resulting from living a calling (Choi et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2018). Research on the predictors of living a calling is rather scarce. For that reason, this study analyzes whether employees in organizations adapt their behavior at work to move from the perception of a calling to its living. This relationship is part of a theoretical framework on calling developed by Duffy et al. (2018) (WTC, Appendix 1) which requires further empirical examination. The step from perceiving a calling to living a calling at work might be reached through redesigning a job. Employees who perceive a calling feel an intuition to adapt their work environment so that they can finally live out their perceived calling. Such influencing of the work environment by an employee is called job crafting (Tims et al., 2012).

Most research has so far focused on the detection of concrete job crafting techniques which can be applied at work (Berg et al., 2010a; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, job crafting has not yet been exhaustively associated with possible outcomes. Only Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2015) examined the relationship between job crafting and job performance. Therefore, the indirect influence of job crafting on job satisfaction is investigated in this study. The relationship is tested using a sample of NPO employees. It is assumed that employees of NPOs choose this workplace because of their wish to make a social impact. They may even accept lower wages than employees in for-profit organizations do (Benz, 2005). Although callings and job crafting techniques were

analyzed in different occupations and activity fields, NPOs have not yet been fully represented within this scope of research.

To sum up, two research gaps are addressed. First, research about the process of how employees transcend from perceiving a calling to living a calling at work is complemented. This is assumed to happen through employees' engagement in job crafting techniques and the adaption of their work environment. Second, job satisfaction is proposed as another outcome variable of job crafting. Moreover, research on calling and job crafting is broadened with the analysis of NPOs. To fill these two gaps and using the interesting sample of NPOs in the realm of callings and job crafting, the following research question is proposed: *In how far does job crafting influence the relationship between calling and job satisfaction in NPOs?* A cross-sectional study design is used to answer this question.

1.3. Procedure

Including this chapter, the present work is comprised of six chapters. In the second chapter, the combination of latest research with psychological theories lays the foundation for the development of the research hypotheses. The current research state of the concepts of calling, job crafting, and job satisfaction are introduced. Moreover, calling and job crafting are presented with glance to relevant psychological theories explaining the origin of human motivation. While calling is justified through the self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (1985), job crafting is put in context of a traditional job design theory by Hackman and Oldham (1976). The hypotheses and the overall research model are developed in this chapter and determine further decisions regarding methodology introduced in the succeeding chapter.

Based on the background of relevant research and theory, chapter 3 covers the methodological aspects of the work. The research model is tested with a sample of NPO employees using a cross-sectional study design. Moreover, the data collection procedure is explained introducing the overall structure of the online questionnaire as well as the measures of the model variables in detail. On preparing the actual analysis, the data cleaning procedure and preliminary analyses are explained. The data analysis procedure is realized with the statistical software IBM SPSS. Each of the four subsections of this chapter is required to derive the inclusion criteria of the study, the final calculations and the results.

The methodology is followed by a display of results in chapter 4. The aim of this chapter is to outline the results of the statistical analysis with the SPSS macro PROCESS. First, the mediation effect of living a calling is analyzed. Second, the two moderation effects of job crafting are tested. Last, the complete moderated mediation model is examined. The chapter provides an outlook on the regression coefficients and other relevant values.

The results displayed in the previous chapter are discussed in chapter 5. They are interpreted and classified in line with the research state and psychological theories introduced in chapter 2. Derived from the findings, the practical

relevance for NPOs with regard to human resource strategies is evaluated. The chapter closes with a statement about the limitations of the presented study. Derived from those limitations, future research avenues are presented to drive research on calling and job crafting forward. The work closes with a summary of the most important aspects in chapter 6.

2. Theoretical-conceptual foundations

2.1. Calling and self-determination theory

Wrzesniewski (2003) distinguishes three work orientations which are helpful in understanding an employee's intention and motivation at work. Firstly, there are employees who regard work as a *job*. This reflects an employee's orientation toward monetary and material rewards. Secondly, work can be seen as *career* which describes an employee's wish for personal achievement and influence in the organization. Lastly, work can be used to fulfill a personal *calling*. Employees with such a work orientation strive to find a job where they can follow their personal interests and have the opportunity to make a social impact. Whereas work as a job reflects the traditional work orientation, employees increasingly search for work as a calling. The fulfillment of personal interests is becoming more important than it was in the past (Berg et al., 2010a). This explains the new and rising research on calling (Steger et al., 2010).

Research on calling initially started with the examination of religious callings. Religious callings can be understood as "a higher power [which] calls people to use their talents in service of others through their work lives" (Steger et al., 2010, p. 82). The higher power refers to the calling by God who provides people with an orientation for their choice of work. Such religious callings or job recommendations from God are mostly related to social jobs for the sake of needy people. Opposed to religious callings, recent research mainly focuses on a secular understanding of callings. The secular perspective on callings refers to an internal call from within an individual in contrast to the external call by God who provides divine advice. This approach concentrates more on meaning and purpose coming from inside an individual (Esteves & Lopes, 2016; Rosso et al., 2010). Thus, the work choice would be determined by an individual's personal inclination. The understanding of callings in this work complies with the secular perspective (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Steger et al., 2010).

Besides the studies on people with religious callings (Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015), callings have been evaluated more broadly in different occupations and activity fields. Musicians (Dobrow, 2013), animal care holders (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Schabram & Maitlis, 2017), touring circuses (Beadle, 2013), teachers (Rawat & Nadavulakere, 2015) or for-profit organizations (Chen et al., 2017; Hirschi, 2012) were subjects of analysis. However, until now, there is no consistent definition of a calling. Dobrow (2013) and Hirschi (2010) define calling as a personal passion and one's purpose in life. Elangovan, Pinder, and McLean (2010) emphasize the aspect of social impact to support needy people.

Others bring in a third component which describes the origin of a calling as internal or external call - the call from God (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Duffy et al., 2018). Although their definitions of calling differ from one another, their general understanding is similar. The majority of the researchers analyzed the actual living out of one's calling when they assess the phenomenon.

In contrast to the majority of researchers, Duffy et al. (2018) distinguish between perceiving a calling and living a calling in their calling framework (WCT, Appendix 1). While the former describes the mere detection of one's calling, the latter refers to the real action of living it out at work. Their differentiation is useful since the mere detection of a calling would not automatically imply that employees are able to live it. It is necessary to perceive a first impulse before individuals can search for jobs where they can pursue their calling. Thus, the living of a calling is guided by the initial perception of it, which determines the hypothesis that perceiving a calling predicts living a calling:

> **Hypothesis 1 (H1):** *Perceiving a calling is positively related to living a calling.*

The concept of calling can be better understood when looking at self-determination theory (SDT, Appendix 2). SDT by Deci and Ryan (1985) examines human motivation and behavior. It distinguishes between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as "doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71) and having freedom of choice (autonomy) about one's behavior. Extrinsic motivation describes the "performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71) such as rewards or feedback. Those two kinds of motivation reflect to what extent the regulation of the demanded behavior has been internalized by an individual. Extrinsic motivation is subdivided into four stages of regulation whereby the last stage signifies the highest degree of internalization and thus is very close to intrinsic motivation. Those two motivational processes stand opposed to amotivation whereby people do not feel any motivation at all (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Whereas employees with amotivation might not feel any sense of calling, intrinsically motivated employees are more likely to perceive a calling. Intrinsically motivated people show real "interest and enjoyment of the task" (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 336) which lays the foundation of what they will perceive as a calling. Thus, employees who pursue a calling hold intrinsic motivation due to the fact that they identify with their job very strongly. Moreover, employees with intrinsic motivation perceive challenges at work as rather positive and less stressful since they find meaning in their work regardless of the actual tasks to be done. Kuvaas (2008) also found that intrinsic motivation results in higher job performance of an individual. The same relationship was attributed to calling when Kim et al. (2018) found calling to be related to in-role performance. Therefore, the connection between calling or intrinsic motivation to performance is very close.

In addition to the motivational and behavioral processes described above, SDT proposes three innate psychological needs of people which must be satisfied to guarantee motivation. Unsatisfied needs would have negative effects on motivation and well-being of people. For that reason, people's behavior is guided and determined by the need for competence, need for autonomy, and need for relatedness (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The need for competence reflects people's desire to be able to manage specific tasks. The need for autonomy refers to people's wish for self-determination or freedom of choice which fosters intrinsic motivation. The need for relatedness describes the human desire for interaction with other people. Although those needs are innate and born, they can be developed over time through feedback of the social environment. Thus, the strength of each need is different for individuals, but they need to be fulfilled in the respective amount to foster motivation and mental health. Those three distinct needs are especially important with regard to the application of job crafting in chapter 2.3.

2.2. Job satisfaction

Previous research found that individuals with a calling are more pleased with their overall career and more satisfied with their specific job (Chen et al., 2017; Duffy, Allan, Autin, & Douglass, 2014; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015; Peterson, Park, Hall, & Seligman, 2009). The satisfaction with one's job is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). This pleasurable emotional state can be reached when individuals perceive a calling at work. This view in turn has positive effects on job and life satisfaction (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Duffy et al., 2012a) which leads to the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 2 (H2):** *Perceiving a calling is positively related to job satisfaction.*

The mere perception of a calling cannot result in the total amount of job satisfaction but is fostered by the actual living of the calling where employees are able to pursue their interests and desires. Duffy et al. (2014) examined living a calling and job satisfaction over three periods of time. They tested the relationship between living a calling and job satisfaction finding that it is a reciprocal one. Living a calling can have positive effects on people's health, gives meaning to their work and, as a consequence, makes them more satisfied with their work (Elangovan et al., 2010). Thus, being able to live out a calling might have a stronger effect on job satisfaction than the mere perception of a calling. The following hypothesis is developed to test whether the living of it is an indispensable mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction:

> **Hypothesis 3 (H3):** *Living a calling mediates the positive relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction.*

Job satisfaction does not only have positive consequences for employees' mental health but also for organizational outcomes. Satisfied employees seem to be good performers. Thus, living a calling is assumed to lead to job satisfaction and job satisfaction is assumed to lead to higher performance (Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001). Kim et al. (2018) found a similar relationship where callings led to higher organizational commitment which in turn increased in-role performance. Consequently, the increase of job satisfaction and job performance initiated by employees living their callings via diverse mediators has positive effects on organizations.

