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Subjective and contextual determinants of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties

Abstract: The objectives of the study were to recognize the main motives for engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties among various professional groups and to identify selected properties of the subject and context of activities that contribute to such beyond-duties engagement. A set of questionnaires in electronic or paper form was completed by 209 employees, including 104 representatives of assistance professions and 95 representatives of creative professions, aged between 21 and 67 years ($M = 37.54$, $SD = 9.55$). It was established that the main motives for beyond-duties engagement in both groups of professionals under study were self-actualization and acting for the benefit of others. With the use of structural equation modelling, subjective and contextual determinants of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties were identified as self-efficacy and action meaningfulness. The research discusses the phenomenon of engagement in extra activities at work from the perspective of the acting person/employee. The study results can be useful for managers in setting goals of appropriate type and manner to their employees as well as for task assignment.

Keywords: engagement in action, beyond-duties engagement, self-efficacy, action meaningfulness

INTRODUCTION

Attitudes towards employees have changed significantly since the advent of the scientific approach to management (Griffin, 2006), from the treatment of employees as a money-motivated workforce (e.g. Taylorism), through human relations (Mayo, Maslow, McGregor) and human resources approach in the 1980s (e.g. Drucker) and human capital movement (Cook, 2008) to the subjective treatment of employees as co-creators of the organization within the participatory management movement (Stocki, Prokopowicz & Żmuda, 2012) and teal organizations (Laloux, 2014). The second important change has been related to expectations towards employees. The increasingly complex and constantly changing work environments require employees not only to perform the assigned tasks at a satisfactory level, but also to take more responsibility for their actions and display greater initiative. In order to increase the level of employees' responsibility for their activities various management tools such as job enrichment, empowerment, or transformation leadership have been used (Campbell, 2000). It has thus become crucial for managers and leaders to learn more about factors influencing their subordinates' performance of tasks that go beyond their basic professional duties. Finally, the third observed change has been concerned with

the increasing demand for psychological engagement of employees in business and the growing interest of scientists in positive mental states, also among employees (Schaufeli, 2013). Consequently, at the beginning of the 21st century, the number of publications on employee and work engagement has raised significantly.

Considering all the aforementioned changes, the present study focuses on the issue of employee engagement from the perspective of the acting person (agent/employee) as well as places it in a broader context of professional activities, i.e. not only in terms of benefits to employees and the organization they work for, but also in terms of employees' higher needs such as self-actualization and acting for the good of others.

EMPLOYEE AS AN ACTING PERSON

The subjectification of employees, i.e. perceiving them as co-creators of the organization in which they work has become possible thanks to the adoption of the humanistic view of individuals with all its corresponding assumptions. The humanistic view assumes that by their very nature individuals are oriented towards development by integrating their psychological needs into a uniform sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and that they strive to exceed the level of development already achieved (Nuttin, 1968). Individuals

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are active subjects of their actions (e.g. Bandura, 2008; Mądrycki, 2002). They can intentionally manage their activities and shape their personality (e.g. Cantor & Zirkel, 1990). The feeling of being able to manage one's own activities depends on how one perceives the freedom of one's own actions. Individuals have the freedom of choice when they have more than one opportunity to act, and it is up to them to decide which option to choose (Kofta, 1983, 1992/2009). Secondly, individuals are social beings who fulfil their needs by living in society and acting together with others (e.g. Mika, 1984). A person's development takes place primarily as a result of interaction with other people, society, or culture (see Adler, Fromm, Horney, Sullivan). The nature of this interaction may vary and include pro-social activities understood as voluntary actions that benefit other people or society as a whole, such as helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering (Wispe, 1972).

Organizational psychology describes various employee behaviors which reflect the above assumptions and which may indicate employee engagement. Recently, one of the most popular phenomena among researchers has been job crafting defined as physical and cognitive changes that individuals make while performing their tasks or setting relational boundaries of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 179). Job crafting is concerned with the proactive introduction of changes by the employee in three areas: tasks (task crafting), interpersonal relations at work (relational crafting), and thinking about work (cognitive crafting) (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), limited by specific tasks, expectations, and positions involved in the organizational hierarchy (Berg, Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2010). Other researchers, e.g. Tims & Bakker, 2010, expanded the concept of job crafting by including changes that employees can make to balance their job demands and resources against their personal abilities and needs.

