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Psychological Precursors and Manifestations of Daily Beyond-Duties Engagement Within the Assistance and Creative Professions

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Abstract

The study's first goal was to explore and analyze 'beyond-duties engagement' (employee engagement that exceeds basic professional duties) within the assistance and creative professions. The second goal was to explore relationships of daily beyond-duties engagement with autonomy in action, feedback from others, positive affect and subjective assessment of one's competences. Each participant completed a daily diary for 5-6 days, and data were obtained from 64 employees, aged 21-61 ($M = 38.91$, $SD = 8.99$), from each profession. Qualitative sorting of beyond-duties engagement yielded twelve categories with forty subcategories. Hierarchical linear modelling demonstrated a positive relationship between feedback from others and subjective assessment of one's competences with enhanced beyond-duties engagement. A mediation role of positive affect was also observed. When considered within the relevant organizational context, these findings may help predict how an employee, from a given profession, is likely to respond to specific, positive stimuli at work.

Keywords: beyond-duties engagement, autonomy in action, feedback from others, competences, positive affect

Introduction

As to employees within the humanistic paradigm, they are by nature development-oriented (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and strive to surpass their current levels of development (Nuttin, 1955). An essential aspect of such paradigm, moreover, is work (Jahoda, 1997). Professional development is not only a personal need but also an expressed or implied requirement of most employers. In today's complex, dynamic work environment, managers and team leaders expect employees to take initiative beyond the mere satisfactory completion of assigned tasks. To expand the role of the employee, therefore, specific management tools are called for; they include job enrichment, welcomed participation in group discussions, and empowerment, combined with transformational leadership, as appropriate, which can increase the level of employees' accountability for their decision making and actions (Campbell, 2000). From the perspectives of organizational psychology's theory and practice, therefore, a key criterion is the given employee's willingness to undertake proactive, additional work.

Other observed and documented changes within organizations during the last 20 years include increases in the perceived value of human capital; an integral part includes the psychological engagement of employees in advancing the given organization's mission, as well as increased interest in the oftentimes concomitant, positive mental states (Schaufeli, 2013). These phenomena have resulted in significant increases in publications regarding employee engagement, especially since the beginning of the 21st Century.

The literature, however, seems to lack studies specifically focused on the subject of proactive engagement in additional activities at work. Existing approaches regarding this issue pertain to obligations arising from the assignment of tasks, with substantially less attention paid to the employee's proactive engagement that exceeds basic professional duties or assigned tasks. The question of what types of additional activities are undertaken by employees when such tasks are not mandatory, therefore, is worthy of further study. Presented research can also help to identify specific stimuli to encourage, and help sustain, proactive daily beyond-duties engagement. This includes practical applications regarding how a given employee can best function within the organization; proactive engagement, over time, tends to align the employee's goals and objectives with those of the organization.



Additional Activities, Work Engagement and Beyond-Duties Engagement

Numerous researchers have shown in theory (Katz 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978), or as a result of empirical research (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Williams & Anderson, 1991), that additional behavior at work, beyond the basic professional duties (extra-role behavior / performance), can be distinguished from standard behavior in a professional role (in-role behavior / performance). In-role behavior is required or expected behavior and forms the basis of regular and continuous work (Katz, 1964). Employees who do not do what is required of them cannot, realistically, expect to receive discretionary financial incentives, and such failure to perform required duties could be grounds for termination (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Extra-role activities are discretionary actions (such as helping others) that typically are not explicitly required by the formal job description and remuneration system, but such additional activities, nevertheless, have been shown to promote overall organizational effectiveness (Becker & Kernan, 2003). Precisely distinguishing in-role from outside-role behavior, however, can be challenging in research practice, but defining this border is essential given that it regularly affects employees, colleagues, and superiors. Managers generally value proactive employee engagement because dynamic work environments, by definition, cannot fully anticipate and codify a comprehensive list of desired behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

The results of several studies suggest such a fundamental role played by additional tasks undertaken by employees. According to those carried out by Sonnentag (2003), the daily level of work engagement helped to predict proactive behavior generally. Other studies have shown that proactive goal generation is a strong predictor of individual innovative behavior at work (Odoardi, 2015). Therefore, it is essential to examine employee daily engagement in actions that go beyond basic professional duties.

There are several different ways to define and measure employee engagement in the literature (see: Kahn, 1990; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter 2001; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Stairs & Galpin, 2010; Schuck & Wollard, 2010). The most popular approach to this subject is the concept of work engagement by Schaufeli and Bakker (approx. 36,700 results for the entry: 'work engagement Schaufeli' in the Google Scholar database on 5 April, 2020). The authors define work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 74). Vigor is understood as maintaining high energy levels, resistance, and willingness to undertake sustained effort. Dedication is understood as a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is defined as concentration and cognitive engrossment or preoccupation by tasks performed, associated with the perceived rapid passing of time or difficulty in disengaging from such activities. Engagement, within such work context, however, has a nuanced, specific meaning beyond general effects or motivational states.

In addition to proposing different employee engagement concepts, researchers searched for factors that are antecedents and consequences of engagement at work. Factors positively related to work engagement, as indicated in the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) included job resources, such as social support of colleagues and superiors, feedback regarding results, autonomy and learning opportunities (Bakker and Demerouti, *op.cit.*; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), and personal resources such as active coping style (Rothmann & Storm, 2003), self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem and optimism (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007). The main effect of the engagement was an increase in productivity, which can be explained by enhanced employee engagement that include numerous positive emotions towards their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), and suffer, less frequently, from psychosomatic symptoms (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004); such employees also proactively create the personal resources (Salanova, Bakker & Llorens, 2006) and job resources (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009) to support their engagement.

While researching work engagement understood in accordance with the concept of Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), some authors (e.g., Sonnentag, 2003; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009) concluded that it is not only a particular disposition or behavior of an employee, but also can be the state that changes, over time, within a given person. Such personal-state engagement has been defined as a transient, work-related experience that fluctuates within individuals over short periods (Sonnentag, Dormann & Demerouti, 2010). According to Sonnentag and colleagues (2010), measuring work engagement at such within-person

or personal level can provide various benefits including the capturing of the dynamic variability of work engagement (see: Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011; Sonnentag, 2017); helping to identify the prerequisites for an employee to become fully engaged in their tasks on any given day (see Bakker 2014; Chacko & Conway, 2019), as well as providing stronger evidence about the causes and effects of engagement, rather than merely examining this construct at a general level (see Bormann, 2017). Construct "engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties", (beyond-duties engagement) is a rather long-lasting state of mind in which a person, at their own initiative, undertakes goal-oriented actions, related or not, to the employee's job position, and continues such actions irrespective of obstacles encountered or alternative aspirations (Božek & Malinowska, 2019). Performing such activities, in addition to one's primary professional duties, fully engages a person energetically, cognitively, and emotionally. This is effort that brings the person satisfaction and contributes towards personal development. This effect also can be a broadly-understood good, whose beneficiaries are colleagues, partners, and clients of the respective organization (Božek, 2020). On any given day, however, there is volatility within both basic work obligations and additional, beyond-duties engagement.