2.3. Job crafting and job design theory

Referring to the most essential statement of the previous chapter, living a calling has positive consequences for both employees and organizations. On the one hand, employees perceive their work as more meaningful and fulfilling which may increase their job satisfaction Chen et al. (2017). On the other hand, organizations benefit from satisfied and committed employees who are good performers (Judge et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2018). Based on this background knowledge, it is interesting to analyze how employees arrive exactly at the living of their calling at work. It is assumed that employees try to change their work environment according to personal interests and preferences which results in the fulfillment of their overall calling (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Employees who alter their work environment engage in an activity called job crafting. Job crafting can be defined as "self-initiated change behaviors that employees engage in with the aim to align their jobs with their own preferences, motives, and passions" (Tims et al., 2012, p. 173). Aligned with this definition, job crafting is different from traditional job design theories with regard to the initiator of changes in the work environment. While changes were initiated by managers in job design theories (top-down), employees themselves are the initiators of changes in the job crafting literature (bottom-up). Thus, a switch from top-town management to bottom-up activity is noticeable and job crafting techniques constitute a valuable complement to job design theories (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Tims et al., 2012).

Job design theories are concerned with organizing and structuring jobs in favor of both employees and organizations. They strive to understand which job characteristics lead to specific work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction or job performance. Hackman and Oldham (1976) combine aspects of motivation with those of structuring a job and propose the job characteristics model (Appendix 3). According to the model, there are five core job characteristics (called job dimensions) inducing three critical psychological states which finally lead to four personal and work-related outcomes. The five job characteristics are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Each of them contributes to the motivating potential of a job. Consequently, the more the job characteristics are met, the more

motivated employees are at their job. This leads to the respective psychological state and results in one or more of the following outcomes: work motivation, performance, satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover which are also examined in the calling and job crafting literature (Choi et al., 2017; Judge et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2018). The five job characteristics can be interpreted as possible influencing factors on general job settings and the work environment. Therefore, with the use of job crafting, employees actively structure and modify the characteristics of their job which increases their motivation.

There are different techniques to craft a job or modify the work environment. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) were among the first authors to propose a framework on how the work environment can be changed by an employee. They differentiate the following three techniques of job crafting: changing task, relational, and cognitive boundaries at work. Changing task boundaries refers to the number, scope, and type of tasks done at work which are changed by employees. Changing relational boundaries comprises the quality and number of interactions with others at work which will be adapted. Changing cognitive task boundaries describes how employees regard the job - viewing it either as a set of discrete work tasks or as an integrated whole.

The desire and motivation to engage in one of the three job crafting techniques stem from the basic psychological needs introduced with the SDT. The three needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence are universal and therefore meaningful to every person (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Nevertheless, the assigned weight to each of the needs can vary from time to time and from person to person - and so the engagement in job crafting varies too. People with a high need for relatedness are likely to engage in relational crafting to satisfy their desire for interaction and social belonging. Therefore, it can be also understood as a need for connection and interaction with others. People with a high need for competence will actively undertake task crafting techniques to broaden their knowledge and skills. They try to increase their competence for a job in order to master different situations occurring at work. Lastly, people with a high need for autonomy strive to act independently and being responsible for their decisions. The fulfillment of the other two needs also partially depend on the provision of autonomy. A low degree of autonomy at a job does not allow for adaptions in the work environment to fulfill the need for relatedness and competence (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019). These needs must be satisfied to guarantee intrinsic motivation of employees which fosters their fulfillment of their calling.

The three job crafting techniques described above were further developed by Berg et al. (2010a) who propose three techniques to craft a job and two techniques to craft leisure time. Their first two categories, task emphasizing and job expanding, are similar to task crafting. Task emphasizing refers to either changing the assigned task or giving more energy, time, or attention on the assigned tasks. Job expanding means that the assigned tasks are supplemented by ad-

ditional tasks which help to pursue a calling. Their third job crafting technique is role reframing which describes the alteration of a job in order to meet a social purpose necessary to fulfill one's calling. This goes along with relational crafting. Additionally, the authors present two forms of leisure crafting which are not relevant up to now.

With the described job crafting techniques in mind, employees may become the creators of meaningful jobs on their own. Each of these techniques supports aligning the work environment with one's personal perception of a calling. Since perceiving a calling does not necessarily imply that employees have the opportunity to live it out, job crafting might be a means "for those who 'fell into' a job that does not match their perceived calling" (Duffy et al., 2018, p. 429). Consequently, job crafting is tested to strengthen the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling which leads to the next hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 4 (H4):** *Job crafting moderates the positive relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling such that the relationship is stronger when people engage in job crafting techniques.*

Various studies propose that living a calling at work increases job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2017; Choi et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2012a). The extent to which a calling is fulfilled can vary among employees and over time. Dobrow (2013) found that "callings can cover the continuum from weak to strong" (p. 433), and thus the intensities of callings are distinct. It might result that the better a calling is fulfilled in an occupation, the higher the job satisfaction will be. Therefore, employees try to fulfill their calling as much as possible through engaging in job crafting. The more they engage in job crafting, the more likely they completely fulfill their calling and the higher their job satisfaction will be.

> **Hypothesis 5 (H5):** *Job crafting moderates the positive relationship between living a calling and job satisfaction such that the relationship is stronger when people engage in job crafting techniques.*

Derived from hypotheses 1–5, the last hypothesis and the research model (Figure 1) are proposed:

> **Hypothesis 6 (H6):** *Job crafting moderates the mediated relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction through living a calling such that the relationship is stronger when job crafting opportunities are given.*

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample

The influence of job crafting on the relationship between calling and job satisfaction was analyzed with a sample of
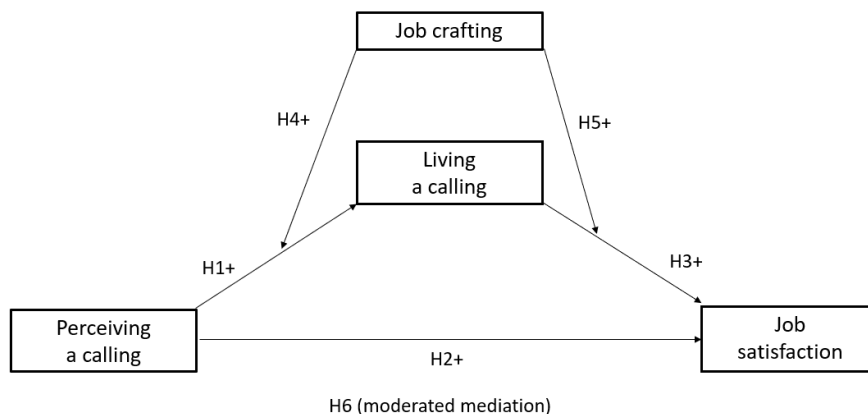
Figure 1: Hypothesized research model (Source: Own illustration based on Hayes, 2018)

nonprofit organizations. NPOs are characterized by their employees' wish for social contribution (Helmig, Ingerfurth, & Pinz, 2014). Because the desire for social contribution is also a very important aspect of calling, it is assumed that employees working in NPOs have a sense of calling. The sense of calling of NPO employees may explain why they are willing to accept lower salaries than employees of private firms (Benz, 2005). However, most tasks to be done in NPOs are administrative tasks where employees might not directly see their social impact. Therefore, it is assumed that they engage in job crafting to fulfill their need for social contribution. This is tested with the present study.

The online survey was addressed to paid employees of associations, foundations, social or public enterprises who were permanently employed and worked full-time, part-time or on a 450-euro tax base. While employees from small and huge organizations were interesting for this study, those from private firms and NPO volunteers were not relevant for the purpose of this study. Initial concerns that it would be difficult to reach permanent employees opposed to volunteers did not transpire. There was a participation rate of employees with permanent contracts because volunteers usually have no email address.

According to g-power analysis, 194 respondents from NPOs were required to adequately test the hypotheses. The sample size was calculated with an online tool developed by researcher from the Heinrich Heine university in Düsseldorf (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The statistical test was selected with regard to the future linear multiple regression analysis. Moreover, a rather small effect size of .08, an α error probability of .05, and a power of .95 were assumed. The analysis was run with two predictors because perceiving a calling and living a calling are both antecedents of job satisfaction. Due to the fact that seven control variables were included in the study, the final sample size needed to exceed the 194 cases what was met with the cleaned data set of 300 cases after only three weeks. The composition of the cases is explained in the subsequent section.

Around two-thirds of the participants were female ($N = 209$) and one-third was male ($N = 91$). The age ranged from 18 years to 66 years with an average age of 42 years. 48% of the participating employees worked in associations ($N = 143$), followed by employees working in social enterprises (31%, $N = 92$), foundations (14%, $N = 41$), public enterprises and others (8%, $N = 24$). Employees of NPOs had worked in their organization for an average of 9 years. Most of the respondents were full-time employed (57%, $N = 172$), many were part-time employed (38%, $N = 113$) and only a few belonged to the categories intern, working students, and marginal part-time work (5%, $N = 15$). The sample was well-educated with 82% having a university degree ($N = 245$). The respondents had an average scope of action of 5.6 on a 7-point Likert scale (Appendix 4).

3.2. Data collection and survey design

Online survey research was chosen to test the hypotheses. Cross-sectional data was collected because the various NPOs were observed at the same point in time (Bell, Bryman, & Harley, 2019; Fowler, 2014). Snowball sampling, a non-random sampling technique, was applied to reach as many members of the population as possible. This technique is used for hard-to-reach populations or minority populations (Handcock & Gile, 2011; Heckathorn, 2011). In total, 270 employees from 74 NPOs located all over Germany were contacted via email to increase representativeness of the study by excluding location factors. In large organizations, several people of different departments were contacted. A maximum number of 12 employees was contacted in each organization in order to reduce dominance of an organization. Moreover, associations, foundations, and social enterprises were contacted in equal numbers. 12 employees confirmed that they have spread the survey in their organization. Due to the fact that the initially contacted person holds a gatekeeper position to the final sample, very heterogeneous organizations were contacted.

The study was pretested by fifteen people who were friends and family as well as researchers from university. All

of them gave constructive feedback on structure or clarity of the questionnaire and helped to develop an understandable and methodologically clear study to avoid data collection errors due to difficult questioning or faulty construction of the questionnaire (Bell et al., 2019). Some corrections regarding the explanations of the calling scale, the ordering of the two calling scales, and a change of the job crafting scale from Tims et al. (2012) to Bindl et al. (2019) were undertaken.

As mentioned above, the data collection procedure led to an adjusted data set of 300 cases which provided answers to the following two sections of the questionnaire (Appendix 5). The first section of the questionnaire comprised 21 items of the four scales of perceiving a calling, living a calling, job satisfaction, and job crafting. The scales were translated from English into German using Brislin's (1970) method of back-translation. Following this method, a young woman who studied English language and literature translated the English items into German. Afterwards, a British man who is a German translator and has lived in Germany for 55 years retranslated the German items back into English comparing its meaning to the original one. The small discrepancies between the retranslation and the original items were discussed by him and his wife, an American who is a German teacher and has lived in Germany for 35 years.

