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To cite this article: Kahari, W. I., Mildred, K., & Marion, A. J. (2020). The Interaction Between Perceived Task Complexity, Individual Work Orientation, and Job Crafting in Explaining Flow Experience at Work. Üniversitepark Bülten, 9(2), 101-113.

To link to this article: http://dx.doi.org/10.22521/unibulletin.2020.92.3

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The Interaction Between Perceived Task Complexity, Individual Work Orientation, and Job Crafting in Explaining Flow Experience at Work

WAWERU IBRAHIM KAHARI, KYAKUHA MILDRED, and ASHABA-JAHEEBWA MARION

Abstract
This study assessed the interaction between perceived task complexity, individual work orientation, and job crafting in explaining flow experience at work. The study was conducted using the National Social Security Fund of Uganda. Individual work orientation and perceived task complexity were assessed as the independent variables, job crafting as the mediating variable, and flow experience as the dependent variable. The study was based on work environments not necessarily being very friendly, yet employees are expected to be happy and post a positive performance. Thus it was expected that the independent variables would boost employees’ proactive behaviors towards achieving peak performance. The study adopted a cross-sectional design employing a quantitative approach. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to a target study group of 387 individuals selected using random sampling. The results indicated that individual work orientation and perceived task complexity were good predictors of job-crafting behavior amongst employees, which is considered a proactive effort to redesign one’s work in order to make it more bearable or interesting. Equally, it was found that job crafting is one of the means of fostering flow experience which is characterized by work enjoyment, intrinsic motivation, and absorption. Given the results, it can be deduced that when the work is not clear or is complex, employees tend to proactively seek ways to make it easier through different initiatives; driven by their internal work desires they proactively seek for ways to achieve their end result successfully. When this is done, their work becomes more enjoyable, and they apply fully their concentration.

Keywords: Task complexity, job crafting, individual work orientations, flow experience.
Introduction

Employees strive to obtain positive experiences from the workplace. Such experiences can become a source of pride, signifying that the employees are comfortable and are happy in their jobs. One such example is flow experience in the workplace, which is shown when an employee experiences enjoyment from the various tasks that they undertake in their job role, being absorbed in such tasks, and experiencing high levels of intrinsic motivation (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Such a state can cause an employee to lose any sense of time, and appears to continuously carry on with their work regardless, and without showing signs of fatigue.

Flow experience, though desirable, is not achieved by many employees, especially considering the contemporary realities of today’s workplace. The current psychological contract, for instance, places considerable responsibility on individual employees to work to develop their own success and to shape their own professional or workplace experiences (Armstrong, 2012); therefore, only those employees who can supplement the support they receive from their organization with their own efforts tend to achieve flow experience. In line with fulfilling their part of the psychological contract, task requirements and individual work orientations have prompted employees to take charge and redesign their own jobs, and by doing so, they realize flow experience at work.

In demonstrating how individuals can proactively alter their work, the job-crafting theory (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013) provides that employees can take control of their jobs through the principle of altering different aspects of their work in order to help them to effectively cope with the demands of the job. An employee who crafts their own job does so through proactively altering either cognitions about their job, relations, or the tasks that form part of their assigned work (Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). When prompted by the job’s demands, job crafting can help employees to achieve the required support in terms of tangible and intangible backing from their colleagues, making the tasks more desirable and enriched, and have a mindset that has a positive outlook on their job, regardless of how unimpressive it may actually be.

Furthermore, employee work orientation has been identified as a driver of the job-crafting process (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Employees each have individual or group/team targets and orientations that seek to fulfill an accomplishment from which results a positive experience. Various orientations including career advancement, the pursuit of financial reward, and fulfillment of a calling have been found to trigger the job-crafting process, especially given that individuals are expected to play a significant role in designing their own work in today’s workplace. Such orientations thus prompt employees to seek out workable relationships, set up their mind and carry out additional tasks which help them to achieve their goals.