The other frequently researched phenomenon is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), first proposed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983) as a composition of two dimensions: 1. altruism in the workplace, essentially consisting of helping behaviors; and 2. general compliance manifested by low rates of absenteeism, avoiding excessive breaks, or not using work time for personal matters. OCB was later defined by Organ (1988, p. 4) as an individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by any formal reward system, and - in the aggregate - promoting the effective functioning of the organization.

Both constructs, i.e. job crafting and organizational citizenship behavior, refer to undertaking additional activities at work. However, they only describe the specific behaviors of employees and ignore energetic, cognitive, and emotional aspects. Hence there is a need to describe the phenomenon of engagement in actions that go beyond basic professional duties in greater detail.

BEYOND-DUTIES ENGAGEMENT

Several different ways of defining and measuring employee engagement can be found (Kahn, 1990; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Salanova,

González-Romá & Bakker, 2002; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Stairs & Galpin, 2010). The most popular approach to the subject is the concept of work engagement by Schaufeli and Bakker (approx. 38000 search results for 'work engagement Schaufeli' in the Google Scholar database on May 15th, 2020). Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74-75) define work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor entails high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to put in effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of obstacles. Dedication is understood as a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated on and deeply engrossed in one's work and experiencing difficulties in detaching oneself from work.

The above is, however, a fairly narrow approach to the issue of employee engagement. It was originally developed as an alternative and a specific continuation of Maslach and Leiter's concept (1997) of work engagement being the reverse of occupational burnout. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) placed the main emphasis on the distinction of its dimension and its verification, and further research mainly concern typical professional activities. Moreover, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003, 2010) do not refer to the subject of work engagement.

The notion of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties emerged from the analysis of concepts (Schaufeli et al., 2002), theories (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978) and research (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Williams & Anderson, 1991) regarding extra-role behavior as well as from references to previous assumptions about human nature. Beyond-duties engagement is understood as a long-lasting state of mind in which a person undertakes goal-oriented activities and continues them regardless of the encountered difficulties and alternative aspirations (Bożek, Malinowska & Tokarz, 2019, p. 24). It involves thoughts, emotions, and behaviors related to taking actions at work on one's own initiative as well as to activities not resulting from the basic work requirements of the organization in which they are undertaken. Beyond-duties engagement may contribute to the employee's self-actualization. Its effect can also be a broadly understood good, whose beneficiaries are colleagues, partners, or customers of the organization in which the person performs these activities.

DETERMINANTS OF BEYOND-DUTIES ENGAGEMENT

Results of research on work engagement show that more and less engaged employees may differ in terms of traits (Inceoglu & Warr, 2012) related to both the person and the performed task. They include optimism, self-efficacy, and organization-based self-esteem (Xanthopoulos, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2007). Beyond-duties engagement, as a construct similar to work engagement, should also show relationships with personal and contextual factors. Additionally, assuming that human

activities, including those undertaken at work, are deliberate (Zalewski, 1991), it can be expected that variables related to the goal or the context of work are also important for undertaking additional activities at work. According to Latham (2007), the goal determines the actions taken by the person and influences, among others, the choice of actions and perseverance in action. Goals can also be considered a source of personal meaning (Klinger, 1998). Consequently, it was assumed that actions undertaken by employees on their own initiative, which are goal-oriented and continued regardless of the encountered difficulties and alternative aspirations, require a high sense of self-efficacy, perseverance in action, and meaningfulness. Additionally, there should be a consistency between a person's most important values and actions.

Self-efficacy is understood by Bandura (1989, p. 1175) as people's belief about their ability to control events affecting their lives. Such a belief influences self-control and cognitive processes related to one's actions and their effects, including the type of set goals and the assessment of one's actions (Bandura & Shunk, 1981). The sense of self-efficacy is a universal belief that concerns not only the assessment of one's capabilities in everyday life but also at work. On the basis of his own and others' research on the role of perceived self-efficacy in organizational reality Bandura (2009) indicated that the higher the self-efficacy level employees display, the more initiative they demonstrate in their professional self-development, the more persistent they are in their search for the professional path, and the more new ventures they undertake.