In the work and organizational psychology literature, specific phenomena relating to employee engagement beyond the minimum, basic work duties are described. A review of publications in this area (as of 17 June 2019) highlighted several constructs that are similar, but not identical, to beyond-duties engagement. These include: extra-role behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), proactive behavior (Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006), personal initiative (Frese *et al.*, 1997), job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Most of these such as extra-role behavior and proactive behavior, however, focus primarily on specific employee behavior and tend to ignore the physical, energy, cognitive, and emotional aspects of engagement. Some of them, such as contextual performance and personal initiative, concentrate more on the goals and benefits of the organization, without taking into account additional activities undertaken, proactively, for the employee's self-development.

Precursors of Daily Beyond-Duties Engagement

The research presented in the previous section concerns factors that positively relate to work engagement (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007) and subsequent meta-analysis of engagement prepared by Halbesleben (2010) correlates with dimensions that are positively related to job resources such as social support, autonomy, feedback, and personal resources such as self-efficacy. Thus, it can be assumed that a myriad of factors can stimulate beyond-duties engagement. Based upon research regarding work engagement and other positive work states and aspects, it was supposed that, at the daily level, these factors include: autonomy in action, feedback from others, and a sense of competence in the given area.. Maintaining a positive emotional state also is likely to help a person remain fully engaged.

The issue of autonomy at work includes theories that relate to job characteristics and work design. The first conceptualizations of work autonomy presented this as a uniform construct (see Turner & Lawrence, 1965; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Various other authors emphasized that autonomy at work has multiple dimensions (see Breaugh, 1985; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). The latter assumed that autonomy at work includes three interrelated aspects focused upon freedom in planning one's work, in making decisions related to tasks performed, and in choosing one's work methods. As a result of research conducted in the field of employee autonomy, it has been shown that such freedom tends to positively stimulate the satisfaction of basic employees' needs and mediates the relationship between task significance, feedback, and autonomous motivation (Gagné, Senekal & Koestner, 1997). Furthermore, jobs with different resources, including autonomy, are positively related to employee well-being (Van den Broeck, Vanstenkistee, De Witte & Lens, 2008).

In the literature on management, work, and organizational psychology, feedback is typically treated as an antecedent for other variables related to employee efficiency. One of the first publications to highlight, explicitly, the role of feedback in the workplace was Hackman and Oldham (1975). Although these authors focused on feedback from the perspective of work itself, earlier theories suggested that this form of feedback could come, as well, from work colleagues (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). The positive role of feedback in

increasing the efficiency and well-being of employees can be found throughout much of the relevant research literature. The research on work characteristics (Morgenson & Humprey, 2006), for example, showed that feedback from others positively correlates with the variety of tasks, social support, and interdependence. Other researchers have documented positive relationships between feedback and positive work engagement (Halbesleben, 2010).

Competence, or perceived competence, can be understood in multiple ways: as a motivational tendency (White, 1959); as a need (Deci & Ryan, 1980); as a system of specific personality traits (Smith, 1968); as the efficiency with which a person functions in complex and variable conditions, tasks, or social roles (McClelland, 1973); or regarding the scope of one's knowledge, rights, and responsibility, including the level of one's skills (Tucholska, 2005). According to Keen (1992), competence refers to the ability to take action and cope with emerging and changing situations. Irrespective of the conceptualization of competences, however, they typically are associated with the unique traits of the individual, including one's needs, attitudes, and innate qualities as well as those acquired via education and work experience. Each person's unique combination of competences allows the individual employee to achieve goals and objectives in an effective manner and at the appropriate level. They also are revealed, over time, as such traits and competencies manifest themselves vis-à-vis actions throughout the workplace (Tucholska, 2005).

The word 'affect' refers to the class or category of mental states that include emotions, moods, attitudes and affect dispositions (Frijda & Scherer, 2009). Some researchers distinguish two dimensions of affect: pleasure - unpleasantness, or positive affect - negative affect (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Positive affect (PA) reflects the degree to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. Negative affect (NA) is a general dimension of subjective distress or unpleasant engagement that subsumes various aversive mood states (Watson, Clark & Tellegen 1988, p. 1063). Tellegen *et al.* (1999) assert that PA and NA are relatively independent dimensions. High PA is a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasant engagement, whereas low PA is characterized by sadness and lethargy. High NA is a state of feeling anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, or nervousness, whereas low NA is characterized by calmness and serenity (Watson *et al.*, 1988). The relative independence of such constructs is demonstrated by the results of studies on the relationship between affect and other states. Positive, but not negative, affect, for example, correlates positively with social activity and the frequency of physical exercise; negative affect, but not positive, correlates positively with the degree or intensity of physical ailments and perceived stress (Watson, 1988). There are many theories and empirical studies suggesting close links between work motivation and emotions (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1990; McShane & Van Glinow, 2006). This is also the case regarding work engagement; its high level is associated with the presence of positive feelings about work, such as happiness and enthusiasm while performing professional duties (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). Positive affect may pertain not only directly to employee engagement but also to strengthened relationships of this variable vis-a-vis other positive states at work. Research conducted among the academic and administrative staff of a leading Dutch university, for example, showed that the experience of positive emotions during the prior day had an indirect, positive impact on the level of vigour, dedication, and absorption during the given subsequent day and was perceived as a feeling of hope (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli & van Wijnhe, 2012).

The Present Study

These considerations led to the following research questions:

1. Which types of action do employees take at work that go beyond their basic professional duties (qualitative research)?
2. Which factors have a positive relationship with daily beyond-duties engagement (quantitative research)?

