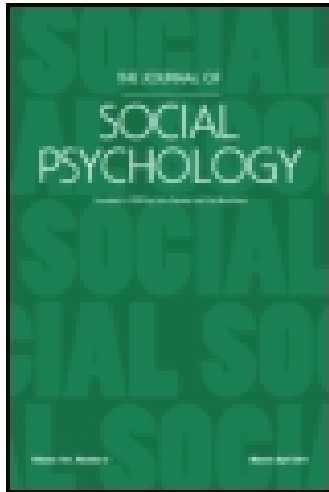


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Better to Give and to Compete? Prosocial and Competitive Motives as Interactive Predictors of Citizenship Behavior

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ABSTRACT. Research has returned mixed results concerning the relationship between prosocial motivation and citizenship behavior. Building from research suggesting that mixed motives might explain these equivocal findings, we conducted two field studies examining the interaction between prosocial and competitive motives and two types of citizenship behavior. Prosocial motivation, but not competitive motivation, was positively related to citizenship behavior directed at others, though this relationship was weakened when prosocial motives were accompanied by competitive motives. Prosocial motives compensated for weak competitive motives to predict citizenship behavior directed toward the organization. Our studies expand research on prosocial and competitive motivation, mixed-motives, and citizenship behavior. Further, they carry personnel implications given that many organizations seek to hire employees high on both competitive and prosocial motivation.

Keywords: citizenship behavior, competitive motivation, mixed motives, prosocial motivation

SOCIAL SCIENTISTS HAVE LONG RECOGNIZED the importance of understanding the sources and consequences of motivation. Because motives energize and drive individuals, they are critical to explaining patterns of affect, cognition, and behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Further, research on the types of motivation that spark and sustain action suggests that the type of individual motive matters for outcomes ranging from persistence to quality of performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wrzesniewski et al., 2014). One key distinction that motivation theorists have made is between self-interested and other-oriented motives (de Dreu, 2006). While self-interest has traditionally been treated as the “cardinal” motive by psychologists (Gerbasi & Prentice, 2013), there is considerable evidence that individuals can also hold other-interested, or prosocial motives (Batson, 1991; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). However, less is known about the effect of holding both types of motives simultaneously. This research examines the combined effect of other- and self-oriented forms of motivation on organizational citizenship behavior in the workplace.

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Prosocial motivation—the desire to protect and promote the well-being of others through work (Grant, 2007)—has been identified as an important source of other-directed employee motivation (Staub, 1991). One key outcome of prosocial motivation that has received considerable research attention is citizenship behaviors, or employee actions undertaken to benefit others and the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Scholars have commonly supposed that prosocial motives foster engagement in citizenship behaviors; however, research on this relationship has yielded mixed results. While a number of studies have shown a positive relationship between prosocial motives and employee citizenship behavior (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001), other studies have returned conflicting results, showing that prosocial motives fail to predict citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Ladd & Henry, 2000). These inconsistent findings highlight the importance of uncovering possible moderators of the relationship between prosocial motives and citizenship behavior.

One potential explanation for these equivocal results concerning the relationship between prosocial motives and citizenship behavior is that researchers have overlooked that employees can hold multiple motives simultaneously (Wrzesniewski et al., 2014), thus influencing the degree to which citizenship behaviors are exhibited (Grant & Mayer, 2009). In this article, we seek to shed light on the role of mixed motives in shaping the relationship between prosocial motivation and citizenship behavior. Specifically, we test the independent and combined effects of prosocial and competitive motives on two types of citizenship behavior: behavior directed toward benefiting others (affiliative citizenship behavior) and behavior directed toward benefiting the organization (challenging citizenship behavior). We chose to examine interactive effects of prosocial and competitive motives based on evidence that organizations are continuously engaged in the balancing act of fostering intra-group cooperation, while fostering the competitiveness needed for effective performance (see Stoelhorst & Richerson, 2013 for a review). While previous research has acknowledged the importance of both types of motives in organizations and devoted significant effort to understanding the implications in organizations (e.g., Benkler, 2011; de Dreu, 2006; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Van Lange, Agnew, Harinck, & Steemers, 1997), there is limited research on their combined effects.