Perseverance is understood, following Peterson and Seligman (2004, p. 229), as a voluntary continuation of goal-oriented activities despite obstacles, difficulties, or discouragement. Most research on perseverance has been conducted in the field of developmental and educational psychology. Perseverance is a trait developing with age up to mid-adulthood (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). The few studies on perseverance in the work environment indicate that if the followed occupation is in line with the internal needs of employees, they are inclined to perseverance in performing tasks at work (Meir, 1972). Also, a high level of service orientation, understood as an instruction for helpful, thoughtful, cooperative, and good-natured actions towards health care clients, increases perseverance at work (Chandrasekhar, 2001). Perseverance is also recognized as one of the most important characteristics of a successful entrepreneur (McClelland, 1987).

Occupational science theorists have studied the issue of meaningful activities understood as personally and culturally significant activities that people engage in (Clark et al. 1991, p. 301). On the other hand, organization psychologists are interested in the phenomenon of work meaningfulness, which can be defined as the degree to which employees experience their work as meaningful and valuable (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162). According to Spreitzer (1995), work meaningfulness is a component of psychological empowerment. As May, Gilson and Harter (2004) observe, the more people - following their personal standards - assess their work as meaningful, the

more willing they are to become engaged. The relationship between engagement and work meaningfulness is also indicated by Soan et al. (2013), who proved that work meaningfulness improved work engagement, which in turn was associated with low absenteeism at work. Similarly, the meaningfulness of undertaken actions should also be related to the engagement in performing these actions.

Values can be defined after Schwartz (1994, p. 21) as desirable transactional goals of various meanings that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or another social entity. Schwartz also postulates the existence of a continuum and a circular structure of values (1992). The continuum of values has a motivational function, which means that values located next to each other are based on similar motivations and can thus be implemented in one action (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz et al., 2012). Studies on universal and personal values in the area of organizational psychology show that people who assess work, family, religion, and personal values in a similar way are more enthusiastic and active at work (Thoresen et al., 2003). Moreover, the valuation of work, family, and religion helps to predict a positive mood at work (Hyde & Weathington, 2006). Most researchers of work-related values also claim that professional values are related to motivation to work, stimulate human activity, and that learning them helps to better understand the human activity in a given field (Paszowska-Rogacz, 2011).

THE PRESENT STUDY

The above considerations have led to the formulation of the following research questions:

1. What are the motives for engaging in additional activities at work?
2. What subjective and contextual factors have a positive relationship with beyond-duties engagement?
 - a) Does self-efficacy determine beyond-duties engagement?
 - b) Does perseverance in action determine beyond-duties engagement?
 - c) Does action meaningfulness determine beyond-duties engagement?
 - d) Are dominant values moderators of the relationship between beyond-duties engagement and selected independent variables?

It was assumed that the motivation to engage in additional activities at work may vary depending on the type of occupation. People working mainly with others and performing assistance tasks for others will be guided by different motives when undertaking activities beyond basic professional duties than those working mainly with matters and performing creative tasks on behalf of others. Consequently, it was hypothesized that **H1a**: People performing assistance professions engage in actions beyond their basic professional duties, being guided mainly by the motive of doing something good for others; and **H1b**: People practicing creative professions engage in actions beyond their basic professional duties, being guided mainly by the motive of self-actualization. It was

also anticipated that (Figure 1) **H2**: The higher the level of self-efficacy, the higher the level of beyond-duties engagement; **H3**: The higher the level of perseverance in action, the higher the level of beyond-duties engagement; **H4**: The higher the level of action meaningfulness, the higher the level of beyond-duties engagement; and **H5**: The more the dominant values are in line with the type of actions performed, the greater the beyond-duties engagement.