It was predicted (Figure 1) that, on a daily basis, the level of beyond-duties engagement was higher when: 1. the level of autonomy of action was higher; 2. the frequency of receiving feedback from others about the course and effectiveness of their own actions was higher; 3. the level of subjective assessment of one's competences in the given field of undertaken action was higher; 4. the positive affect during action was

higher; and 5. affect mediated the relationship between autonomy in action, feedback from others, and the subjective assessment of one's own competences.

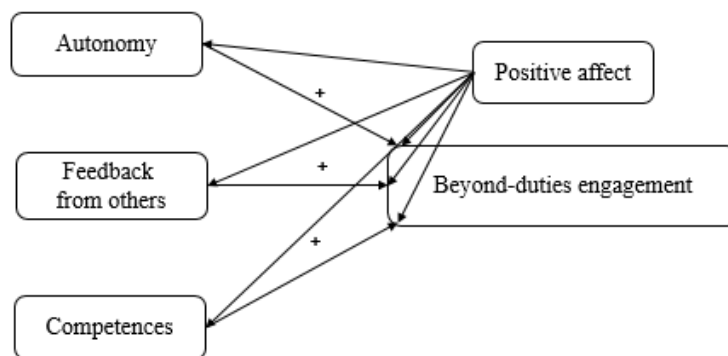


Figure 1. Precursors of daily beyond-duties engagement

It also was assumed that one's motivation to engage, proactively, in additional activities at work may differ depending upon occupation type. Assistance employees working on behalf of others may be guided by different motives than employees working, primarily on their own behaves, within the creative sectors.. Therefore, for contrast purposes, it was decided to research both assistant employees and creative employees working, primarily, on their own behaves (without impugning the work of assistant employees, however, by implying that they lack creativity).

modified to measure beyond-duties engagement (Bożek & Malinowska, 2019). The questionnaire contained 9 items, which consisted of three, 3-aspect scales: daily vigor, daily dedication, and daily absorption. Instructions and the respective aspects were modified in a manner suitable for measuring beyond-duties engagement. Participants rated items on a 7-point scale from (0 - never / strongly disagree) to (6 - always / strongly agree). Examples of items were 'Today, my actions inspired me' or 'Today, I felt proud of the actions that I took'. The internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha coefficient, for all scales of the modified version of SWE, across the days of measurement was: $\alpha_{vigor} = .89$; $\alpha_{absorption} = .86$; $\alpha_{dedication} = .89$

The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ) by Morgeson and Humprey (2006) was developed to analyze work characteristics. The Polish adaptation was prepared by Hauk (2014). The original tool contained 21 scales. As a result of the Polish adaptation of the tool, the number of theorems was reduced to 46 from 11 scales. Two scales were used in the described research: autonomy and feedback from others. The scale of autonomy consisted of items. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency factor for the Polish version was .77. The scale of feedback from others consisted of 3 qualitative aspects. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency factor for the Polish version was .83 (Hauk, 2014). On both scales, respondents selected one of five alternative potential statements on a 5-point scale from (1 - 'I do not agree at all' to 5 - 'I completely agree').

The competence scale used in the Daily Well-being procedure, in which participants rated on a scale from (1 'completely inefficient') to (7 'completely effective') how effective they felt when performing a specific activity previously provided by the participant. The daily competence score was calculated by averaging the results of all listed activities. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient, in the current research, was .78. The study also used a 5-point Likert scale.

Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) was designed to measure, respectively, positive and negative affect. The Polish adaptation was prepared by Brzozowski (2010). The scale used in the research consisted of 20 adjectives: 10 pertained to positive emotional states (e.g., excited, strong, enthusiastic); 10 pertained to negative emotional states (e.g., ashamed, nervous, afraid). The respondents rated each on a 5-point Likert scale, from (1 'very slightly' or 'not at all') to (5 'extremely') according to the degree to which these descriptions reflected the given participant's emotional state at that

moment. Regarding the internal consistency factor of the Polish version, Cronbach's alpha coefficient varied between .73 and .95 depending upon the sample type (Brzozowski, 2010).

In the prepared diary, at the end of work each day, or later that evening, participants specified and listed three activities that, directly or indirectly, pertained to their professional lives and that exceeded the basic work duties required by their organization or institution. Specifically, this regarded what had occupied most of their time that particular day. Then participants described the degree to which they had been empowered to take decisions regarding which specific activities to undertake, including how and when they could carry out such work. They also were asked about their well-being while performing such actions that were deemed beyond the scope of their basic professional duties. They also were asked about their emotional states, actually experienced, as they undertook such work. Additionally, they were asked to what extent their knowledge and skills enabled them to carry out such actions, effectively, and whether they received any feedback during the course of their actions or, thereafter, feedback regarding their success or lack thereof. Closed-ended questions were answered on a 7 or 5-point Likert scale deemed appropriate to the questions in the study.

Procedure

To recruit participants who met the study's criteria, a list of institutions and companies employing workers practicing assistance and creative professions, in several major cities in southern Poland, was created. Emails were sent to selected organizations with an invitation to participate in the subject research, and further details regarding the research were provided on LinkedIn and Facebook for the benefit of prospective participants. Additionally, a project website was designed to inform both current and prospective future participants about the purpose, significance and process of the study, to encourage greater rates of participation in the study. The study was carried out electronically and in paper form. Initially, only electronic research was planned, but many assistance professionals did not have access to personal computers or, oftentimes, even smartphones to record their activities in digital form. Therefore, the paper form was also included in the study. Before the study began, the respondents agreed to participate, verbally at in-person meetings, by telephone, or, alternatively, by email. When participants received their first set of questionnaires, they agreed to participate in the study, again, by ticking the affirmative answer under the appropriate formula.

Subjects completed an electronic (surveyMonkey.com platform) or paper daily diary during the late afternoons or evenings for 5-6 consecutive days per week (from Monday to Friday or Saturday, depending upon whether Saturday was deemed a workday at their organization.. In the case of employees working 12-hour shifts, for 5-6 consecutive days, they were asked to set a reminder to fill in their diary, ideally on their watch or mobile phone.

Analytical Strategy

Obtained data from daily studies were subjected to multilevel analysis using hierarchical linear modelling. Hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) is a complex form of ordinary least squares regression (OLS) that is used to analyze the variance of result variables when predictor variables are at different hierarchical levels (Woltman, Feldstain, MacKay & Rocchi, 2012). In the presented study, 343 cases (41 participants × 5 days + 23 participants × 6 days) were subjected to the analysis at the 'within-person' level. For this purpose, the SPSS 22 program was used. To distinguish categories of actions that go beyond basic professional duties, a qualitative analysis of the types of activities listed by participants, in their respective daily diaries, was performed.