The researcher’s interest in this area led to examining the concept of flow experience at work in the Ugandan context, which formed the motivation for the current study. There has been little research conducted in the area on the concept. It is therefore considered important to examine if the various models that have previously identified the various variables as determinant of the flow experience may also be applied to explain the same in the Ugandan context. The National Social Security Fund (NSSF) of Uganda was selected for the current study. The NSSF is a government parastatal charged with a mandate of collecting monies from employers on behalf of their employees; a contribution aimed to cater for the
employees' financial wellbeing upon their retirement (i.e., contributory state pension entitlements).

The current study sought to examine whether or not task complexity, individual orientation, and job crafting can be employed to explain flow experience at work in the context of NSSF Uganda.

The concept of flow can be traced from the works of Csikszentmihalyi in the mid 1970s (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975), although it has since gained a more centralized focus with the emergence of positive organizational scholarship at the beginning of this century. It is an experience gained through activities such as games, sports, art, sexual acts, and more recently Internet surfing, where those involved appear to lose all sense of time and are completely absorbed in the activity. Scholars have argued that it is possible that employees can also experience flow at work.

Flow experience can be viewed as a state that describes a person who has become so involved in an activity to the extent that which nothing else seems to matter, and that they enjoy the activity and continue with it even at certain cost just for the sheer sake of doing it (Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). More likely, such an activity challenges the persons' abilities (Beltran, 2014) in a way that during the act, the person becomes completely unaware of their surroundings and loses their conscious self to that precious moment (Fineburg, 2007). The terms “fully immersed in a task,” and “forgetting about the outside world” have also been used to describe flow experience (Babauta, 2008).

The current study adopts the conceptualization that flow experience is the enjoyment of work absorption, work enjoyment, and intrinsic work motivation (Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Work enjoyment shows that an employee is enjoying what they are doing, and as such they may be described as being “in love with their work.” Work absorption, on the other hand, depicts an employee immersed in their work and does not appear to ever want to stop. Intrinsic motivation is a psychological empowerment where an employee.

**Individual Work Orientation and Job Crafting**

A number of scholars that have examined individual’s work orientation have narrowed the phenomena down to three key orientations, namely, seeing it as a job, as a career, or as a calling (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Notably, it is possible that an individual may have more than one orientation, and therefore a possibility of a combined orientation that entails all three aspects.

An employee who views their job as a calling (e.g., teachers in the Peace Corps) believe that they have been earmarked to carry out a cardinal duty (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) to the people that they serve. They feel that their work enables them to help provide for a better world for all. As such, they participate because they are actively motivated by the need to see others succeed, and any other benefits are seen as secondary. Viewing work as a job centers on the financial benefits that accrue from undertaking that role. There are certain employees whose aim of working is to meet their obligations to earn a living, raise and support their family, and to honor their various financial commitments (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). As such, they would want to maximize their earnings from their work, and it is this commitment that drives them to do everything possible to earn more.
In a career, a person has work-related personal dreams that they want to achieve. Many employees join a company at a junior-leveled position, with the aim being to move up the career ladder to a level where their dreams or aspirations lay. They may also be in a job that would not necessarily be their first choice, and therefore aim to navigate towards their preferred position. Such employees would not settle for the position they are in until they have achieved a position in which they feel comfortable and derive career satisfaction (Eisenberger, Jones, Stinglhamber, Shanock, & Randall, 2005). The current study has focused on two dimensions, Career Orientation and Calling Orientation.

Job crafting on the other hand, is derived from the job-crafting theory which posits that, people can be proactive in redesigning their work in order to gain a better fit in the organization and in a role that is more fulfilling (Berg et al., 2010). Within an organization, the main participants in job design are mainly the human resources, as in the supervisors and employees. However, employees may not always be comfortable with the way that their work is designed, and this may result in them proactively engaging in job crafting such as looking to adjust several aspects of their job, altering their mental perspective, and maintaining and building beneficial relationships in a bid to achieve a better fit (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012).