The job satisfaction scale was chosen to be the first presented scale in the self-completion questionnaire because it could be answered intuitively thus sustaining the motivation of the respondents. After that, the brief calling scale asking about employees' perception of a calling was presented. The participants were provided with a short definition of calling which referred to the two calling aspects of passion and social contribution (Dobrow, 2013; Duffy et al., 2018; Elangovan et al., 2010). This scale was followed by the living a calling scale to emphasize the distinction to the first calling scale. The two job crafting subscales closed the first section of the questionnaire. Subsequently, the validated scales from previous studies are described (Appendix 6).

Perceiving a calling. Perceiving a calling or the detection of one's calling, was measured with the Brief Calling Scale (BCS) by Dik, Eldridge, Steger, and Duffy (2012). The two items from the Presence subscale were used to assess the independent variable. Whereas the original scale was answered on a 5-point Likert scale, a 7-point Likert scale was used in this study to increase variance and facilitate data analysis. The scale ranked from *1) strongly disagree* to *7) strongly agree*. The items were worded as followed: "I have a calling to a particular kind of work" and "I have a good understanding of my calling as it applies to my career." Cronbach's Alpha of the BCS was $\alpha = .79$. Since Cronbach's alpha should lie between .70 and .95. both studies proved internal reliability of the BCS (Taber, 2018; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Living a calling. According to the Living Calling Scale (LCS) developed by Duffy et al. (2012a), living a calling was assessed with six items to examine whether employees can really live out their calling at work. The items were also rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *1) strongly disagree* to *7) strongly agree*. Example items were "I am currently work-ing in a job that closely aligns with my calling" and "I am consistently living out my calling." Proving internal reliability of the LCS, Cronbach's Alpha was $\alpha = .85$ in the original study.

Job satisfaction. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) initially developed a Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) with 19 items (0-18) to assess "how people feel about different jobs" (p. 309). Later, Judge et al. (1998) reduced the extensive scale and chose a small number of five items to investigate job satisfaction in their study. All items were answered on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *1) strongly disagree* to *7) strongly agree,* whereby the third and fourth item were reverse scored. Here are two example items: "I find real enjoyment in my work" and "Each day of work seems like it will never end" (reverse scored). The five-item scale JSS was reliable with Cronbach's Alpha being $\alpha = .88$. Moreover, the scale was used in the study by Duffy, Bott, Allan, Torrey, and Dik (2012b) who also found $\alpha = .88$.

Job crafting. So far, research on job crafting was mainly qualitative. Thus, there are only a few different scales available. Tims et al. (2012) developed a job crafting scale with respect to job demands and job resources. Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013), Bindl et al. (2019) and Bruning and Campion (2018) accepted some of Tims' et al.'s (2012) items but rather focused on the differentiation of relationship, task, and cognitive job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Taking into account the content and length of all subscales as well as their transferability to a 7-point Likert scale, the job crafting scale created and tested by Bindl et al. (2019) was chosen to test the hypotheses of this study. More concrete, the two subscales promotion-oriented relationship crafting ($\alpha = .86 - .92$) and promotion-oriented task crafting ($\alpha = .87 - .90$) with four items each were taken. Example items for each subscale are "I actively sought to meet new people at work" and "I added complexity to my tasks by changing their structure or sequence." Originally, the items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale and later were converted into a 7-point Likert scale for the purpose of this study.

The scales were subjected to four exploratory factor analyses and tests for validity and reliability (Table 1) in order to probe data fit (Hair, Babin, Anderson, & Black, 2014). They were tested for reliability again because the values of Cronbach's alpha are sample-dependent and cannot be converted from one study to another (Taber, 2018; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Factor analysis of the job satisfaction scale revealed the reverse scored item number four to correlate lower with the common factor than the others do. It has still been maintained because only items close to zero need to be removed from a scale (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Moreover, factor analysis showed that the job crafting scale load on two different factors which correspond to the two subscales relational job crafting and task job crafting with cross-loadings smaller than .50 (Bortz & Schuster, 2010). Since Cronbach's alpha was acceptable for the combined job crafting scale including eight items, the complete scale was used for analysis. The validity checks with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure were also acceptable. Perceiving a calling was the only exception with

a value of .50 which is rather low according to Kaiser (1974). Table 1 shows that all scales could be summarized and converted into a mean variable for further analyses.

The second section of the questionnaire covered sociodemographic data and control variables because participants tend to be more open at the end of a survey (Bell et al., 2019). The subsequent sociodemographic data and controls were collected: age, gender, education (Bindl et al., 2019; Duffy, Douglass, Gensmer, England, & Kim, 2019), employment relationship (Kim et al., 2018), duration of employment (Bindl et al., 2019), autonomy of job design reflected as scope of action (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010b), and type of organization. Employment status constitutes an important control variable with regard to the outcome variable job satisfaction ensuring the distinction between volunteers and permanent employees. The scale was only developed for permanent employees who perceive their job differently than volunteers. Moreover, the duration of employment might provide employees with more autonomy to design their jobs which expands their scope of action. Because the provision of autonomy is required to apply job crafting techniques, scope of action was taken as another control variable. Last, it was important to control for the type of organization to delete respondents who worked for private companies as opposed to nonprofit organizations. On the penultimate page (11), the participants were asked to copy the survey link and forward it to their colleagues in order to support the snowball sampling technique. The high response rate after only three weeks might be a tribute to this strategy.

3.3. Data cleaning and preliminary analyses

The data was cleaned in several steps using the statistical software IBM SPSS Version 26. Initially, the relevant pages for analysis were identified. In total, the questionnaire consisted of eleven pages whereby page 11 was only set up to support snowball sampling by providing a hint to distribute the survey further. Therefore, questionnaires with page 10 being the last completed page were still relevant for analysis and did not yield missing data. This led to 356 questionnaires finishing page 10. All the respondents agreed on data protection ($N = 356$) and only four people failed the attention check and were removed ($N = 352$). Open text boxes in the categories of type of organization and employment relationship were assigned to existing categories. *Others* was added as a new answer category for type of organization comprising religious institutions and welfare organizations. Respondents who stated to work free of charge, namely voluntarily, in their NPO (employment relationship) were removed from the sample because the job satisfaction scale was developed for permanent employees ($N = 340$). Employees working in a private company (type of organization) and not in a NPO were also deleted ($N = 328$). Respondents with a scope of action lower than 3 on a 7-point Likert scale were also removed from the sample because it is assumed that people with a low scope of action would not be able to engage in job crafting activities even if they wanted to ($N = 316$).

All cases with missing values were deleted since SPSS PROCESS does not include cases with missing values into analysis ($N = 307$). Moreover, the reverse scored items of the job satisfaction scale were checked for plausibility. Cases where the replies to the two reverse scored items were exactly the opposite of the other three replies were deleted ($N = 306$). In contrast, cases where the replies to the two reverse scored items were different but the other three replies showed high volatility were kept. After that, the mean of the perceiving a calling scale was sorted and all cases with means of 1 were deleted because it is assumed that people who do not perceive a calling cannot live it out ($N = 300$). This led to a final sample size of 300 cases.

This final data set needed to be prepared for further analyses by computing several new variables. First, a mean variable for each of the scales was created. The results of factor, validity, and reliability analyses presented in the last chapter, allowed for this computation. In total, six mean variables were created for perceiving a calling, living a calling, job satisfaction, job crafting, relational job crafting, and task job crafting. In order to control and understand the PROCESS outputs in greater depth, mean-centered variables as well as the required interaction terms to analyze moderation effects were computed manually outside of PROCESS which were used for regression analyses in regular SPSS. Second, the variable age was computed by taking the difference between the current year and the birth year. Year 2019 was taken as the current year because it was mid-January when the data was cleaned. Finally, the control variables - so-called covariates in PROCESS - type of organization, education, employment relation, gender, and action scope were transformed into indicator codes using 0 and 1 for two groups. This was necessary because "multicategorical covariates should be represented with an appropriate categorical coding system with codes constructed outside of PROCESS if they are to be used as covariates" (Hayes, 2018, p. 560).

As a necessary condition for carrying out regression analyses, the final data was tested for normal distribution. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test did not indicate normal distribution for any of the relevant variables. Therefore, bootstrapping samples were drawn to run the regression analyses. Bootstrapping is "an approach to validating a multivariate model by drawing a large number of subsamples and estimating models for each subsample" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 22). Based on the coefficients of these subsamples, the distribution is estimated, and regression analysis can be conducted. In addition, boxplots were conducted to test the variables for outliers. The detected outliers were not removed for two reasons. First, the outlier values of ordinal and nominal scales are possible answers defined by given categories. Because each of these categories is valid, there are no extreme values within given categories and outliers do not need to be excluded from analysis (Riani, Torti, & Zani, 2012). Second, bootstrapping not only compensates for irregular distributions but also for outliers. Single cases do not have much weight in a procedure where a high amount of subsamples is used to estimate the distribution (Rana, Midi, & Imon, 2012).

Table 1: Summary of the scale reliabilities and factor loadings (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS output)

The reliability values display Cronbach's alpha. The validity values display the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure.

Construct	Number of Items	Reliability	Validity	Factor loadings
Perceiving a calling	2	$\alpha = .80$	.50	1
Living a calling	6	$\alpha = .92$	.90	1
Job satisfaction	5	$\alpha = .80$	.80	1
Job crafting	8	$\alpha = .83$	.82	2
Relational crafting	1-4	$\alpha = .85$	-	1
Task crafting	5-8	$\alpha = .81$	-	1

For these two reasons, not much weight was attributed to outliers.

In order to control for all relevant aspects necessary for this study, a final number of seven covariates as well as the three variables perceiving a calling, living a calling, and job crafting were considered as predictors of job satisfaction. This is a rather high number of antecedents which impacts the final explained variance of job satisfaction. A higher number of predictors leads to a higher explained variance and consequently increases the accuracy of a model. However, it also bears the risk to distort the results if multicollinearity of the various variables is given (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, some tests for multicollinearity were conducted to test whether the variables perceiving a calling, living a calling, and job crafting show multicollinearity. With *tolerance* values bigger than .20, and *VIF* values smaller than 5, multicollinearity is not given for any combination of the variables (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell, & Gudergan, 2018) (Appendix 7). Consequently, the interpretation of results does not rely on multicollinearity.

3.4. Data analysis

Following the preliminary analyses, linear regression analysis was carried out to analyze the data. The proposed hypotheses were tested with the statistical software IBM SPSS Version 26, applying the macro PROCESS 3.4.1 developed by Hayes (2018). SPSS PROCESS was an adequate statistical software to test the research model because it provides a user-friendly application area and various choices of predefined research models. It is a regression-based approach which allows calculations of conditional processes combining mediators and moderators in a model. In order to better follow the required steps of analyses, the research model is transmitted into a statistical diagram with its various paths mapped in Figure 2.