Results

Qualitative Analysis

To specify the actions categories that exceeded the basic professional duties, a qualitative analysis of such activities was undertaken. Each participant was asked to record 5-6 consecutive days of work. Specifically, each participant was asked to write about daily actions undertaken that pertained to their professional

duties, but that exceeded the minimum scope of job obligations required by their organization and that occupied most of their time on the given day.

The first step of analysis was to list all actions undertaken in one column of the relevant table. In this way, 885 distinct activity records were entered. This was reduced to 696, however, via the elimination of some overlapping or similar categories. In the second step, two researchers analyzed, independently, the name of each specific activity, assigning each to one of the 40 distinct subcategories. This was realized by searching for slightly broader or more general names for several categories. Both versions of the analyzes then were compared to agree the final list of distinct actions subcategories. In exceptional cases in which a particular action did not fit, realistically, within any resulting subcategory, however, it was recorded under the 'other' miscellaneous sub-category. In the final step, 12 main categories of actions that exceeded basic professional duties were specified. All categories are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Categories of actions that go beyond basic professional duties

| Main categories of additional actions | Subcategories of additional actions |
|----------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Learning and development</i> | Vocational training, client training, employee training, self-development |
| 2. <i>Communication</i> | Conversation with client, conversation with colleague, conversation with service provider, correspondence, promotion on the internet |
| 3. <i>Managing yourself, others, and processes</i> | Planning, organizing, controlling, self-monitoring, recruiting employees, activities related to finance |
| 4. <i>Working with data and documents</i> | Searching, analyzing documents, preparing documents |
| 5. <i>Work related to specialist skills</i> | Creative work, technical work, medical activities, care activities |
| 6. <i>Manual labor</i> | Office manual work, creative manual work, other manual work |
| 7. <i>Helping or assisting others</i> | Helping clients, helping colleagues |
| 8. <i>Intervention and correction work</i> | Intervention, correction? |
| 9. <i>Formal and informal interactions</i> | Participation in formal meetings, participation in informal events |
| 10. <i>Caring for cleanliness and order</i> | Cleaning, making order |
| 11. <i>Additional unforeseen work</i> | Serving as a colleague's temporary replacement, overtime unpaid work |
| 12. <i>Transitional activities</i> | Meals, shopping, moving work, physical activity, private activities |

The most frequent beyond-duties actions subcategory was preparation of documents (7.3%), such as applications (e. g. for competitions), offers, outlines, and forms. Customer assistance (6.7%) was second. Representatives of assistance professions most often helped their clients undertake everyday activities such as hygiene or beauty care (hairstyles, makeup); they oftentimes undertook small favors for such groups, including shopping, helping to prepare gifts for loved ones, helping to operate electronic equipment belonging to their clients (primarily help with cellphones) or accompanying them during visits or meetings with those from other professions such as doctors or bailiffs. Creative professionals provided these forms of support less frequently to their clients; the support that they did provide tended to be sharing of knowledge, consulting, or advice regarding topics such as internet forums or similar support. The third most frequent

subcategory of beyond-duties actions (6.6%) was having a conversation with the client. In the case of both creative and assistance representatives, such conversations typically were aimed at maintaining client relationships, establishing mutual interactions (especially process ground rules or guidelines for such interactions) and consulting topics reported by clients. Representatives of assistance professions also frequently provided emotional support to their clients in the form of supportive or therapeutic conversations (especially when their clients experienced challenging situations, personally or interpersonally, in particular difficult discussions with loved ones). Creative work (6.3%) was the fourth most frequent subcategory. Most creative professionals undertook artistic activities, at their own initiative, such as taking pictures of people or objects, visualizing prepared products or services, providing drawings or graphics, as well as non-artistic tasks such as helping to design and implement solutions to enhance organizational efficiency. Representatives of assistant professions, however, more frequently undertook creative manual work, such as preparing Christmas cards and decorations (the study also covered the Christmas holiday period). Vocational training (6.2%) was the fifth most frequent category. Representatives of both the creative and assistance professions studied various documents, during working hours, such as industry publications, and participated in training and workshops to enhance their knowledge and professional skills; they also reviewed a range of training documents regarding coursework pertaining to professional exams and certifications etc.

Reliability, Descriptive Statistics, and Relations Between Variables

To verify the measurement accuracy of individual variables, reliability analysis was performed using Cronbach's *alpha* method. Coefficients were calculated for all variables, individually, for 5-6 days of measurement (Woltman, Feldstain, MacKay & Rocchi, 2012). The analysis showed that measurements, from any given day relative to other measurements taken that same day, were mostly characterized by high reliability $\alpha = 0.60 - 0.96$ (Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006). The corresponding values are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and an assessment of the reliability of measurements for within-level.

| Measurement / day | Statistics | Day 1 | Day 2 | Day 3 | Day 4 | Day 5 | Day 6 |
|--------------------------|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | α | .86 | .96 | .95 | .92 | .94 | .91 |
| Autonomy | M | 4.27 | 4.22 | 4.18 | 4.13 | 4.34 | 4.38 |
| | SD | .82 | 1.09 | 1.11 | 1.01 | 1.01 | .78 |
| | α | .63 | .87 | .74 | .75 | .81 | .91 |
| Competences | M | 4.34 | 4.32 | 4.36 | 4.31 | 4.32 | 4.29 |
| | SD | .65 | .85 | .75 | .73 | .79 | .82 |
| | α | .60 | .84 | .84 | .88 | .77 | .83 |
| Feedback from others | M | 3.17 | 3.25 | 2.95 | 3.13 | 3.03 | 2.59 |
| | SD | .76 | .98 | 1.09 | 1.01 | .92 | 1.01 |
| | α | .91 | .93 | .94 | .93 | .95 | .93 |
| Beyond-duties engagement | M | 2.97 | 3.14 | 3.08 | 3.21 | 3.07 | 2.57 |
| | SD | 1.04 | 1.19 | 1.16 | 1.13 | 1.24 | .97 |
| | α | .90 | .92 | .93 | .95 | .94 | .94 |
| Positive affect | M | 2.85 | 2.99 | 3.00 | 3.06 | 2.95 | 2.63 |
| | SD | .72 | .79 | .89 | .86 | .94 | .85 |

Further analysis showed numerous relationships between variables. The increase in the level of autonomy in action was significantly associated with an increase in the level of subjective assessment of one's own competences ($r = .50$; $p < .001$), beyond-duties engagement ($r = .21$; $p < .001$), and positive affect during action ($r = .27$; $p < .001$). The increase in the level of subjective assessment of one's own competences was significantly associated with an increase in the level of feedback from others ($r = .12$; $p < .05$), beyond-duties engagement ($r = .33$; $p < .001$), and positive affect during action ($r = .31$; $p < .001$). The increase in the level of feedback from others was associated with an increase in beyond-duties engagement ($r = .29$; $p < .001$) and positive affect during action ($r = .21$; $p < .001$). The last analysis showed an increase in the level of beyond-duties engagement and an increase of positive affect during action ($r = .82$; $p < .001$).