Another perspective posits that job crafting marks a shift in management theory from a passive attitude-bearing worker to that of an active worker who, through reflection and interaction, crafts the images of their job, role, and self in organizational contexts (Rickli, 2010). This indicates that regardless of the work design, an employee has the ability to alter various aspects of their work in order to be more comfortable and to derive a sense of meaning from their work. This position also tallies with the current work realities in that employees should play a more active role in order to make their work more meaningful, and which is in line with the contemporary psychological contract.

Employees are also said to engage in job-crafting behaviors in order to add a level of challenge to their work or to reduce its level of demand (Arts, 2012). Where a job is not considered to be sufficiently exciting, an employee may initiate job crafting with the aim of creating or taking on more challenging tasks. On the other hand, the job demands may already exceed an employee’s ability, prompting them to undertake job crafting in a bid to reduce such demands. Thus, it appears that job demands, according to that point of view, are behaviors that employees exhibit in order to regulate their work. For the purpose of the current study, job crafting is conceptualized as consisting of three key dimensions; those being task, relational, and cognitive crafting.

There are a number of empirical and theoretical studies that have suggested that work orientation is a good antecedent of job crafting. For instance, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), as the proponents of job-crafting theory, argued that individual orientation is a key factor that promotes job-crafting behaviors in any of the three orientations, be that viewing work as a job, a calling, or as a career. Employees will therefore naturally seek out the right relationships, attempt to shape their jobs by either adding more tasks, or taking on an alternative mentality in order to fulfill their personal goals. Thus, regardless of the work environment, employees will often proactively redesign their own jobs whilst in pursuit of their personal orientations.

Workers for the Peace Corps or Red Cross, for example, and people in the wider medical profession may have to work in hostile environments, and are presented as an example of
those who may view their jobs as a calling, who will occasionally craft their job almost by default (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). Such employees mainly craft their work cognitively in order to create a bigger picture rather than to alleviate or avoid potential dangers.

It has also been found that the top-down job design, mainly enshrined in the job characteristic theory, tends to create rigid-styled jobs which, given an individual’s work orientation, provides room for job crafting (Petrou, 2013). Since an individual orientation is mainly internal, employees sometimes take personal responsibility to shape their jobs the way they want them to be. In this respect, Berg, Grant, and Johnson (2009) provided examples indicating that employee orientation can prompt job-crafting behaviors. For instance, a human resources manager may craft their job to include an in-depth review of employment law when in pursuit of a passion to become an attorney. A doctor, on the other hand, may add tasks to train residents in order to fulfill a passion to become a teacher. Caza (2008), in support of the personal orientation topic, observed a midwife who, in fulfillment of what they viewed as a calling, decided to stay a little longer in order to counsel a woman. Although counselling was not part of her job, she offered it upon hearing that her patient’s husband had died, and as a result of the counselling, the woman became more resilient. From that outcome, the midwife had made counselling part of her ongoing job as it provided an overall more satisfying experience.

From the literature reviewed, we can expect that individual work orientation fosters job-crafting behaviors.

**Task Complexity and Job Crafting**

One of the early contributions to the concept of task complexity was made by Campbell (1998), who conducted a thorough review of literature that suggested task complexity as being able to be viewed from two perspectives, objective complexity and subjective complexity. In terms of objective complexity, Campbell argued that this was specific to the characteristics of a job. In this regard, a complex job was considered to be one that had various potential ways to arrive at a desired end-state, the possibility of multiple desired outcomes, conflicting interdependences among paths to multiple outcomes, and one that is pegged with having uncertain paths and outcomes. Subjective complexity, on the other hand, refers to the perception of an employee regarding the ease or difficulty of performing a given task.

Task complexity is also viewed as the degree of ease or difficulty when assessed against the job’s required competences such as thinking, the degree to which outcomes are known for a given work task, as well as task uncertainty, task variability, and dynamic complexity (Ghitulescu, 2006). It has also been said that task complexity can be observed from the position of the number of potential paths that can be taken in order to accomplish a given goal, the potential for different outcomes, conflicting interdependences, and certainty regarding paths (Li & Belkin, 2008). Thus, a job that can be accomplished by different means can be termed as being complex, as can be seen when one employee doing the job ends up with different outcomes from another. Furthermore, when a task has to be accomplished alongside other tasks or a single task split between different employees, the degree of complexity of the task inevitably increases. Equally so, when a task is not clearly defined in terms of what path should be taken in order to accomplish it, then the task itself may be considered as being more complex. It has also been argued that task complexity can be viewed as the degree of ambiguity and uncertainty involving tasks (Lee & Rao, 2009), while
an alternative perspective points to the degree of unfamiliarity, complicatedness, and objective complexity (Gill, 2012).