The statistical diagram shows that there are two consequent variables in the model - Living a calling and job satisfaction. These two consequent variables define the following two equations of the linear regression analysis (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017):

$$LC = i_{LC} + a_1 PC + a_2 JC + a_3 PCxJC + e_{LC}$$
$$JS = i_{JS} + c'PC + b_1 LC + b_2 JC + b_3 LCxJC + e_{JS}.$$

The SPSS macro PROCESS estimates the equations separately calculating OLS regressions. The research model of this study with one mediation and two moderation effects is described by the model number 58 in PROCESS (Appendix 8). The path coefficients of the two equations presented above were calculated with this model. Thus, hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6 were answered by testing this model. Perceiving a calling was the independent variable in the model (X), job satisfaction was the dependent variable (Y), living a calling was the mediator (M), and job crafting was inserted as the moderator (W).

The variables required for the interaction terms to test the moderation effects (perceiving a calling, living a calling, and job crafting) were mean-centered because mean-centered variables allow the interpretation of an equation even when moderating effects are not proven (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). In addition, settings like a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval and 5000 bootstrap samples were selected. Moreover, the options to generate a code for visualizing interactions, pairwise contrasts of indirect effects, and a test for X by M interactions were conducted. Last, the values of the moderator job crafting ranged from low (−1SD) to high (+1SD) around the mean. The analysis was oriented on papers dealing with moderated mediation (Bindl et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2012b; Hirschi, 2012). Etkin and Sela (2016) and Kim et al. (2018) were especially relevant because they also used the SPSS macro PROCESS.

In addition, the results of moderated mediation model (model 58) calculated in PROCESS were examined for plausibility by calculating the mediation and moderation effects independently using model 1 and 4 in PROCESS (Appendix 8). Model 1 was used to test the two moderation effects described in hypotheses 4 and 5. It was first calculated with perceiving a calling as independent variable, living a calling as dependent variable and job crafting as moderator. Second, model 1 was tested with living a calling as independent variable, job satisfaction as dependent variable and job crafting as moderator. Hence, the two moderation effects were calculated separately using model 1. Afterwards, model 4 was used to test hypothesis 3, the mediating effect of living a calling in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction disregarding the moderation effects. Those indirect effects calculated with model 1 and 4 in PROCESS
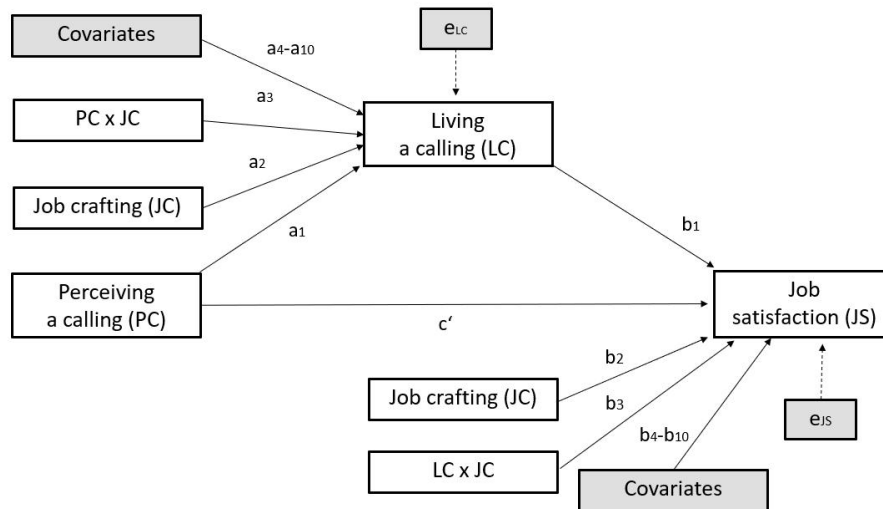
Figure 2: Statistical diagram of research model (Source: Own illustration based on Hayes, 2018)

were also computed manually without bootstrapping to validate the underlying calculations. The results can be found in the digital Appendix and will not be presented in the next chapter because they did not yield different effects.

Hypothesis 2, assuming a direct positive effect from perceiving a calling to job satisfaction, was the only one which could not be calculated with model 58 in PROCESS. The results of the direct effect in model 58 already depend on existing mediation and moderation effects and thus cannot be interpreted independently. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was tested by means of a linear regression analysis conducted in SPSS with job satisfaction as dependent variable and perceiving a calling as independent variable. It was the only effect calculated without PROCESS. These distinct steps of analysis are summarized in Table 2.

To test the robustness of the results, three sensitivity analyses were conducted (Appendix 9). Two of them were used to test the robustness of the model by changing the input variable job crafting. In the previous analysis, the combined job crafting scale including both subscales - relational and task job crafting - was used. In the course of the sensitivity analyses, the influence of the two subscales on the overall results of the regression analysis was tested because the subscales of job crafting load on two different factors which is displayed in Table 1. This approach was chosen to investigate possible differences between the mechanisms of job crafting. Moreover, a possible mediation effect of job crafting was examined. The results of the data analysis are displayed in the following chapter.

4. Display of results

4.1. Living a calling as mediator

Table 3 provides an overview of the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the various study variables. Except for a Pearson correlation of two metric variables, all other correlations are Spearman correlations.

The simple intercorrelations prove a statistically significant relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling ($r = .67$, $p < .01$) as well as between living a calling and job satisfaction ($r = .59$, $p < .01$). Job crafting is a positive correlate of perceiving a calling ($r = .35$, $p < .01$), living a calling ($r = .35$, $p < .01$), and job satisfaction ($r = .30$, $p < .01$). Moreover, employment relation and job crafting are found to positively correlate ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), although not very strongly (Cohen, 1988).

Subsequently, Table 4 displays the regression coefficients, standard errors, and t-values of Model A and B. It also provides an overview of the results of hypotheses testing.

According to hypothesis 1, there is a positive relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling. The hierarchical regression analysis proved this relationship to be highly significant ($B = .48$, $t = 12.18$, $p < .001$, CI [.40;.55]). Hypothesis 2 stated the positive direct effect of perceiving a calling to job satisfaction. This relationship was found to be significant in the SPSS analysis ($B = .26$, $t = 8.03$, $p < .001$, CI [.18;.33]) confirming hypothesis 2 with $R^2 = .18$. Hypothesis 3 predicted a mediated relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction via living a calling. Besides perceiving a calling, living a calling is also positively related to job satisfaction ($B = .39$, $t = 8.75$, $p < .001$, CI [.30;.47]). With the addition of living a calling to the regression analysis, the direct effect of perceiving a calling to job satisfaction becomes insignificant. This is a clear indicator for a mediation. The absence of the direct relationship after the addition of living a calling as explanatory mechanism is an indicator for an indirect-only mediation (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). The bootstrapping procedure confirmed the mediated relationship with the bootstrapping confidence interval for the indirect effect. On all three levels of job crafting - low (-1 SD), medium (M), high ($+1$ SD) -, the bootstrapping lower and upper limit were positive, meaning that the confidence interval does not contain zero and

Table 2: Overview of analyzed models (Source: Own illustration)

The model numbers presented in this table should not be confused with those discussed in connection with SPSS PROCESS. Therefore, they are numbered alphabetically. Model A is calculated without PROCESS.

Model number	Analysis	Hypothesis tested	
Model A	Direct effect	Direct effect	H2+
Model B	Moderated mediation	Mediation effect of living a calling	H1+, H3+
		Moderation effect of job crafting	H4+, H5+, H6+
Model C	Sensitivity	Moderation effect of relational crafting	H4+, H5+, H6+
Model D	Sensitivity	Moderation effect of task crafting	H4+, H5+, H6+
Model E	Sensitivity	Mediation effect of job crafting	None

Table 3: Means, standard deviations and correlations (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS output)

$N = 300$. Spearman correlations. M: Mean, SD: Standard deviation. Organization: 1 = associations & foundations, 0 = social & public enterprises. Education: 1 = University degree, 0 = No university degree. Employment relation: 1 = full-time, 0 = part-time. Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male. Action scope: 1 = high action scope, 0 = low action scope. $^{**}p < .01$.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Age	41.55	12.38										
2 Membership	9.05	9.41	.70** (Pearson)									
3 Organization	0.61	0.49	.14	−.04								
4 Education	0.82	0.39	−.07	−.01	−.04							
5 Empl. Relation	0.57	0.50	.08	.17**	.08	.06						
6 Gender	0.70	0.46	−.15	−.13	.04	.03	−.29**					
7 Action scope	0.60	0.49	−.01	−.02	−.15**	.05	.05	−.03				
8 Perceiving	4.92	1.25	.03	.03	−.06	−.06	.10	.02	.22**			
9 Living	5.01	1.05	.12	.11	−.09	−.13	.14	−.02	.30**	.67**		
10 Satisfaction	5.95	0.76	.06	.03	−.10	−.15**	−.08	.18**	.33**	.39**	.59**	
11 Job crafting	4.98	0.90	.04	−.05	−.04	−.05	.17**	.03	.16**	.35**	.35**	.30**

thus offering support for a mediation effect (CI M [.13;.24]).

4.2. Job crafting as moderator

The hypotheses 4 and 5 predicted two distinct moderation effects of job crafting. Both of them were analyzed using the complete job crafting scale (model B). In a first step, the moderating effect of job crafting on the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling was analyzed, as stated in hypothesis 4. The interaction term of perceiving a calling and job crafting on living a calling did not show significant results ($B = .03$, $t = .76$, NS (not significant), CI [−.05;.11]). Thus, contrary to expectations, the relationship of perceiving a calling to living a calling was not conditional upon the degree of job crafting. In a second step, hypothesis 5 was tested by examining the role of job crafting on the relationship between living a calling and job satisfaction. The regression analysis did not yield significant results for the interaction of living a calling and job crafting either ($B = −.01$, $t = −.43$, NS, CI [−.08;.05]). Not aligned with the initial expectation, the relationship of living a calling to job satisfaction was also not dependent on the degree of job crafting.

Consequently, both hypothesized moderating effects are rejected as shown in the subsequent figures. The interaction effects were plotted at high (1 SD above the mean), medium (M), and low (1 SD below the mean) levels of job crafting with the red middle line being the mean.

As the previous figures and the regression coefficients show, the two sensitivity analyses revealed similar results regarding the moderation effects (Figure 3). The exact regression coefficients for the two moderators relational and task job crafting are displayed below in Table 5 and Table 6.