Mixed Effects Analysis

A series of linear hierarchical models were used to verify the results of the daily diary study. Three subsequent, mixed-effects analysis models were tested. In the first (null) model, only the random constant of the regression equation was tested (average level of beyond-duties engagement for each subject). In this analysis, the variability of autonomy in action, subjective assessment of one's competences, feedback from others (model 2) and positive affect during the action (model 3) were tested as permanent effects. Subsequent daily diary measurements (level 1) were nested within individual subjects (level 2).

Preliminary analysis of the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), for the beyond-duties engagement variable, showed that approximately 49% of the total variance in the results was accounted for by interpersonal variability. Intraclass correlation can be interpreted as the expected correlation between two, randomly-selected measurements but regarding the same individual. Such a high ICC score is the basis for testing the effects of mixed analysis. The analysis of the second model included the analysis of specific variables: autonomy, competences, and feedback from others. The inclusion of these variables significantly strengthened the data matching of the second statistical model ($\Delta - 2 \times \log = 39.47$; $p < .001$) vis-à-vis that of model 1 that served as a reference. Analysis of this model showed that autonomy in action did not have a significant relationship with beyond-duties engagement ($\beta = .05$, $t = .85$; $p > .05$). The increase of beyond-duties engagement, however, was associated with an increase in the level of feedback from others ($\beta = .26$, $t = 4.62$; $p < .001$) and an increase in the level of subjective assessment of one's own competences ($\beta = .23$, $t = 3.03$; $p < .01$). The inclusion of these variables accounted for 7% of the total variability in beyond-duties engagement ($R^2 = .07$). The third model included positive affect in the analysis of variables. The inclusion of the positive affect variable significantly enhanced the fit of the data to the second statistical model ($\Delta - 2 \times \log = 307.06$; $p < .001$) (model 2 was the reference model). Analysis of this model showed that autonomy in action still did not exhibit a significant statistical relationship with beyond-duties engagement ($\beta = .00$, $t = .05$; $p > .05$). The positive relationship of beyond-duties engagement with the level of subjective assessment of one's own competences ($\beta = .10$, $t = 1.99$; $p < .05$) and with feedback from others ($\beta = .14$, $t = 3.79$; $p < .001$), however, remained. The analysis also showed that the increase in positive affect correlated positively with the increase in the level of beyond-duties engagement ($\beta = 1.00$, $t = 22.41$; $p < .001$). The model with the previously noted variables plus the positive affect variable, moreover, explained 60% of the total variability of beyond-duties engagement ($R^2 = .60$). The results of the analysis are presented in Table 3.

Mediation Analysis

After averaging indicators of all variables at level 1 (days), they were centralized relative to the high average (Petrou *et al.*, 2012). The data prepared, in this manner, were subjected to multi-level mediation analysis carried out using an SPSS program (Mayers, 2013). To calculate the estimates of multilevel mediation, the MLmed Beta 2 macro implemented in the program (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020; Rockwood, 2019) was used. Three independent mediation models were utilized, separately, for each, independent variable. The analyzes were aimed at verifying the relationship between daily autonomy in action, daily subjective assessment of one's own competences, and daily feedback from others (independent variables) daily beyond-duties engagement (dependent variable). A mediator was introduced between independent and dependent variables; this was daily positive affect. Preliminary analyzes of the tested models showed that data, on the

relationship between variables that are constant rather than random, are best suited to the model (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020; Heck, Thomas & Tabata, 2010). Only random effects in the reported analyzes were considered at the level of residuals and interpersonal constants for positive affect and beyond-duties engagement.

Table 3. Analysis of mixed effects of the impact of autonomy in action, subjective assessment of one's own competences, feedback from others and positive affect on beyond-duties engagement.

| Model | Model 1 | | Model 2 | | Model 3 | |
|----------------------|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|-----------|
| Parameter | β | T | β | t | β | T |
| Constant | 3.09 | 27.98*** | 1.05 | 2.87*** | -.74 | -3.04*** |
| Autonomy | - | - | .05 | .85 | .00 | .05 |
| Competences | - | - | .23 | 3.03** | .10 | 1.99* |
| Feedback from others | - | - | .26 | 4.62*** | .14 | 3.79*** |
| Positive affect | - | - | - | - | 1.00 | 22.41*** |
| -2 x log | | 952.55 | | 913.08 | - | 606.02 |
| Δ - 2 x log | | | | 39.47*** | | 307.06*** |
| Df | | | | 3.00 | | 1.00 |
| Random parameters | | | | | | |
| Rest | .67 | | .62 | | .27 | |
| Constant (variance) | .64 | | .48 | | .14 | |
| R ² | - | | .07 | | .60 | |
| ICC | .49 | | - | | - | |

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The first analysis showed that only at level 2 (subjects), was autonomy in action significantly and positively associated with positive affect. Further analysis showed that, at levels 1 and 2, positive affect was associated with beyond-duties engagement. At levels 1 and 2, however, autonomy in action was not significantly correlated with the level of beyond-duties engagement. An analysis of mediation results showed that, at level 1 of the analysis, there was no observed, significant, mediating effect of positive affect, between autonomy in action and beyond-duties engagement. At level 2, however, the analysis showed that positive affect significantly mediated the relationship between autonomy and beyond-duties engagement. In addition, the analysis of the contextual difference between mediation coefficients showed that the intensity of the mediation effect was significantly stronger at level 2 than at level 1.