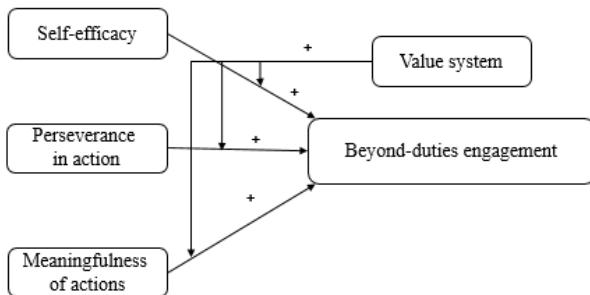


Figure 1. Subjective and contextual determinants of beyond-duties engagement

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

The study group consisted of 209 employees, including 114 representatives of assistance professions (nurses, midwives, members of associations and foundations, social assistance employees), and 95 representatives of creative professions (architects/interior designers, graphic designers, copywriters, advertising/marketing specialists). The study group comprised 172 women (82%) and 37 men (18%), between 21 and 67 years of age ($M = 37.54$; $SD = 9.55$). The gender disproportion can be explained by the fact that nurses, midwives or social assistance workers in Poland are almost exclusively women; and, secondly, that more women than men agreed to participate in the study. The majority of the respondents were master's degree holders (110, i.e. 53%). The criterion for inclusion in the study was the period a person was engaged in a project or work, in which they devoted their time to activities that went beyond their basic professional duties (minimum 6 months). The questionnaire survey was carried out in two forms: electronically (on an Internet platform) or on paper. Before filling in either questionnaire form, the respondents agreed to participate in the survey, first, orally (in face-to-face meetings or by telephone) or in writing (by email), by ticking the affirmative answer under the appropriate formula in the set of questionnaires.

Measures

Beyond-duties engagement

Engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties was measured with a modified UWES-9 Questionnaire by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) (Polish adaptation by Szabowska-Walaszczyk, Zawadzka and Wojtaś, 2011). The original UWES-9 questionnaire is

used to measure work engagement, but it was modified in such a way that it could be used to measure beyond-duties engagement (Bożek, Malinowska & Tokarz, 2019). The original questionnaire contains 9 statements consisting of three 3-item scales: vigor, dedication, and absorption, rated on a 7-point scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). The Polish adaptation of the questionnaire as well as its modification failed to confirm the three-factor structure of the tool and was considered to be one factor. The internal consistency of the Polish version of the modified questionnaire amounted to Cronbach's alpha = .87.

Self-efficacy

For self-efficacy measurements, the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) was used by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (Schwarzer, 1993) (Polish adaptation by Juczyński, 1997). The GSES contains 10 statements, all of which are part of one factor, i.e. self-efficacy. The participants respond to these statements on a 4-point Likert scale (*no, rather not, rather yes, yes*) (Juczyński, 1997) (Cronbach's alpha = .85).

Perseverance in action

To measure perseverance in action the Perseverance Scale (C2) included in the revised International Personality Item Pool - Values in Action (IPIP-VIA-R) scales was used based on Peterson and Seligman and developed by Goldberg (IPIP, <http://ipip.ori.org/>). The Polish adaptation of the tool was made by Celińska-Miszczuk and Uchnast (2013). The scales consist of 240 questions measuring 24 character traits. The perseverance scale comprised 10 statements to which participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 - *completely false*, to 5 - *completely true*) (Cronbach's alpha = .84).

Meaningfulness of actions

Meaningfulness of actions was measured using the Engagement in Meaningful Activities Survey (EMAS) by B. Goldberg, E. S. Brintnell and J. Goldberg (Polish adaptation by Bożek and Tokarz, 2017). The EMAS consists of 12 statements beginning with the phrase: *Actions I undertake ...*, which respondents rate on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) (Cronbach's alpha = .88).

Value system

To measure the core values, the Portrait Values Questionnaire - Short Version (PVQ-21) by Schwartz et al. (2001) was used in its Polish adaptation by Ciecuch and Zalewski (2011) consisting of 21 statements related to 10 values: tradition, conformity, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, and security. The PVQ-21 statements describe individuals in terms of their goals, aspirations, and beliefs about what is important in life. Respondents are asked to answer the question: *To what extent is this person similar to you?* The answer is given on a 6-point scale (from 1 - *not like me at all*, to 6 - *very much like me*). In the internal consistency test of the questionnaire in a group of 24-year-olds (Ciecuch & Zalewski, 2011) Cronbach's alpha ranged from .61 for Tradition to .85 for Hedonism.