Although there was a significant effect of relational job crafting on living a calling ($B = .14$, $t = 2.94$, $p < .05$, CI [.05;.23]), the interaction term of perceiving a calling and relational job crafting was not a significant predictor of living a calling, thus rejecting hypothesis 4 ($B = .05$, $t = 1.50$, NS, CI [−.02;.11]). Furthermore, the interaction term of perceiving a calling and task job crafting on living a calling was not significant, thus not supporting hypothesis 4. ($B = −.00$, $t = −.03$, NS, CI [−.07;.06]). All three confidence intervals for indirect effects included zero. Thus, the relationship of perceiving a calling to living a calling was not con-

Table 4: OLS regression model results for the moderated mediation model (Model A and B) (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS PROCESS output)

$N = 300$. B = unstandardized regression coefficients; SE = standard error; CV = covariates; * $p - .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Crafting = combined job crafting scale (8 Items). Model A in the table displays a linear regression analysis to verify the direct effect of path c which was created outside of PROCESS. Model B displays the PROCESS output of the moderated mediation. c' displays the direct effect when the mediation was already proven. Organization: 1 = associations & foundations, 0 = social & public enterprises. Education: 1 = University degree, 0 = No university degree. Employment relation: 1 = full-time, 0 = part-time. Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male. Action scope: 1 = high action scope, 0 = low action scope.

| | Consequent | | | | | | | |
| | Living a calling (M) | | | | Job satisfaction(Y) | | | |
Antecedent	Path	B	SE	t	Path	B	SE	t	Hyp.
Model A									
Constant						4.70***	.22	29.03	
Perceiving (X)					c	.26***	.04	8.03	H2 ✔
R^2								.18	
Model B									
Age	a_4	.00	.01	.70	b_4	.00	.00	.15	
Membership	a_5	.00	.01	.45	b_5	.00	.01	.23	
Organization	a_6	− .06	.10	− .61	b_6	.01	.07	.16	
Education	a_7	− .24*	.12	− 2.01	b_7	− .14	.09	− 1.55	
Employment	a_8	.08	.10	.80	b_8	− .15*	.07	− 2.09	
Gender	a_9	.03	.10	.24	b_9	.24**	.08	3.09	
Action scope	a_{10}	.30**	.10	3.16	b_{10}	.25***	.07	3.41	
Constant	i_{LC}	− .20	.25	− .80	i_{JS}	5.80***	.19	30.44	
Perceiving (X)	a_1	.48***	.04	12.18	c'	.01	.04	.31	H1 ✔
Job crafting (W)	a_2	.14**	.05	2.62	b_2	.06	.04	1.48	
X x W	a_3	.03	.04	.76					H4 ✘
Living (M)					b_1	.39***	.04	8.75	H3 ✔
M x W					b_3	− .01	.03	− .43	H5 ✘
R^2				.48				.45	H6 ✘
R^2 without CV				.45				.38	

ditional upon the degree of relational job crafting and task job crafting. The interaction term between living a calling and relational crafting on job satisfaction was not significant ($B = −.02$, $t = −.77$, NS, CI [−.08;.04]) leading to the rejection of hypothesis 5. The interaction term between living a calling and task crafting on job satisfaction did not show significant results either ($B = −.00$, $t = −.02$, NS, CI [−.05;.05]), thus failing to provide support for hypothesis 5. Consequently, the relationship between living a calling and job satisfaction was found to be neither conditional on the degree of relational job crafting nor on the degree of task job crafting (Table 5 and 6).

Moreover, as the correlation table shows, job crafting is significantly correlated to perceiving a calling and living a calling, but it does not show a moderation effect in further analysis. Hence, job crafting was tested for a possible mediation role in this relationship. Results of the mediation analysis revealed perceiving a calling to significantly relate to the assumed mediator job crafting ($B = .25$, $t = 6.52$, $p < .001$, CI [.18;.33]) as well as to the assumed outcome variable living a calling ($B = .50$, $t = 12.98$, $p < .001$, CI [.43;.58]). In addition, the relationship between job crafting and living a calling ($B = .17$, $t = 3.13$, $p < .01$, CI [.06;.28]) is found to

be significant. The result that both the direct effect and the indirect effect are significant with the inclusion of job crafting as mediator offers support for a complementary mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). Consequently, job crafting seems to partially mediate the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling as displayed in Table 7.

The revealed relationship between the variables perceiving a calling, job crafting, and living a calling is furthermore displayed in the figure 4.

4.3. Moderated mediation model

In sum, previous results confirmed the existence of a direct effect between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction as well as of the mediation role of living a calling, thus lending support to hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. Moreover, both moderation effects are not found to be significant leading to the rejection of hypotheses 4 and 5. Therefore, hypothesis 6 predicting a moderated mediation is rejected too. However, job crafting was found to partially mediate the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling.

Besides these main constructs of the research model, some control variables, so called covariates, were also assessed during the PROCESS analysis. The covariates age
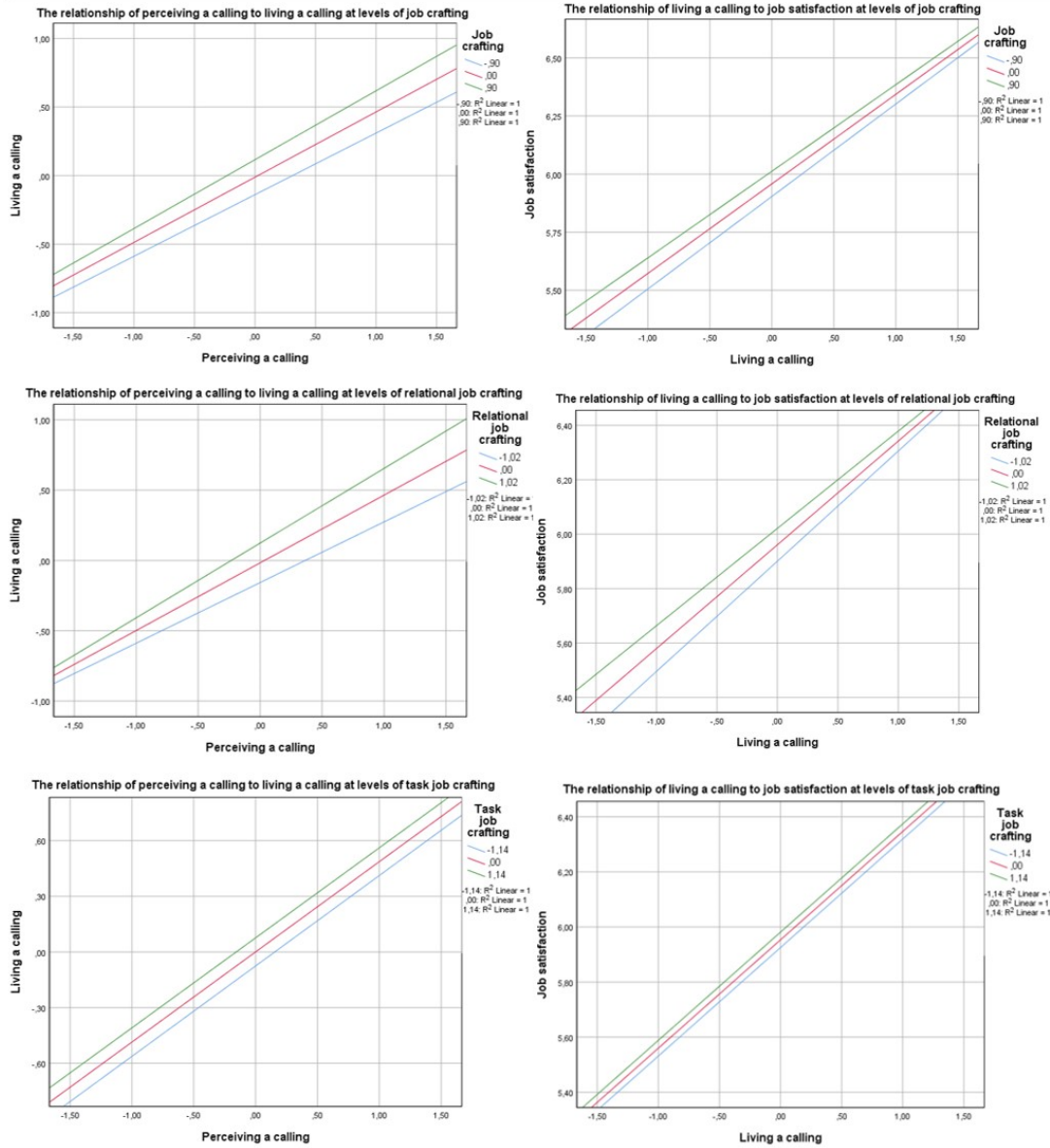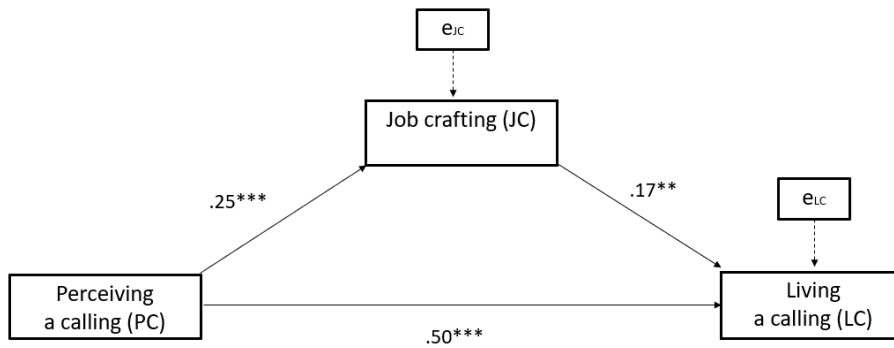
Figure 3: Moderating role of job crafting, relational job crafting, and task job crafting (Source: Output from SPSS PROCESS personally adjusted)

$N = 300$. **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Figure 4: Mediation role of job crafting (Source: Own illustration based on Hayes, 2018)

Table 5: OLS regression model results for the moderated mediation including relational job crafting (Model C) (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS PROCESS output)

$N = 300$. B = unstandardized regression coefficients; SE = standard error; $*p \leq .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. Rel. craft. = relational job crafting, items 1-4 of the job crafting scale. c' displays the direct effect when the mediation was already proven. Organization: 1 = associations & foundations, 0 = social & public enterprises. Education: 1 = University degree, 0 = No university degree. Employment relation: 1 = full-time, 0 = part-time. Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male. Action scope: 1 = high action scope, 0 = low action scope.

| | Consequent | | | | | | | | |
| | Living a calling (M) | | | | Job satisfaction (Y) | | | | |
Antecedent	Path	B	SE	t	Path	B	SE	t	Hyp.
Model C									
Age	a_4	.00	.01	.82	b_4	.00	.00	.24	
Membership	a_5	.00	.01	.30	b_5	.00	.01	.08	
Organization	a_6	− .01	.10	− .14	b_6	.02	.07	.30	
Education	a_7	− .24*	.12	− 2.03	b_7	− .14	.09	− 1.54	
Employment	a_8	.08	.10	.85	b_8	− .15*	.07	− 2.02	
Gender	a_9	.03	.10	.28	b_9	.24**	.08	3.04	
Action scope	a_{10}	.30**	.10	3.18	b_{10}	.24***	.07	3.33	
Constant	i_{LC}	− .26	.25	− 1.02	i_{JS}	5.79***	.19	30.50	
Perceiving (X)	a_1	.48***	.04	12.75	c'	.02	.04	.48	H1 ✔
Rel. craft. (W)	a_2	.14**	.05	2.94	b_2	.06	.04	1.68	
X x W	a_3	.05	.03	1.50					H4 ✘
Living (M)					b_1	.38***	.04	8.66	H3 ✔
M x W					b_3	− .02	.03	− .77	H5 ✘
R^2			.48					.45	H6 ✘