The second analysis showed that at levels 1 and 2, subjective assessment of one's own competences was significantly associated with a higher level of positive affect. Further analysis showed that, at level 1, subjective assessment of one's own competences and positive affect were significantly, and positively, associated with beyond-duties engagement. At level 2, however, only positive affect was significantly correlated with beyond-duties engagement. Analysis of mediation results showed that at level 1 of the analysis, a significant effect of mediating positive affect was observed between subjective assessment of one's own competences and beyond-duties engagement. A similar effect was observed at level 2. The analysis of the contextual difference between the mediation coefficients, however, showed that the intensity of the mediation effect was significantly stronger at level 2 than at level 1.

Table 4. Results of multilevel mediation analysis

| Effect | Relationship | B | S.E. | df | t | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------|------|--------|--------|------|--------|-------|
| Level 1 (days) | Intercept | .01 | .07 | 62.48 | .21 | .837 | -.13 | .15 |
| | Autonomy -> Positive affect | .04 | .05 | 279.60 | .86 | .393 | -.05 | .13 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Autonomy -> Positive affect | .44 | .11 | 60.90 | 4.10 | .001 | .22 | .65 |
| Level 1 (days) | Intercept | .00 | .05 | 61.98 | .07 | .943 | -.10 | .11 |
| | Autonomy -> Beyond-duties engagement | .05 | .04 | 279.18 | 1.21 | .229 | -.03 | .12 |
| | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .99 | .50 | 279.18 | 19.55 | .000 | .89 | 1.08 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Autonomy -> Beyond-duties engagement | -.15 | .09 | 61.98 | 1.59 | .116 | -.34 | .04 |
| | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | 1.29 | .10 | 61.98 | 13.13 | .000 | 1.09 | 1.48 |
| Data fitting to the model | -2LL | 1429.84 | B | S.E. | Wald Z | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
| Random effects statistics | Rests (level 1) | Positive affect | .40 | .03 | 11.82 | .000 | .33 | .47 |
| | | Beyond-duties engagement | .28 | .02 | 11.82 | .000 | .24 | .33 |
| | Intercepts (level 2) | Positive affect | .23 | .05 | 4.20 | .000 | .14 | .36 |
| | | Beyond-duties engagement | .13 | .03 | 3.94 | .000 | .08 | .21 |
| Effect | Relationship | B | S.E. | df | t | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
| Level 1 (days) | Intercept | .02 | .07 | 63.37 | .23 | .818 | -.12 | .15 |
| | Competences -> Positive affect | .11 | .06 | 280.49 | 1.94 | .053 | .00 | .23 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Competences -> Positive affect | .67 | .14 | 63.76 | 4.93 | .000 | .40 | .95 |
| | Intercept | .00 | .06 | 62.10 | .06 | .954 | -.11 | .11 |
| Level 1 (days) | Competences -> Beyond-duties engagement | .10 | .05 | 279.10 | 2.05 | .042 | .00 | .20 |
| | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .98 | .05 | 279.10 | 19.37 | .000 | .88 | 1.08 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Competences -> Beyond-duties engagement | .11 | .13 | 62.59 | .80 | .429 | .88 | 1.08 |
| | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | 1.17 | .10 | 61.89 | 11.25 | .000 | .96 | 1.38 |
| Data fitting to the model | -2LL | 1429.84 | B | S.E. | Wald Z | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
| Random effects statistics | Rests (level 1) | Positive affect | .38 | .03 | 11.84 | .000 | .33 | .46 |
| | | Beyond-duties engagement | .28 | .02 | 11.82 | .000 | .24 | .33 |
| | Intercepts (level 2) | Positive affect | .20 | .05 | 4.12 | .000 | .13 | .33 |
| | | Beyond-duties engagement | .14 | .03 | 4.00 | .000 | .08 | .22 |

| Effect | Relationship | B | S.E. | df | t | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|---------|------|--------|--------|------|--------|-------|
| Level 1 (days) | Intercept | .02 | .80 | 63.27 | .22 | .824 | -.13 | .17 |
| | Feedback -> Positive affect | .11 | .05 | 280.38 | 2.36 | .019 | .02 | .21 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Feedback -> Positive affect | .25 | .11 | 63.43 | 2.28 | .026 | .03 | .48 |
| | Intercept | .00 | .05 | 61.84 | .03 | .977 | -.11 | .11 |
| Level 1 (days) | Feedback -> Beyond-duties engagement | .14 | .04 | 279.05 | 3.53 | .001 | .06 | .22 |
| | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .97 | .05 | 279.05 | 19.33 | .000 | .87 | 1.06 |
| | Feedback -> Beyond-duties engagement | .13 | .08 | 62.06 | 1.58 | .118 | -.04 | .29 |
| Level 2 (subjects) | Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | 1.18 | .09 | 61.58 | 12.98 | .000 | 1.00 | 1.36 |
| Data fitting to the model | -2LL | 1344.43 | B | S.E. | Wald Z | p | DG95 % | GG95% |
| Random effects statistics | Positive affect | .39 | .03 | 11.84 | .000 | .33 | .46 | |
| | Rests (level 1) Beyond-duties engagement | .27 | .02 | 11.81 | .000 | .23 | .32 | |
| | Positive affect | .28 | .06 | 4.46 | .000 | .18 | .44 | |
| | Intercepts (level 2) Beyond-duties engagement | .13 | .03 | 4.00 | .000 | .08 | .22 | |

Note. B = Non-standardized assessment B; S.E. = Standard error of the non-standardized B estimate; Z = Z statistics; p = statistical significance; MC DG - GG95% = Lower and upper limit of 95% confidence interval for B estimated using Monte Carlo simulation.

The third analysis showed that, at levels 1 and 2, feedback from others was significantly associated with a higher level of positive affect. Further analysis showed that, at level 1, feedback together with positive affect was significantly and positively associated with beyond-duties engagement. At level 2, however, only positive affect was significantly associated with beyond-duties engagement. Analysis of mediation results showed that at level 1 of the analysis, a significant effect of mediating positive affect was observed between feedback from others and beyond-duties engagement. An analogous effect was observed at level 2. The analysis of the contextual difference between the mediation coefficients, however, showed that the intensity of the mediation effect was slightly stronger at level 2 than at level 1. The results of all of the above analyzes are set out in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 5. The results of the mediation analysis of positive affect between autonomy in action, subjective assessment of one's own competences, feedback from others, and beyond-duties engagement.