Core motives

To measure the motives of engagement in additional activities at work, the respondents answered the question: *What is the main driving force for you to engage in actions that go beyond your basic professional duties? Choose one of four options: 1. Desire for self-actualization/ personal development; 2. Willingness to do something for other people/my organization; 3. Both the desire to develop oneself and to do something for others; 4. Other (which one?).*

RESULTS

Analysis of differences in the motive for beyond-duties engagement

A chi-square test was carried out to check whether respondents practicing different professions varied in their main motive for engaging in actions beyond their basic professional duties. This test makes it possible to compare the frequency of choosing a given type of reason for being engaged in additional activities at work between study groups.

In the first step, the frequency of specific motives was calculated. Since the "Other" option was chosen only by few respondents (4 representatives of creative professions and 3 representatives of assistance professions), the next analyzes were carried out only for the first three motives. Pearson's chi-square coefficient ($\chi^2 = 18.071$; $p < .001$) indicated that the groups of respondents differed significantly in their motive for beyond-duties engagement.

A detailed analysis of the frequency of individual motives (Table 1) showed that, although representatives of both groups of occupations most often engage in actions beyond their basic professional duties, both out of the desire for self-actualization and in order to do something good for others, this motive is much more frequent among the representatives of assistance professions (39.6% of all respondents) than for representatives of creative profes-

sions (27.7%). Self-actualization was the second most popular motive among creative professionals (14.4%), whereas for assistance professionals this motive was the least frequent indication (5.4%). On the other hand, the desire to do something good for others was the second most common motive for beyond-duties engagement for assistance professionals (9.9%), while for creative professionals it was least frequently indicated (3.0%). Therefore, the first hypothesis was only partially confirmed.

Descriptive statistics

The initial analyzes included verification of normality of variable distribution and examination of the relationship between the dependent variable and other variables measured at the level of features. Two of the studied variables: self-efficacy and perseverance revealed deviations from normality. The descriptive statistics for the analyzed variables are presented in Table 2.

The relationships between the examined variables were measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The results of the correlation analysis revealed significant positive correlations of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties with meaningfulness of actions ($r = .40$), self-efficacy ($r = .32$), and perseverance in action ($r = .17$). Also, individual independent variables were significantly positively related to each other. Self-efficacy was positively correlated with the meaningfulness of actions ($r = .43$) and perseverance in action ($r = .39$), and meaningfulness of actions was positively associated with perseverance in action ($r = .32$).

Structural equations modeling

To verify the predictions regarding the relationship of self-efficacy, perseverance in action, meaningfulness of action, and values with engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties a structural equations modeling analysis with the PLS method was conducted using

Table 1. Motives for beyond-duties engagement in representatives of creative and assistance professions

Group		Motive			Total
		Self-actualization	Good of others	Both motives	
Assistance professions	Quantity	29 _a	6 _b	56 _b	91
	% of group	31.9%	6.6%	61.5%	100.0%
	% of total	14.4%	3.0%	27.7%	45.0%
Creative professions	Quantity	11 _a	20 _b	80 _b	111
	% of group	9.9%	18.0%	72.1%	100.0%
	% of total	5.4%	9.9%	39.6%	55.0%
Total	Quantity	40	26	136	202
	% of group	19.8%	12.9%	67.3%	100.0%
	% of total	19.8%	12.9%	67.3%	100.0%

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

Variable	N	M	MED	MIN	MAX	SD	KURT
Beyond-duties engagement	209	36.17	36	18	54	6.70	.086
Self-efficacy	209	30.97	31	17	40	3.45	-.279
Perseverance in action	209	40.92	41	27	50	5.21	-.328
Meaningfulness of actions	209	45.51	46	28	60	5.93	.095

the WarpPLS 6.0 software (Kock, 2017). The analysis makes use of the PTH2 algorithm that controls the error of measuring latent variables based on the Dijkstra PLS reliability factor (Kock, 2017). All variables in the analysis were defined as reflective latent variables (Pearl, 2009). The tested model assumes a linear relationship between them as well as a linear impact of moderating variables on the linear relationship between variables in the model.