Table 6: OLS regression model results for the moderated mediation model including task job crafting (Model D) (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS PROCESS output)

$N = 300$. B = unstandardized regression coefficients; SE = standard error; $*p \leq .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. Task craft. = task job crafting, items 5-8 of the job crafting scale. c' displays the direct effect when the mediation was already proven. Organization: 1 = associations & foundations, 0 = social & public enterprises. Education: 1 = University degree, 0 = No university degree. Employment relation: 1 = full-time, 0 = part-time. Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male. Action scope: 1 = high action scope, 0 = low action scope.

| | Consequent | | | | | | | | |
| | Living a calling (M) | | | | Job satisfaction (Y) | | | | |
Antecedent	Path	B	SE	t	Path	B	SE	t	Hyp.
Model D									
Age	a_4	.00	.01	.73	b_4	.00	.00	.11	
Membership	a_5	.00	.01	.48	b_5	.00	.01	.28	
Organization	a_6	− .08	.10	− .87	b_6	.01	.07	.12	
Education	a_7	− .25*	.12	− 2.13	b_7	− .13	.09	− 1.52	
Employment	a_8	.09	.10	.96	b_8	− .15*	.07	− 1.99	
Gender	a_9	.04	.10	.38	b_9	.25**	.08	3.19	
Action scope	a_{10}	.32***	.10	3.34	b_{10}	.26***	.07	3.51	
Constant	i_{LC}	− .20	.26	− .79	i_{JS}	5.79***	.19	30.28	
Perceiving (X)	a_1	.49***	.04	12.34	c'	.01	.04	.38	H1 ✔
Task craft. (W)	a_2	.07	.04	1.56	b_2	.03	.03	.77	
X x W	a_3	− .00	.03	− .03					H4 ✘
Living (M)					b_1	.39***	.04	9.00	H3 ✔
M x W					b_3	− .00	.03	− .02	H5 ✘
R^2			.47					.44	H6 ✘

($B = .00$, $t = .15$, NS, CI [−.01;.01]), membership ($B = .00$, $t = .23$, NS, CI [−.01;.01]), type of organization ($B = .01$,

Table 7: OLS regression model results for job crafting as mediator (Model E) (Source: Own illustration based on the SPSS PROCESS output)

$N = 300$. B = unstandardized regression coefficients; SE = standard error; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. Crafting = combined job crafting scale (8 Items).

	Consequent							
	Job crafting (M)				Living a calling (Y)			
Antecedent	Path	B	SE	t	Path	B	SE	t
Model E								
Constant	I_{JC}	3.73***	.20	18.87	I_{LC}	1.69***	.27	06.21
Perceiving (X)	a_1	0.25***	.04	06.51	c'	0.50***	.04	12.98
Crafting (M)					a_2	0.17**	.05	03.13
R^2				00.12				00.44

$t = .16$, NS, CI $[-.13;.15]$), and education ($B = -.14$, $t = -1.55$, NS, CI $[-.31;.04]$) did not show significant relations to job satisfaction. Opposed to these results, the covariates employment relation, gender, and scope of action were all three significantly related to job satisfaction. While employment relationship was negatively related to job satisfaction ($B = -.15$, $t = -2.09$, $p < .05$, CI $[-.30; -.01]$), gender ($B = .24$, $t = 3.09$, $p < .01$, CI $[.09;.39]$) and scope of action ($B = .25$, $t = 3.41$, $p < .001$, CI $[.11;.39]$) were positively related to job satisfaction. Since these variables have been subject to indicator coding, the coefficients need to be interpreted with regard to the comparison group. The following figure illustrates all path coefficients within the statistical diagram of the research model.

The regression coefficients lead to the following two regression equations excluding covariates:

$$LC = -20 + 0.48PC + 0.14JC + 0.03PCxJC$$
$$JS = 5.8 + 0.01PC + 0.39LC + 0.06JC - 0.01LCxJC.$$

Prediction accuracy of Model B was analyzed with a look at R^2 indicating which percentage of the variance within the dependent variable job satisfaction is explained by the various independent variables (Hair et al., 2014). Whereas perceiving a calling predicted 18% of the dependent variable job satisfaction (Model A, Table 4), the linear regression model including the mediator living a calling explains a larger part of the variance with $R^2 = .38$ (Model B, Table 4). The explained variance of job satisfaction continues to grow with the inclusion of the covariates into the regression model. With 45%, almost half of the dependent variable job satisfaction is explained. Thus, the addition of living a calling and the covariates results in a remarkable increase of R^2 by around 27%. Overall, the proposed research model shows a high level of predictive capacity.
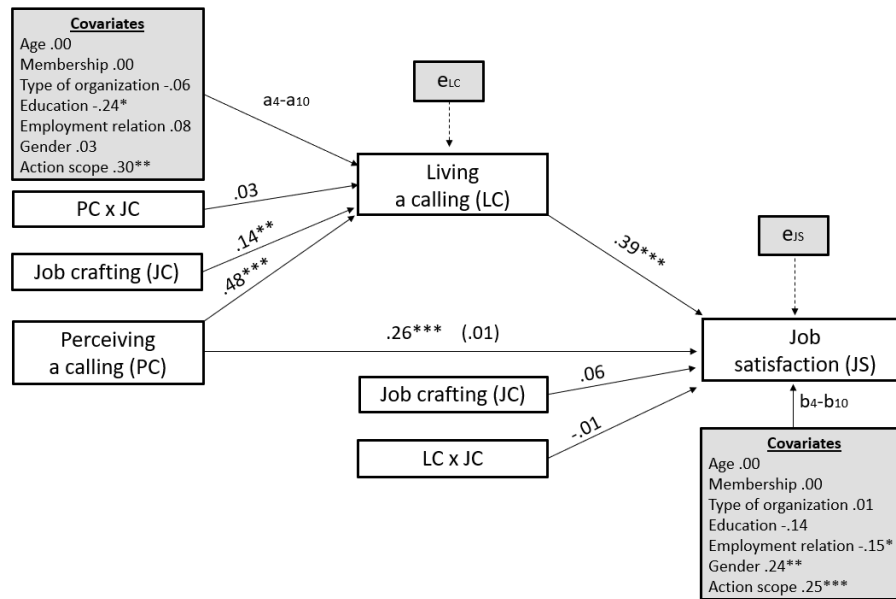
5. Discussion

5.1. Evaluation of the results

In the following two subchapters, the results of the data analysis are discussed. First, the results are evaluated with regard to the outcome variable job satisfaction. A significant relation between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction was found in this study whereby living a calling takes on a mediator role in this relationship. Besides, scope of action, employment relationship, and gender are significantly related to job satisfaction and are discussed in more detail. Second, referring to the research question, the influence of job crafting on the relationship between both types of calling and job satisfaction is explained and interpreted. Job crafting did not turn out to be a moderator of the mediated relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction. However, it was found to be a partial mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling which is discussed subsequently.

5.1.1. The impact of callings and other predictors on job satisfaction

The results reveal a direct positive relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction. This indicates that NPO employees who have initial internal ideas about their calling are content with their job. Having initial internal ideas of what their calling might be, NPO employees develop a deep understanding of their preferences and interests in a first step (Rosso et al., 2010). In a second step, NPO employees strive to follow their perceived preferences and interests in the work context. This is supported by the finding that perceiving a calling is positively related to living a calling. Employees who have initial ideas about their calling aim at living them out at work. As the results show, the living of a calling then leads to employees' satisfaction with their job. Consequently, not only the perception of a calling is positively related to job satisfaction but especially the living of a calling strongly fosters this relationship. Both types of callings, expressed through personal preferences and interests, lead to job satisfaction of NPO employees extending research in the field. While the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction has already been evaluated by Duffy et al. (2012b) who analyzed employed adults from the United States working in different occupations, the relationship of living a calling with job satisfaction has been confirmed by Chen et al. (2017) investigating a law enforcement agency.

$N = 300$. $*p \leq .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. Type of organization: $1 =$ associations & foundations, $0 =$ social & public enterprises. Education: $1 =$ University degree, $0 =$ No university degree. Employment relation: $1 =$ full-time, $0 =$ part-time. Gender: $1 =$ female, $0 =$ male. Action scope: $1 =$ high action scope, $0 =$ low action scope. Path c' is depicted in parentheses.

Figure 5: Statistical diagram of research model including path coefficients (Source: Own illustration based on Hayes, 2018)

Thus, previous research is further validated with this study by examining a sample of NPO employees.

The direct relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction loses its significance with the inclusion of living a calling into the linear regression model. This implies that the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction via living a calling is an indirect-only mediation. An indirect-only mediation describes a relationship which is fully explained by the mediator variable (Zhao et al., 2010). Relating this to the model variables, the mere perception of a calling does not independently explain the construct of job satisfaction but rather living a calling becomes a main predictor of job satisfaction. Thus, the inclusion of living a calling as a full mediator is required to allow for a deeper understanding of the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction.

Moreover, the addition of living a calling to the linear regression analysis leads to a higher explained variance of the model. This is further proof for the importance of living a calling in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction. Apparently, the mere detection of a calling does not suffice to exploit the full potential of job satisfaction. Employees who live out their calling, opposed to those who only perceive a calling, seem to be more satisfied because they can actually follow their own personal interests and preferences. This finding strengthens the hypotheses of the currently developed work as calling theory which has been tested only once so far (Duffy et al., 2018, 2019).

Stepping back to the explained variance of the research model, it also provides information about the influence of the

control variables on the outcome variable job satisfactio. It was found that the explained variance increased when further adding the covariates into the linear regression analysis of the moderated mediation model. This finding provides initial evidence that perceiving and living a calling might not be the only driving predictors of job satisfaction. Rather, there might be some of the control variables which are strongly related to the outcome variable job satisfaction boosting the prediction accuracy of the proposed research model. Therefore, relevant control variables are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The control variables scope of action, employment relationship, and gender are significantly related to job satisfaction. The positive relationship between scope of action and job satisfaction indicates that employees with a high scope of action are a little more satisfied with their job than those with a lower scope of action in their job. The control variable scope of action was initially added to the questionnaire to control whether employees who engage in job crafting hold the formal power to adapt their work environment according to their calling. Therefore, employees with a very low scope of action were removed from the sample because they are not able to execute job crafting within the borders of their job. By doing this, the variable should rather serve for a plausibility check of the presumed moderating effect and was not yet considered in connection with the outcome variable job satisfaction. However, an additional finding was made. This finding of a positive relationship between a high scope of action and job satisfaction was not hypothesized before but it can be explained with the job characteristics model of work motiva-

tion by Hackman and Oldham (1976) presented in chapter 2.3.