| Effect | Indirect effect | B | S.E. | Z | p | MC DG95% | MC GG95% |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Level (days) | 1 Autonomy -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .04 | .05 | .85 | 0.393 | -.03 | .12 |
| Level (subjects) | 2 Autonomy -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .56 | .14 | 3.91 | 0.000 | .29 | .85 |
| Contextual difference between the severity of the indirect effect between the levels of analysis | | .52 | - | - | - | .24 | .83 |
| Level (days) | 1 Competences -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .11 | .06 | 1.93 | 0.054 | .00 | .22 |
| Level (subjects) | 2 Competences -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .79 | .18 | 4.50 | 0.000 | .47 | 1.15 |



| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|------|------|
| Contextual difference between the severity of the indirect effect between the levels of analysis | | .68 | - | - | - | .33 | 1.06 |
| Level (days) | 1 Feedback -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .11 | .50 | 2.34 | 0.020 | .02 | .20 |
| Level (subjects) | 2 Feedback -> Positive affect -> Beyond-duties engagement | .30 | .13 | 2.24 | 0.025 | .05 | .56 |
| Contextual difference between the severity of the indirect effect between the levels of analysis | | .19 | - | - | - | -.08 | .47 |

Note. B = Non-standardized assessment B; S.E. = Standard error of the non-standardized B estimate; Z = Z statistics; p = statistical significance; MC DG - GG95% = Lower and upper limit of 95% confidence interval for B estimated using Monte Carlo simulation.

Discussion

The first goal of the research was to explore the phenomenon of engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties by defining and investigating such actions that exceed employees' basic job responsibilities. The second goal was to examine the relationships between selected job resources (autonomy in action, feedback from others) as well and personal resources (subjective assessment of one's own competences) and positive affect during daily-level actions with beyond-duties engagement.

According to the provided definition, engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties concerns thoughts, emotions, and behaviors at work, at one's own initiative, beyond the basic requirements specified by the given employee's organization. The qualitative analysis results regarding the participants' statements suggest that such activities can be observed in numerous areas. The surveyed representatives of the assistance and creative professions most often were engaged in the preparation of documents that allowed them and their organizations to raise capital or to source new clients; the representatives also helped strengthen existing client relationships and relationships with existing business partners of their respective organizations and helped develop their own competencies as well as those of their colleagues. Assistance work is primarily associated with direct contact with others, whereas creative work entails the design and implementation of something new such as designing buildings, furnishing interiors, or designing and preparing posters, logos, advertising, or marketing materials etc. Tasks related to the preparation of various documents, however, are common to, and a precondition of, the efficient and effective operation of virtually any type of organization desiring to develop and grow. . Therefore, the undertaking of such additional, proactive tasks by employees regarding this type of activities tends to be valued, understood, and appreciated by the organizations and management.

Another common type of beyond-duties actions was the providing of supplemental assistance to a diverse range of clients. Other forms of help provided by assistance professions staff took the form of small favors, oftentimes pertaining to everyday activities, especially regarding the proper use of electronic equipment. Such proactive offers of assistance or support typically are passively accepted and positively viewed by the recipients of such help. Assistance provided to clients by representatives of creative professions, however, primarily concerned the providing of advice or sharing of knowledge such as regarding internet forums. These offers of help, interestingly, typically require at least some participation by the recipients. This form of assistance, therefore, is referred to as instrumental help. Given the form of such proactive offers of support and the greater relative frequency among assistance professionals, it is reasonable to postulate that such behavior is affected by both situational and personality factors. If an assistance professional is dealing with someone who has difficulty performing a particular action (relatively common for clients of nurses, midwives, and social workers) and providing such help is not overly burdensome on the given assistance provider, they typically are inclined to provide such assistance, to help a fellow human being, in the spirit of kindness or altruism. Representatives from the creative professions, however, may have fewer opportunities to assist their clients in such an overt manner, and, therefore, may be inclined to draw more heavily upon their specialized knowledge, technical, and professional skills to provide support.

Research subjects also were involved, frequently, in additional activities in the form of conversations with clients aimed at maintaining relationships, establishing mutually-rewarding interactions, providing consulting advice about topics of interest, or regarding the offering of emotional support, as appropriate (but emotional support, with few exceptions in the study, was provided only by assistance professionals). It can be assumed, moreover, that such conversations tend to be spontaneous, resulting from the needs signaled by clients as well as being motivated by universal needs for affiliation and kindness, especially from hospital staff and social workers.

Creative work was the fourth most frequently indicated type of additional activities undertaken at work. It includes activities of an artistic nature (e.g., preparation of visualizations, taking photographs) as well as non-artistic activities (e.g., optimization of network resources). It was anticipated that these types of additional, proactive activities were substantially more prevalent among representatives of the creative professions, who have more space and permission to initiate such activities than do representatives of the assistance professions, who often work in hierarchical institutions with clearly-defined rules of conduct that limit the employee's empowerment vis-à-vis proactive artistic or creative expression.

The fifth most frequent type of beyond-duties action was vocational training, including the review of industry publications, as well as participation in training and workshops aimed at expanding knowledge and skills, as well as learning from available documents and written notes. Given the dynamic changes throughout most of the modern work environment and the intense competition among leading, major organizations, there also is substantial pressure to integrate new technologies that may, over time, tend to reduce the number of employees (Wanberg & Banas, 2000); vocational training becomes essential, therefore, not only to learn to perform, better, one's existing duties, but also to survive within such dynamic, fluid, and competitive work environments. Moreover, employers value employees with specialized knowledge, especially when this is combined with a self-development mindset (Božek, 2017). It can be assumed, therefore, that the impetus to undertake proactive, additional activities to expand one's professional competences does not turn so much on profession type, but rather on personal ambitions and employee mindsets, as well as emerging opportunities within the given employee's organization.

Referring to the assumptions regarding the consequences of beyond-duties engagement, it is reasonable to assert, therefore, that proactively undertaking additional work contributes to the subject employee's development, as well as to the development of the employee's co-workers, clients, and organization. This can be observed in the respective subcategories of additional activities at work, such as vocational training, self-development, client training, employee training, helping clients, helping colleagues, and undertaking interventions.

As a result of the literature review, factors at the within-person, individual (daily) level were also identified, and such factors may be precursors of daily, proactive engagement in actions beyond basic professional duties. This includes: autonomy in action, subjective assessment of one's own competences regarding actions taken, feedback from others, and positive affect during such proactive actions.