In terms of relationships, one of the strong pointers that task complexity creates a good ground for job-crafting exercise and behaviors was described in the works of Li et al. (2011). The scholars argued that task complexity is critical in influencing users’ information seeking and search behaviors. Such behaviors are what is entailed in job crafting, especially in the relational dimension of job crafting. Thus, when an employee finds a task to be more complex, they are likely to seek help from whoever they see as being in a position to make their task more simple to deal with, either through being given some direction on how to perform the task, or through receiving assurance that the path they are already taking would actually lead to success. Employees may have many people to whom they may turn, for instance their supervisors, co-workers, and even others outside of the work environment (Petrou, 2013).

Tims and Bakker (2010) further argued that an employee experiencing a high degree of task complexity will, as a means of reducing that state, proactively attempt to craft their jobs. Such employees engage in job-crafting behaviors whenever they feel that they are missing something or when there is a perceived misfit with their environment.

Job crafting has also been presented as an employee strategy to survive in an uncertain job environment (Kira, van Eijnatten, & Balkin, 2010). Uncertainty is a part of task complexity, and given that employees need to survive as opposed to being able to just give up, they are likely to initiate advice-seeking processes and this qualifies as a form of job crafting.

The reviewed literature has shown that task complexity presents a good grounding for employees’ job-crafting behaviors. Employees may conduct such behaviors in an attempt to acquire the necessary resources to perform their job successfully.

**Job Crafting and Flow Experience**

In one contribution that shows that job crafting as a precedent of flow experience, Berg et al. (2010) coined a phrase that, “turn the job you have to a job you want”. This was, in terms of crafting, a reference to intent through job crafting, to proactively alter the boundaries of one’s job, to establish rewarding relationships, or to view one’s job in a more positive light. Once this has been established, employees are more likely to realize positive meaning from their jobs and to enjoy what they are doing, which is a clear demonstration of flow experience at work.

Furthermore, an empirical study enacted on a group of engineers discovered that flow experience was one of the outcomes during job-crafting episodes (Ko, 2012). The employees involved reported positive emotions after certain episodes of job crafting, which was an indicator of their flow experience. Similarly, research by Kira et al. (2010) reported that one category of employees transformed their jobs into a more motivating experience that better met their needs and preferences through job crafting. The employees reported that their job had become more enjoyable and intrinsically motivating, which was seen as an indication of flow.

In a qualitative study of employees in a variety of jobs, Berg et al. (2010) revealed the likelihood of job crafting creating an experience of flow resulting from the proactive redesigning of the boundaries of current jobs. In their study, the researchers investigated
how employees crafted their jobs in response to feeling obligated to pursue a certain occupation rather than one in which they really wanted to work. The results indicated that the employees experienced pleasant psychological states of enjoyment and meaning associated with pursuing their unanswered callings. Such feelings form flow experience dimensions which include enjoyment and intrinsic motivation. Thus, it is clear that when employees proactively become involved in crafting their own jobs, the end result is that they are more likely to have positive experiences in terms of flow.

The reviewed literature on Flow theory (Berg et al., 2013; Bucharest, 2006; Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) helped to develop the conceptual model that guided the current study (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1. Conceptual Framework**

**Methodology**

The current study adopted a cross-sectional design that employed a quantitative approach. This was deemed to be appropriate for the current study as it sought to establish relationships between certain variables and test theories (Creswell, 2014). It is also considered suitable for large-sized samples, and its results are ordinarily generalizable to the population. A close-ended questionnaire was employed for the collecting of the study’s data.