Analysis of data fit coefficients to the measurement model of latent variables showed that the data were consistent with the measurement model ($SRMR = .11$, $SMAR = .09$) (Vinzi, Trinchero & Amato, 2010) and that variables measuring latent variables were significantly related to each other ($\chi^2(819) = 53.53$; $p < .001$). The tested latent variables were also characterized by a high level of reliability ($\alpha = .78 - .88$, $CR = .78 - .88$, $Dijkstra PLS = .79 - .90$). The measurement of the path model can be considered to have the desired measurement properties. The results of the data fit coefficients for the measurement model as well as reliability statistics are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

The analysis of path model coefficients showed that the increase in beyond-duties engagement was significantly associated with an increase in self-efficacy ($\beta = .19$, $t = 2.88$; $p < .01$) as well as an increase in the meaningfulness of action ($\beta = .35$, $t = 5.34$; $p < .001$). Therefore, the second and fourth hypotheses were confirmed. Perseverance in action was non-significantly

Table 3. Data fit coefficients to the measurement and path model

Model	Coefficient	Value
Path model	AVIF	1.42
	AFVIF	1.44
	GoF	.28
	SPR	1.00
	SSR	1.00
Measurement model	SRMR	.11
	SMAR	.09
	χ^2	53.53, $p < 0,001$

Note: AVIF = Average Variance Inflation Factor, AFVIF = Average Full VIF, GoF = Tenenhaus Good of Fit value, SPR = Simpsons Paradox Ratio, SSR = Statistical Suppression Ratio, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual SMAR = Standardized average total residual value, χ^2 = chi-square value.

associated with the level of beyond-duties engagement. As a result, the third hypothesis was not confirmed. In total, the examined independent variables explained about 22% of variability of the level of beyond-duties engagement ($\Delta R^2 = .22$). The results of the path coefficient estimates are presented in Figure 2.

Table 4. Coefficients of measurement accuracy of latent variables

	Self-efficacy	Perseverance in action	Meaningfulness of action	Beyond-duties engagement
CR	.78	.82	.88	.88
A	.78	.82	.88	.87
Dijkstra PLS	.79	.81	.90	.90
AVE	.27	.32	.38	.45
R ²	-	-	-	.23
ΔR^2	-	-	-	.22

Note: R² = coefficient of determination, ΔR^2 = corrected R², α = Cronbach's alpha, CR = Total reliability coefficient, Dijkstra PLS = DPLS reliability value, AVE = Average coefficient of variation

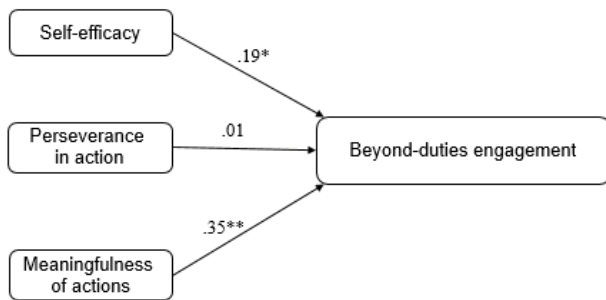


Figure 2. Estimates of β coefficients in the tested path model

Note: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

Moderation analysis

To demonstrate the impact of moderation variables on the relationships between the studied variables in the tested path model, an analysis of the total growth of the latent variable was performed (Kock, 2017; Sarstedt, Henseler & Ringle, 2011). Due to the use of this statistical technique, the influence of the moderation variable on all path relations tested in the model was relieved of collinearity. A separate analysis was performed for each moderation variable. A total of 10 analyzes of total latent variable growth were performed.

Moderation analysis showed that the professed value of tradition significantly increased the strength of the relationship between self-efficacy and beyond-duties engagement ($\beta = .13$, $t = 1.91$; $p < .05$). It also turned out the professed value of universalism significantly reduced the strength of the relationship between perseverance in action and beyond-duties engagement ($\beta = -.12$, $t = 1.81$; $p < .05$). Further analysis revealed no further statistically significant results. Consequently, the fifth hypothesis was not confirmed. The results of the moderation coefficient estimates are presented in Table 5.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to discern the main motives for engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties among various professional groups and to identify subjective and contextual factors that have positive relationships with beyond-duties engagement.