The job characteristics model describes that several core job dimensions (job characteristics) lead to critical psychological states which in turn lead to different personal and work-related outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) (Appendix 3). More specifically, the authors predict that the job dimension *autonomy* leads to the psychological state *experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work* which in turn results in *high satisfaction* as one of the four outcome variables. Applying this model to the finding of this study, a high scope of action can be translated into autonomy at a job because people with a high scope of action work mostly autonomous from their managers. Thus, the psychological state *experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work* serves as a possible explanation of the relationship between a high scope of action and job satisfaction, found in this study. In addition to job satisfaction, the job characteristics model suggests three further outcome variables of autonomy. They are high internal work motivation, work performance, or low absenteeism and turnover. Derived from this proposed relationship, a high scope of action might also lead to other outcomes than merely job satisfaction. Some of these outcome variables have even been analyzed in context of callings too. While Kim et al. (2018) already examined the relationship between callings and in-role performance, Chen et al. (2017) and Esteves and Lopes (2016) brought in the turnover aspect. Intrinsic motivation as a positive side effect of callings is not yet analyzed.

The control variable employment relationship was the second one significantly related to job satisfaction. It was included in the questionnaire to test whether the work status influences employees' inclination to engage in job crafting. It was assumed that full-time employees are more likely to engage in job crafting than part-time employees because they have longer workdays and are willing to structure them according to their callings. The positive correlation between employment relationship and job crafting might be proof for this assumption. In addition to the proposed correlation, it was further found that employment relationship is negatively related to job satisfaction signifying that full-time employees tend to be less satisfied with their job than part-time employees.

A calling-related explanation for full-time employees being less satisfied with their job than part-time employees could be the circumstance that NPO employees not only have the calling for social contribution but also have leisure callings like being an actor or playing an instrument for example. Thus, they might have multiple callings in life which cannot all be satisfied at work (Berg et al., 2010a). A full-time job would then be a greater barrier to the fulfillment of leisure callings. Full-time employees with multiple callings which belong to both work-related callings and leisure-related callings remain with unanswered callings at work about their leisure calling (Berg et al., 2010a). Unanswered callings are much stronger for full-time employees than for part-time employees because they generally spend much more time at

work. This reduces their available free time needed to pursue their private callings. Consequently, the lower satisfaction of full-time employees might result from the fact that they must spend more time at work which does not leave much time for other personal interests or callings. Employees who work part-time have more available time to pursue other callings than their work callings. Overall, it might be more important for NPO employees to fulfill two callings a little than only one to the fullest. Moreover, the different satisfaction levels of full-time and part-time employees could result from the fact that women make up a large proportion of part-time workers and gender seems to impact the degree of job satisfaction as described in the subsequent paragraph (Clinebell & Clinebell, 2007).

The results of this study revealed gender as the third control variable positively related to job satisfaction which implies that women working in NPOs tend to be a little more satisfied with their jobs than men. This finding is consistent with other studies investigating the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among full-time workers of different occupations and employees in the Turkish hotel industry (Hodson, 2016; Kara & Uysal, 2012). Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2010) suspect that due to the poor working conditions of women in the past, their low job expectations lead to higher job satisfaction. But research in the field is controversial. Studies analyzing management positions or secondary school teachers did not find significant relations between gender and job satisfaction (Mabekoje, 2009; Mason, 1995). Therefore, the relationship seems to highly depend on the exact study design and the selection of the sample. With regard to the sample of NPO employees, it is possible that women tend to be more interested in performing social jobs than men. The high number of female respondents in this study (Appendix 4) goes along with the fact that 75% of NPO employees are women (Zimmer & Priller, 2018). Consequently, women seem to live their calling because they are intrinsically motivated to execute socially relevant jobs which makes them more satisfied with their job.

To summarize, job satisfaction has several positive consequences. Satisfaction at work can increase the overall life satisfaction of employees which increases their overall mental health (Choi et al., 2017; Peterson et al., 2009; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014). Moreover, job satisfaction also induces better work performance of employees. This can be explained with Judge et al.'s (2001) statements on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Employees might be better performers when they are satisfied.

5.1.2. The role of job crafting in context of callings

The phenomenon job crafting relates to aspects of the job design theory by Hackman and Oldham (1976) which suggests that various job characteristics lead to different personal and work-related outcomes (Appendix 3). By actively modifying the characteristics of a job, employees alter their work environment and thus engage in job crafting. In the course of this study, job crafting was assumed to strengthen the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a

calling as well as between living a calling and job satisfaction. Against expectations, the mediated relationship from perceiving a calling via living a calling to job satisfaction was not conditional upon the degree of job crafting. Job crafting does not strengthen the relationship as a moderator. However, job crafting was found to be a complementary mediator and thus partially explains the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling (Zhao et al., 2010). Thus, the application of job crafting to some extent bridges the gap from the mere perception of a calling to its living. This finding of only a partial mediation could be explained as follows below.

NPO employees do not engage in job crafting in order to live out their calling to the assumed extent since they already feel like living out their calling due to the social outcomes of their work. With regard to their wish for social contribution, employees do not rank monotonous tasks too high but focus on the actual impact they can make by working in a NPO too (Alfes, Shantz, and Saksida, in press.; Grant, 2007). Consequently, employees in NPOs might not merely be intrinsically motivated to perform a specific task at work but their intrinsic motivation is connected with the results of their work - the impact they have on the beneficiaries. Administrative and repetitive tasks do not hinder NPO employees to live their calling at work. This finding contradicts the initial assumption that NPO employees will definitely engage in job crafting to compensate their monotonous administrative work. Accordingly, it rather seems to be a combination of both the purpose of the NPO and the tasks to be done which fosters their motivation and makes them feel to live their calling.

Furthermore, the results did not yield a moderating effect of job crafting and only a partial mediation because employees might not realize their own interference with the work environment. It is conceivable that employees are not always aware of their own changes of the work environment and therefore did not report so in the survey. This argument refers to a big disadvantage of self-reported data which will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. Moreover, Leana, Appelbaum, and Shevchuk (2009) introduced collaborative job crafting with the analysis of early childhood education centers which might have similar features as NPOs. Collaborative job crafting describes the active change of the work environment induced by a whole group of employees and only by individuals. They found collaborative job crafting to significantly relate to job satisfaction and commitment. Thus, it is also plausible to assume that NPO employees engage in collaborative job crafting without being aware of it. Maybe complete work groups in NPOs collectively change their work environment and individuals do not perceive it as a real change because their own position is not directly affected. A wrong perception of their activities would then lead to questionable survey results concerning job crafting. This could be an additional explanation why job crafting - neither relational nor task job crafting - did not serve as a moderator and only as a partial mediator.

5.2. Recommendations for nonprofit organizations

The main finding of this study is that NPO employees who perceive a calling to some extent engage in job crafting to be able to live their calling at work. It was also found that living a calling at work leads to job satisfaction of NPO employees. Job satisfaction in turn positively impacts both employees and NPOs. Living a calling and job satisfaction lead to employees' psychological well-being (Elangovan et al., 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014) as well as to higher job performance of employees which improves organizational outcomes (Choi et al., 2017; Judge et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2018). Because of these positive effects, it is rewarding for organizations to foster the living of callings at work. The suggestions made to achieve this mainly refer to topics of external and internal human resource management in NPOs. Both recruitment processes and internal participation procedures should be oriented on applicants' and employees' sense of calling (Helmig & Boenigk, 2020). Since this study only analyzed permanent employees of NPOs and no volunteers, the recommendations are also addressed to NPO managers of permanent staff.

One way to secure employees living their calling is a well-grounded recruitment process of NPOs (Helmig & Boenigk, 2020). This will ensure that mainly candidates who consider their future job as their calling are shortlisted. Employees in NPOs who are living their calling are especially interested in making a social contribution with their job. Therefore, the selection process should be designed to unfold applicants' real expectations of the job and the impact they want to make. Moreover, managers should try to find a way to analyze applicants' motivation type because employees who live their calling are intrinsically motivated to do a job (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In addition, derived from the need to find applicants who perceive their future job in a NPO as their calling, managers should aim to emphasize the aspects of calling and social contribution in their external human resources marketing. As NPOs are not only pursuing financial rewards but also a social aim, they can use their mission as competitive advantage when recruiting employees that seek to pursue altruistic values. This might increase the likelihood that predominantly people with those interests apply for the job.

The implications presented next deal with the inclusionary and participative processes of the existing workforce in NPOs. With regard to employees' interest in the social outcomes of their NPO, managers of NPOs could provide their permanent staff with insights into the actual work with the beneficiaries by organizing excursions or events on a regular basis. Such events remind employees, usually engaged in the office, of their real social contribution and make them feel like they are living out their calling at work. Their compassion for the beneficiaries will then be kept in their mind and fosters their motivation for administrative work.

Moreover, managers could offer possibilities for employee participation concerning money distribution or project decisions (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006). Employee participation could be easily implemented with short internal online surveys asking NPO employees about their pref-

erences for certain social projects. The results of the survey could then be used to lay the foundation for future project decisions. Of course, the proposed projects should be carefully examined by management beforehand to avoid complications with the staff which might result in the opposite direction of participation. In a second step, the implemented projects could later be summarized in an employee newsletter. In doing so, NPO employees can follow the internal decision processes of their organization as well as their operative effect for beneficiaries. These actions carried out by management would increase employees' intrinsic motivation for their job and make them feel living their calling. These actions might keep the staff motivated and fulfilled with their job (Men, 2014).

Furthermore, managers of NPOs should provide employees with a high scope of action. This study proves a positive relation between autonomy and job satisfaction. Knowing about the positive outcomes of job satisfaction such as employee well-being and performance, the provision of autonomy at a job is preferable. Besides, as job crafting takes a partial mediator role between perceiving and living a calling, a minimum scope of action is needed to ensure job crafting opportunities which foster to step from the perception of a calling to its living.

5.3. Limitations and reference to future research

One of the most important limitations of this study is its cross-sectional research design. With this design, data was collected at one point in time. A big disadvantage of such simultaneous data collection procedure is that it only allows statements about simple relationships or correlations but not about causal relationships (Hair et al., 2014). Thus, like most of the studies on calling, this is a correlational study only. Therefore, future research on calling and job crafting should be longitudinal studies or experiments to draw on causality. Longitudinal studies collect data at several points in time to assess the development of relevant variables (Bell et al., 2019). For instance, it might be interesting to analyze whether employees can better live their calling after having switched from one NPO to another. In experiments, the independent variable scope of action could be manipulated to carry out group comparisons more deeply.