The population for the study consisted of the 387 fulltime employees of NSFF-Uganda headquarters in Kampala (Human Resource database of 2015). A simple random sampling technique was employed to select a sample of 197 respondents that was determined in reference to the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. Of the responses, 169 of the responses were found to be suitable for analysis, which was conducted using IBM’s Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 20.

The survey instrument that was used contained statements that the respondents rated, and each construct was measured using various tools and with answers anchored according to a 5-point, Likert-type scale.

In order to measure Perceived Task Complexity, a tool was developed from the review of works by Ghitulescu (2006), Kind et al. (2010), and Hackman and Oldham (1975), whilst...
Individual Work Orientation was measured using a tool adopted from Wrzesniewski et al. (1997). In measuring Job Crafting, a tool developed from Arts (2012) was used, and Flow Experience was measured using a tool developed from Bakker’s (2008) Work-Related Flow Inventory (WOLF).

Ethical principles were adhered to throughout the study process. The lead researcher formally requested permission from the Head of Human Resources of NSSF, detailing the purpose, design, and intended method of data collection for the study. Recruitment of the participants was achieved on a voluntary basis and with signed consent forms, whilst the anonymity of the respondents was assured and maintained.

Reliability examines whether or not a group of participants responds to the same questionnaire with consistency. A Cronbach alpha coefficient test was conducted, and the questions that scored above .70 were retained, as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Task Complexity</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Work Orientation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Crafting</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow Experience</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Validity is the evidence that a questionnaire actually measures the variables that a study intended to measure. The use of questionnaires adopted from previous scholars’ work and modified to suit the purpose of the current study ensured that the validity requirement was largely already met.

Findings

Characteristics of the Respondents

The male respondents formed the majority consisting of 65.1%. Married respondents accounted for 49.7%, with 43.2% being single, and 6% of the respondents having been widowed. The vast majority (72.8%) of the participants were aged below 40 years old, with 17.8% aged between 40 and 50 years old, and only approximately 9% aged above 50 years old. In terms of educational background, the majority (48.5%) of the participants held a bachelor’s degree as their highest level of education, while the respondents having achieved an educational level above that of a bachelor’s degree was 32%, and 19.5% having either a certificate or an ordinary diploma. The majority of the respondents had served the organization for between 3 and 4 years constituting 31.2%, with 24.9% having served between 1 and 2 years, whilst only 8.3% of the respondents had served the organization for more than 10 years.

Correlation Analysis

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted in order to examine the direction and the strength of relationship between pairs of variables. These included relationships between perceived task complexity and job crafting, between individual orientation and job crafting, and the relationship between job crafting and flow experience, as presented in Table 2.
Table 2. Correlation Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Orientation [1]</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived task complexity [2]</td>
<td>.123**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Crafting [3]</td>
<td>.563**</td>
<td>.192**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow Experience [4]</td>
<td>.712**</td>
<td>.243**</td>
<td>.4584**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The result shows that there was a strong positive relationship identified between individual orientation and job crafting ($r = .56$) at a significance level of .01. Furthermore, a weak positive relationship was found to exist between perceived task complexity and job crafting ($r = .19$) at a significance level of .01. Finally, there was a strong positive relationship identified between job crafting and flow experience ($r = .58$) at a significance level of .01.

Hierarchical Regression – Predictors of Job Crafting

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in order to establish the contribution of each determinant of job crafting, which is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant )</td>
<td>3.341**</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>1.651**</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.960**</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>-.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Orientation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.533**</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.218*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Task</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.575**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model summary

- $R = .092$
- $R^2 = .009$
- $Adj R^2 = -.006$
- $R^2 = -.283$
- $F-Change = 52.618$
- $Sig = .567$

Dependent variable – Job crafting

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
The results in Model 1 show that the control variables (Age, Gender) have an insignificant contribution effect in the variance explaining Job Crafting.

Model 2 shows that the addition of Work Orientation to the equation accounts for an additional 28.31% of variance explained by the model ($R^2 = .291; f\Delta = 52.618; p < .05$). The findings further confirm a positive and significant relationship between Work Orientation and Job Crafting ($\beta = .533; p < .05$).