The results show that both representatives of assistance and creative professions are most often engaged in actions beyond basic professional duties both out of the desire for self-actualization and in order to do something good for others. It has to be highlighted that the representatives of assistance professions mentioned both motives significantly more often than the representatives of creative professions, who indicated the desire to do something good for others as the second most important motive for engaging in additional activities. As the next most common motive for beyond-duties engagement the representatives of creative professions, however, indicated the desire for self-actualization (Table 2). These results are only partly consistent with the initial predictions. Since the character and the main "object" of work of respondents from both groups of respondents are different (people

working mainly with others and performing assistance tasks for others versus people working mainly with matters and performing tasks of a creative nature at the request of others) it was assumed that in the first group the main motive for undertaking actions beyond basic professional duties would be the desire to help others and in the second group the desire to realize their own potential. It can be concluded that regardless of the occupation, the motives for engaging in actions beyond basic professional duties are complex, and the type of occupation is only partly related to those motives. Each profession may entail opportunities to do something good for others or to take actions to actualize employee's potential, and this depends only on the specific person to what extent he or she will take advantage of such opportunities. On the other hand, there are personality factors that predispose an individual to perform either creative or assistance jobs. Referring to John Holland's Theory of Career Choice (Holland, 1997), people with an artistic personality (which is characteristic of representatives of creative professions) like to create and design things or work with ideas. They use words, art, music, or drama to communicate, perform, or express themselves. They also enjoy tasks involving people or physical skills. On the other hand, individuals with a social personality (which is characteristic of representatives of assistance professions) like to work with people to teach, train, help, treat, heal, and serve them. They are also concerned about the wellbeing and welfare of others. As a consequence, specific personal predispositions may contribute to the occurrence of differences in the motives for undertaking additional activities at work by representatives of different professions.

Of all studied variables, the strongest relationship with the increase in beyond-duties engagement had the increase in the meaningfulness of actions, i.e. the belief that what I do is important and serves something greater than myself. According to literature, people undertake such actions to experience the sense of their life (Klamut, 2012), and work and performed activities play an important role in creating meaning in human life (Frankl, 1959/2009, Zeidler, 2011). Meaningful work is also assessed as important by individuals performing it and is positively evaluated by them (Lysova et al. 2019). Moreover, as shown by May et al. (2004), the more people assesses their work as meaningful, the more they are willing to engage in it. Therefore, it can be assumed that also the perception of meaningfulness of actions that go beyond basic professional duties increases the tendency of a person to engage in them. The greater the meaning attached to these activities, the greater the willingness of a person to devote their physical and mental energy to their implementation.

The results of the present study also revealed a significant relationship between the increase in the generalized sense of self-efficacy with an increase in beyond-duties engagement. As Bandura and Shunk (1981) argue people can be interested in a long term in activities in which they feel effective and from which they draw satisfaction in overcoming challenges. Research carried out in organiza-

Table 5. The impact of moderating variables on the strength of path relationships between variables in the model

Moderator	Path	β	t	p
Security ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	.05	.68	.247
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	.00	.01	.496
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.02	.27	.393
Power ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	.07	1.02	.156
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	.05	.73	.232
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	.01	.17	.431
Achievement ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	.01	.19	.427
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.10	1.48	.070
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.03	.37	.354
Hedonism ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.10	1.39	.165
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.08	1.20	.230
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.08	1.15	.250
Stimulation ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.07	1.07	.143
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.04	.60	.275
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.10	1.46	.072
Self-direction ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.04	.61	.272
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.03	.48	.317
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.01	.10	.460
Universalism ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.07	.99	.161
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.12	.81	.036
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.01	.09	.465
Benevolence ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.07	.03	.152
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	-.07	1.00	.158
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	.02	.33	.371
Tradition ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	.13	1.91	.029
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	.06	.82	.205
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	.03	.44	.332
Conformity ->	Self-efficacy -> Beyond-duties engagement	.10	1.42	.079
	Perseverance in action -> Beyond-duties engagement	.07	1.05	.148
	Meaningfulness of actions -> Beyond-duties engagement	.03	.49	.314

tions also showed that employees who perceive themselves as effective individuals undertake a greater initiative in their professional self-development and generating ideas aimed at improving the work process (Bandura, 2009). Therefore, the obtained results can be interpreted in such a way that if people consider themselves effective in carrying out additional tasks at work, they will be more willing to engage in them on their own initiative, because it gives them satisfaction and contributes to their development.