The analysis (see Table 3) showed that of the selected variables, the increase in the daily level of feedback from others within the organization had the strongest relationship with an increase in daily beyond-duties engagement. This type of feedback, typically, is provided by supervisors, colleagues, and others within the workplace, and depends upon the specific activities performed and their perceived quality and effectiveness. Feedback from others is a social job resource (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001) and, according to existing research (Halbesleben, 2010), has shown a positive relationship with employee engagement. It can be concluded, therefore, that if a person undertakes additional tasks at work on their own initiative, their superiors, colleagues, and clients are likely to take notice of such initiative and form an opinion about the given employee as a result. If such formed opinions are positive, moreover, they tend to support the employee's career development, as the employee becomes increasingly engaged and proactive, over time, regarding actions that exceed basic work obligations.

The obtained results also indicated that the increase in the level of subjective assessment of one's competences (i.e., the scope of one's knowledge, rights, responsibility, and skill level, related to activities

undertaken on a daily basis) has a significant relationship with increased daily beyond-duties engagement. For competences understood in this manner to be used most effectively at work, however, a high and sustained level of physical and mental energy is required, and this turns not only on the employee but also on the employee's management (Keen, 1992). The obtained results suggest that factors such as gaining new work experience, professional training, receiving feedback regarding effectiveness etc., enhance the employee's assessment of their own competences and, thereby, generate employee energy and enthusiasm. This serves as a positive feedback loop that encourages even more desired behavior in the future.

The obtained results also showed that the increase in positive affect during the action, understood as experiencing positive emotional states such as joy, enthusiasm, or satisfaction, in connection with the particular activity, had a significant positive relationship with the increase in proactive beyond-duties engagement. The research of Hakanen, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2006) shows that the experience of positive affect results in the setting of high goals and expectations that positively affect task performance results. Positive affect also has an impact regarding the initiation of goal-oriented actions (Kazen, Kaschel & Kuhl, 2008). Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that a person who experiences positive emotional states, by engaging in additional activities at work, is likely to experience positive outcomes, and the resulting positive expectations regarding such effects stimulate and reinforce subsequent, positive actions.

The mediation effect of positive affect on the studied variables at the between (subjects) and within-level (days) was also verified. The obtained results showed that positive affect during action constituted an important mediator between daily feedback from others and daily beyond-duties engagement, as well as between a subjective assessment of one's own competences regarding activities performed and daily, proactive beyond-duties engagement. This analysis did not demonstrate, however, a significant mediation effect between daily autonomy in action and daily beyond-duties engagement. Only at the between-level were such relationships observed. From the obtained results, it can be concluded that if a person is in a positive mood, they tend to accept feedback regarding their activities at work more positively and better assess their competence regarding such undertaken activities, which then contributes to even greater engagement in the form of additional, proactive activities at work. Positive affect, however, does not appear to strengthen the initially-weak relationship between sense of autonomy in action and proactive, beyond-duties engagement.

The study also showed that daily autonomy in action (i.e., the ability to shape, independently, the mode of one's actions driven by a specific, targeted purpose, including the planning, implementation, and selection of methods of action) did not have a significant relationship with the daily level of beyond-duties engagement. From this perspective, therefore, the actual results are contrary to what was originally assumed. Research regarding the relationship between autonomy at work and work engagement (see Malinowska, Tokarz & Wardzichowska, 2018) as well as the author's preliminary research regarding the relationship between daily autonomy at work and daily beyond-duties engagement, showed that there is a positive correlation between these variables. The results of the research suggested, however, that this relationship may not be causal. The research suggests, therefore, that even when an employee is given more freedom to determine the timing, methods, and manner in which they undertake additional, proactive tasks at work, such freedom may not translate into enhanced energy, enthusiasm, or focus. Other mediating factors may be required, therefore, for such increase in autonomy in action to contribute, materially, to an increase in proactive, beyond-duties engagement. This issue, therefore, requires further study.

Limitations and Future Directions

The presented research contributes to a better understanding of the beyond-duties engagement phenomenon. The obtained results should be considered, however, within the context of several, specific limitations of the study's design and implementation. Firstly, the study was limited by potential bias resulting from the lack of random selection of the subject participants. This resulted from a tradeoff between the desire to study a representative cross-section of participants and the study's constraints as to time and available resources; the snowball method, ultimately, was selected for the participant selection process. According to generally-accepted quantitative research standards, a random selection of study participants

would have been preferred for research of this type and scope. Secondly, the study had a relatively small number of participants; more definitive assertions may have been possible given a larger sample size. Daily diary research requires time and discipline, however, to complete diaries, without fail for the entire, required number of days and in a uniform manner that lends itself to quantification. Several participants, in fact, began filling in their diaries, but, after just a few days, withdrew from the study, sometimes without notice. When conducting further research of this type, additional thought, perhaps, should be given to modifying the incentives or benefits offered to make participation more attractive and, thus, to increase the motivation to persevere throughout the entire research process. Nevertheless, the pecuniary incentives should not be so excessive that they become the primary motivation for participation; the study's results, ideally, should remain independent of the perceived value of participation incentives.. Thirdly, 86 percent of the participants were women whereas better gender balance would have been preferred. The study's gender imbalance, however, is largely a function of the population of the assistance professions, in particular, such as nurses, midwives, and social workers who tend to be women; the percentage of women working in the creative professions, in Poland, is also quite high relative to international benchmarks. The analysis of the relationship of gender regarding beyond-duties proactive engagement, thus far in the initial study, did not find any differences that could not be attributed to random variation. Nevertheless, this issue could be worthy of further investigation given that the study's gender imbalance was more pronounced within the assistance professions. Future research might be warranted, as well, among professions or sectors with higher percentages of men in order to achieve greater overall gender balance.

Implications and Conclusions

Despite these limitations, the study significantly contributes to the existing theory and practice of occupational and organizational psychology. The knowledge obtained during the research provides a better understanding of actions that exceed the basic duties of the subject employees as representatives of two, distinct professional groups within their respective work environments. Positive relationships between the subjective assessment of a given participant's own competences and feedback from others (within-person state variables) with beyond-duties engagement has been demonstrated. Therefore, the data from the study can help predict how a given employee might be expected to function within a work setting taking organizational culture and resources into account. The presented results also could be used to derive a list of best practices for team leaders and managers. Best practices pertain directly to the organization's communication culture, including its provision for formal and informal feedback regarding recently-completed work, in the spirit of honest, open feedback to cultivate efficient, effective, and mutually-rewarding work environments.

Data Availability (excluding Review articles)

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

There are no conflicts of interests.

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