The addition of Perceived Task Complexity in Model 3 revealed an additional 22.5% of variance explained in Job Crafting ($R^2 = .516; f\Delta = 61.014; p < .05$). The model results also shows a positive and significant relationship between Perceived Task Complexity and Job Crafting ($\beta = .575; p < .05$).

### Ordinary Least Square Regression – Predictor of Flow Experience

In seeking to establish relationships between Job Crafting and Flow Experience, the data was analyzed using OLS and the results are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4. OLS Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model summary</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.495$^a$</td>
<td>.245</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>.47133</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>9.658</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.658</td>
<td>43.472</td>
<td>.000$^b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>29.769</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39.426</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.640</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Crafting</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.495</td>
<td>6.593</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results presented in Table 4 show that there is a significant and positive relationship between Job Crafting and Flow Experience ($\beta = .495; p = .000$). In addition, Job Crafting alone explains 24% (Adj $R^2 = .239$) of the variance of Flow Experience.

### Discussion

**Individual Work Orientation and Job Crafting**

The results indicate that an individual’s work orientation, which could be described in terms of advancement in terms of their career, or responding to a perceived “calling,” prompts individuals to redesign their own jobs either through the establishment and cultivation of rewarding relationships, adjusting their work tasks or their reorganization, or developing a positive mindset about their jobs and current occupation. The overriding objective here being to make the work more bearable, enjoyable, or achievable.
The results of the current study were found to be consistent with both theoretical and empirical studies that have shown individual orientations as likely to prompt the process of job crafting. Job-crafting theory for example, posits that individual orientation is a key factor that promotes job-crafting behaviors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Also Wrzesniewski et al. (2013) argued that when a person views their work as a calling, cognitive job crafting will be visible regardless of the type of the job or environment. Other scholars who have examined the same include Petrou (2013), who also viewed personal orientation as a key antecedent of job crafting. Berg et al. (2009) and Caza (2008) also provided a number of examples to indicate that employees’ orientation will prompt job-crafting behaviors.

Perceived Task Complexity and Job Crafting

The current study’s results also showed that, when the tasks are considered to be complex, employees may resort to redesigning the boundaries of their jobs so as to affect the tasks involved, developing new relationships or dropping others, or even adopting a more positive mindset to their work. This they do in an attempt to reduce work-related anxiety and other uncertainties related to complexity. These findings also support other studies and theories that indicate that the nature of a job may trigger job crafting amongst employees. For instance, Li et al. (2011) argued that task complexity is critical in influencing information-seeking and search behavior, a process that culminates in the relational dimension of job crafting. Petrou (2013) observed that employees seek to add job resources through job-crafting behaviors. Other scholars such as Tims and Bakker (2010) and Kira et al. (2010) also posited that employees experiencing high degrees of task complexity will, as a means of reducing that state, proactively seek to craft their own jobs.

Job Crafting and Flow Experience

The results further revealed that when employees proactively redesign their jobs through job crafting, they experience a high degree of concentration in undertaking their work, that they mostly enjoy their work, may even have high intrinsic motivation, and are therefore less liable to be interrupted by other factors when doing their work; which are all indicators of flow. In focusing on job crafting, employees adopt more interesting tasks, create rewarding relationships, and positively alter their mindset.

The results of the current study were found to be in line with other scholarly research observations and also theoretical proposition. In terms of showing that job crafting is a precedent of flow experience, Berg et al. (2010), Ko (2012), and Kira et al. (2012) each reported a strong indication that job crafting is a vital antecedent of flow experience.

Conclusion

The current study sought to examine the concept of flow experience in a Ugandan context. From the findings of the study, some key lessons can be drawn, including: when the assigned work is not clear or is perceived as complex, employees tend to proactively seek ways in which to make it easier through different initiatives; driven by their internal work desires they proactively seek ways in which to achieve the end result successfully. Finally, when people initiate and achieve positive changes in their work, the work becomes a more enjoyable affair, and therefore the person in question fully exerts all their concentration into its execution.
Notes

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References