Perseverance in action did not show a significant relationship with the level of beyond-duties engagement.

This can be understood that mere persistence in action does not result in the fact that with more energy, focus, and a positive attitude a person will undertake additional activities at work. Other factors are needed such as the sense of efficacy in carrying out these activities, or perceiving a deeper meaning in them. General research on perseverance shows that it is primarily related to a person's motivational orientation (Ames, 1992; Koestner & Zuckerman, 1994). No specific studies on the relationship between work engagement and perseverance have been known. On the other hand, research on engagement in learning showed that the relationship between student

engagement and the likelihood of perseverance in learning was not linear. Although a higher level of social engagement was related to the increased probability of perseverance, a higher level of academic engagement was negatively related to such probability (Hu, 2011). Consequently, further analysis of the relationship between perseverance in action and beyond-duties engagement is necessary.

Due to the universal nature of values and their complex impact on human choices and behavior, it was expected that they would serve as a moderator between the relationships of selected determinants of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties and such engagement itself. The study used Schwartz's circular model of values (1992), which assumes the existence of 10 universal categories of values, i.e. tradition, conformity, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, and security (Cieciuch, 2013). The obtained results (Table 5) are inconsistent with the assumptions made about the positive moderating role of values. It can be assumed that only if a given person's work allows the realization of the professed value of tradition (understood as acceptance and maintenance of customs, ideas, and respect for tradition) then, thanks to the sense of self-efficacy, he or she can become more engaged in actions beyond basic professional duties. The relationship between compliance of performed actions and other values with the beyond-duties engagement turned out to be irrelevant or even negative (as was the case with universalism). The theoretical considerations made and the review of the results of research already carried out indicate that the values professed by a given person help to understand the person's behavior and motivation to act in various fields (Brzozowski, 2005; Bozeman 2019). These values may affect the type of additional activities in which the person is engaged, rather than their intensity. As with perseverance in action, the relationship between dominant values and engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties requires further research and analysis.

LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Despite many strengths of the study, its results should be assessed against a few limitations in the research design. First of all, the carried out research was a single, cross-sectional study. Further studies on determinants of beyond-duties engagement should be carried out among the same people at different times of the year in order to capture other contextual and situational factors that may contribute to taking additional actions at work. Secondly, only the questionnaire survey method was used. Unfortunately, the use of other methods, such as observation in the workplace or collecting opinions of respondents' superiors or colleagues, was not possible for technical and legal reasons. In the future, however, interviews with employees could be taken into account, which would constitute a valuable complement to the questionnaire methods. Thirdly, among the respondents there was a significant

majority of women (82%). This gender inequality results first of all from the fact that assistance professions, e.g. nurses, midwives, or social workers, are practiced mainly by women; secondly, among those invited to participate in the study, women refused to participate less often than men. It would be preferential to conduct further research on beyond-duties engagement among other groups of professionals with a greater number of men.

Regardless of its limitations, the present study constitutes a contribution to the theory and practice of organizational and occupational psychology. The knowledge gained during the research indicates the important role of both subjective and contextual factors in shaping employee behavior, aimed at self-actualization and/or the good of others. The role of self-efficacy and meaningfulness of actions in a person's engagement in additional activities at work has been demonstrated.

The results of the present study may also be used to create a list of good practices that team leaders and managers could apply in their organizations to enhance employees' beyond-duties engagement. First, managers should set goals for employees that are meaningful to them. Second, those goals should be achievable and, at the same time, challenging for employees. Third, team leaders should try to assign similar tasks to people with different professional experience. The possibility to achieve more at work and to observe and model the behavior of other, more experienced employees can increase a person's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2009). Besides, the management of companies or institutions may introduce specific changes to the way employees are managed in order to provide them with more autonomy in choosing tasks that will be valuable and meaningful for them, and the performance of which may contribute to improving their self-efficacy. As a consequence, the morale of employees and their sense of job satisfaction should also increase.

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