The next limitation refers to the sampling technique snowball sampling which goes along with the aspect of representativeness. Snowball sampling is a non-random sampling technique where the selection of initial participants does not occur by chance, but it relies on the network and efforts of the person conducting the data. This person choses the initial representatives and asks them to distribute the survey further to reach an appropriate sample (Heckathorn, 2011). However, due to the following two aspects, a completely representative sample is hard to reach. On the one hand, it depends on the selection of the initial representatives whether different realms of a population are included. After having contacted the first participants, the researcher has very little control over the sampling. Depending on the motivation of each contacted person and her or his willingness

to distribute the survey, the sample might be dominated by a specific group within the population. Thus, it is difficult to trace from whom the sample was mainly fostered (Sharma, 2017). On the other hand, it depends on the social situation of people whether they are confronted with the survey or not. Social people are more likely to receive a survey than isolated people who are not part of a social group. Mostly those two aspects lead to a biased sample which does not guarantee full representativeness (Johnson, 2014).

In addition to the previous limitation, the survey is restricted to German NPOs and people with internet access. This might also influence the representativeness of the study and might not allow for inferences to the whole population of NPOs. Customary, Germans tend to act aligned with given rules and regulations which does not always foster to think "out of the box" or to recreate the own work environment according to their callings (Schroll-Machl, 2016). Thus, future studies, especially with regard to the use of job crafting techniques which requires employees' self-initiative, are needed to reconstruct the correlation and partial mediation for other cultures and within various sectors of NPOs. Moreover, descriptive statistics show that the sample was highly educated with more than 80% having a university degree. It is possible that mostly high position employees in NPOs have access to email accounts whereas social workers who are in direct contact with the beneficiaries might not (Bell et al., 2019). Therefore, future research should analyze if there is a relationship between education and awareness for the nonprofit sector or if this result can be explained by the restricted internet access of some worker groups.

Moreover, the sample seems to be very heterogeneous as the list of the different types of organizations show (Appendix 4). Derived from the need for a short questionnaire to receive a high response rate, aspects like organizational sectors and sizes were not integrated as control variables in the survey. However, it is assumed that the surveyed NPOs belonged to various sectors and differed greatly in size which might have been influencing factors of employees' responses. Since NPOs are very diverse, the introduced control variables size and sector are required to be asked in future studies on NPOs in order to foster representativeness.

Another limitation refers to the selection of the statistical software. The results IBM SPSS PROCESS makes available are restricted to the main effects of mediation or moderation. Therefore, parts of the analysis were additionally calculated outside of PROCESS to get a deeper understanding of the data. Future research could use structural equation modelling in order to comprehend the relations between each of the variables more clearly. Moreover, studies with high missing rates and a need for much flexibility to design the research model in the statistical software should use structural equation modelling (Hair et al., 2011; Hayes et al., 2017).

The results of factor analysis yield an additional limitation. Opposed to previous studies, it is not clear whether the participants clearly understood the constructs of perceiving a calling and living a calling as two distinct constructs. Explorative factor analysis yield that the two scales both load on

the same factor. Thus, only a marginal difference between the five items of the living a calling scale opposed to the perceiving a calling scale could be found. The similarity of the two scales might have influenced the impact of job crafting on the relationship because the constructs were not as strictly separable as expected. Moreover, the two subscales relational and task job crafting loaded on two different scales. Therefore, the sensitivity analyses have been conducted. Future research could create a new and short suitable job crafting scale including all aspects developed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as well as a calling scale which better reveals the difference between perceiving and living a calling.

Self-reported data is a further limitation of this study. NPO employees might have reported differently than their managers would have done. Thus, the data might not be completely reliable (Bell et al., 2019). In case of this study, especially self-reported data concerning job crafting is critical since NPO employees are not always aware of their adjustments in the work environment. Their boss or colleagues might have given different answers to employees' degree of adjustments in the work environment. It is conceivable that employees unconsciously adapt their working environment to live their callings but have not indicated this in the survey. Moreover, it is possible that employee groups in organizations change the working environment collectively without being aware of it (Leana et al., 2009). Therefore, statements of individuals are not always completely reliable. In future research on job crafting, colleagues or managers should be asked whether employees actively change their work environment. It might happen that employees themselves do not recognize when they actively change their job role or influence people around them.

Another limitation of the study is its one-sided view on calling and job crafting. This study only considers the positive effects of calling with job satisfaction as outcome variable which does not reflect the full potential of callings. Future research should also look at critical aspects of living one's calling such as burnout, exploitation, or perfectionism (Duffy et al., 2018; Grant, 2007). Moreover, with the choice of the two scales, job crafting was only analyzed from its promotion-oriented perspective whereby tasks and interactions with others are increased or extended. The prevention-oriented subscales were not used in this study (Bindl et al., 2019; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013). However, regarding the negative outcomes of calling, future research should also integrate prevention-oriented crafting because the use of prevention-oriented job crafting techniques might reduce burnout and exploitation. Example items for prevention-oriented crafting are "I minimized my interactions with people at work that I did not get along with" (prevention-oriented relationship crafting) or "I tried to simplify some of the tasks that I worked on" (prevention-oriented task crafting) (Bindl et al., 2019). In sum, future research could create a short job crafting scale including aspects of all subscales developed by Bindl et al. (2019).

The last limitation goes along with one of the most interesting findings of the study - the complementary mediat-

ing role of job crafting which was not hypothesized (Zhao et al., 2010). So far, job crafting was found to partially mediate the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling. Future research should analyze job crafting in an overall model including job satisfaction as outcome variable. It is possible that the direct relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction is explained by a multiple mediator model with job crafting being the first mediator and living a calling being the second mediator.

6. Summary

The present work delivers initial evidence that the positive relationship between calling and job satisfaction, already analyzed by other researchers, is also valid for NPOs (Chen et al., 2017; Choi et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2012a). Thus, calling at work leads to job satisfaction of NPO employees. In this study, the concept of calling is subdivided into two states: the mere perception of a calling and the living of a calling. Aligned with expectations, the constructs of perceiving a calling and living a calling are positively related. Therefore, the perception of a calling can be interpreted as a trigger moment which provides employees with an initial idea about what their calling is. Only after this first idea of a calling has arisen, employees actively strive to live it out. The living of a calling takes on a mediator role in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction indicating that the relationship is better explained when living a calling is added to the research model. It is an indirect-only mediation effect because the direct effect from perceiving a calling to job satisfaction disappears when living a calling is included into the regression analysis (Zhao et al., 2010).

Drawing on the concept of job crafting, it was assumed to take a moderating role by strengthening the relationship between perceiving and living a calling as well as between living a calling and job satisfaction. Contrary to predictions, the mediated relationship from perceiving a calling via living a calling to job satisfaction was not conditional upon the degree of job crafting. Both hypothesized moderation effects have been rejected. Even the differentiation into relational and task job crafting with two sensitivity analyses did not show distinct findings. Referring to the research question, job crafting does not immediately appear to influence the relationship between calling and job satisfaction. However, a third sensitivity analysis yielded different results and showed that job crafting partially mediates the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling (Zhao et al., 2010). The partial mediation explains that employees working in NPOs feel to live their calling through both the change of their work environment by adapting their tasks and the social outcomes they foster with their work in a NPO. Thus, job crafting seems to bridge NPO employees' perception of a calling and the living of it to some extent.

In addition to previous hypotheses, a high scope of action, employment relationship, and gender were found to significantly relate to job satisfaction. The positive relationship between a high scope of action and job satisfaction can be

explained with the psychological state *experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work* of the job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1976). Moreover, employment relationship is negatively related to job satisfaction indicating that full-time employees are a little less satisfied with their job than part-time employees. An explanation for this result could be their unanswered leisure callings. Generally, employees are able to have several callings which belong to both the work realm and the leisure realm (Berg et al., 2010a). With a bigger number of working hours, it is difficult for full-time employees to follow their leisure callings. This might be the reason for their lower job satisfaction opposed to part-time employees. Lastly, women tend to be a little more satisfied with their jobs in NPOs than men. Previous research investigating this relationship found controversial results (Hodson, 2016; Mabekoje, 2009). Thus, the selection of the sample and the survey design seem to be the driving forces for this result. Considering the sample of NPO employees, women's interest and sense of calling for social jobs might be greater than those of men which leads to their higher job satisfaction.

In total, this study adds to research in the field of callings by investigating the relationship between perceiving a calling, living a calling and job satisfaction analyzing a sample of NPO employees. It is one of the first studies to evaluate a predictor of living a calling. Job crafting was found to predict living a calling as a partial mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and living a calling. Moreover, the study contributes to existing research on job crafting by considering it in relation with the outcome variable job satisfaction. Before, job crafting has not been considered with regard to possible outcomes. Last, research on job satisfaction is extended by revealing the influence of a high scope of action, employment relationship, and gender on job satisfaction with a sample of NPO employees.

Although the described findings strive research in the field, this study also has its limitations. Based on the finding that job crafting takes a partial mediator role, the most important limitation is that it was not yet tested in an overall model. Therefore, in order to fully answer the research question, a multiple mediator model with job crafting being the first mediator and living a calling being the second mediator in the relationship between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction is required. Other limitations of this study refer to the nature of self-reported questions and the study design. The cross-sectional study design only reveals correlations which need to be tested with longitudinal studies or experiments to draw a causal conclusion. Furthermore, self-reported answers are not fully reliable. It is important to test the hypotheses - especially those proposing a moderating effect of job crafting - with other samples as well (Bell et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2014). It is conceivable that surveys with employees from for profit organizations would yield different effects. Besides, the selection of adequate measures was problematic. It is not clear whether the perceiving and living a calling scales have been treated differently by participants. Moreover, the job crafting scale used in this study

only comprises promotion-oriented techniques (Bindl et al., 2019). Prevention-oriented job crafting techniques should be considered in future research with regard to negative consequences of callings such as burnout or exploitation (Duffy et al., 2018; Grant, 2007).

Moving to the positive consequences of NPO employees living their calling, several management implications can be derived. The recommendations for NPO managers to foster employees' living of their calling predominantly refer to aspects of human resource management (Helmig & Boenigk, 2020). First, a well-grounded recruitment process in order to select only applicants who perceive their future job as their calling is needed. Second, participation strategies to make employees from the office feel connected to the beneficiaries should be introduced (Scott-Ladd et al., 2006). This could happen with regular events for office employees to meet the beneficiaries and see the social outcomes of their work. Last, NPO managers should provide employees with a high scope of action because it leads to higher job satisfaction and offer opportunities to craft a job.

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