We examine prosocial and competitive motives as independent and interactive predictors of citizenship behavior across two studies using field samples with multi-source data. Our results inform theory and research on prosocial motivation, competitive motivation, mixed motives, and employee citizenship behavior. This research helps to reconcile inconsistencies in the existing literature on the effects of prosocial motivation, while employing a study design that capitalizes on multi-source data, thus answering calls in recent studies to move beyond self-report data and to examine the implications of self- and other-directed motives across a variety of contexts (Cornelis, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2013).

In addition to these theoretical contributions, this research may have important practical implications. One of the primary goals of organizations is to attract individuals who are competitive and strive for personal success (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Employees with these qualities help organizations to face increased competitive pressures (Burke & Ng, 2006) and have a positive impact on the bottom line (Cappelli, 2000). At the same time, organizations want to employ individuals with strong prosocial orientations who are willing to invest in others, and care about relationships with coworkers and clients (Cascio, 1995). Thus, organizations are interested in employing individuals with *both* competitive and prosocial motivations. One obvious way to address these dual organizational needs is for organizations to focus on attracting and hiring individuals who

have strong prosocial *and* competitive tendencies (de Dreu, 2006). Another way would be to try to shape the motives that are experienced and expressed by employees once they are hired. Regardless of approach, there is a paucity of research about how these motives might combine to influence employee behavior in the workplace. While researchers have acknowledged that individuals can simultaneously hold both prosocial and competitive motives (de Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Gerbasi & Prentice, 2013), and that each motive may yield independent benefits for individuals and organizations (Van Lange, DeBruin, Otten, & Joireman, 1997), this research elucidates their interactive effects.

Motives and Citizenship Behavior

Citizenship behaviors contribute to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Often, citizenship behaviors involve efforts that go beyond formal job requirements (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Across numerous studies, employee citizenship behaviors have been shown to improve organizational performance, especially in environments typical of contemporary organizations – those demanding multifaceted, ambiguous, and team-oriented work (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). At the individual level, the performance of citizenship behaviors is associated with higher conferred status (Flynn, 2003), ratings of employees' managerial potential, probability of promotion and recommendation for rewards (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

Researchers have argued that citizenship behaviors can be classified into two different categories: affiliative and challenging (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Affiliative citizenship behaviors refer to actions that support existing work relationships and processes. Challenging citizenship behaviors refer to actions that question the status quo in order to improve organizational functioning and effectiveness. Affiliative citizenship behavior reflects interpersonal citizenship—behavior directed at benefiting others—while challenging citizenship behavior is directed toward benefiting the organization as a whole (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Research has shown that both types of citizenship contribute to successful outcomes in organizations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Prosocial motives are associated with a tendency to be cooperative and focused on the success of the group, as well as a general sense of concern for others (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; de Dreu, 2006). Thus, prosocial motives are generally considered to be other-directed because they are associated with benefiting others (Grant et al., 2007). In contrast to prosocial motivation, competitive motivational orientations are associated with a focus on out-performing others and receiving personal recognition, status and rewards (Deutsch, 1973; Van Lange et al., 1997). Individuals with strong competitive motives show a tendency to prefer outcomes for themselves that are as good as or superior to those achieved by others (Tjosvold, Andrew, & Jones, 1983). Consistent with this characterization, competitive motives are considered self-interested because they emphasize the accomplishment of personal gains, often without regard for, or even at the expense of, others (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992).

While some have argued that self- and other-directed motives anchor opposite ends of a single continuum (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), a larger body of research suggests that “individuals' motives generally are mixed” when it comes to a concern for self and others (Bolino, 1999: 83). This latter perspective provides evidence that self- and other-directed motives may be independent of one another. In support of such independence, researchers have empirically established the

independence of numerous self- and other-oriented concepts (e.g., self-concern and other orientation [de Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Gerbasi & Prentice, 2013], impression management motives and prosocial motives [Grant & Mayer, 2009], and pro-self and prosocial value orientations [Nauta, de Dreu, & van der Vaart, 2002]). Taken together, this evidence supports the notion of prosocial and competitive motives as independent motivational orientations, and highlights the potential value of adopting a mixed-motive perspective on citizenship behavior.

While psychologists have noted that motivation operates at three hierarchical levels of generality: global, contextual, and situational (see Vallerand, 1997), we take a contextual perspective. As Grant and Berg (2011) explain in their review, contextual motivation focuses on an employee's motivation toward a specific domain and is moderately variable across time and situations. Contextual motivation refers to motivation in a specific, stable context – in this case, work. By comparison, global motivation is viewed in dispositional terms, while situational motivations are related to specific instances within contexts (e.g., the desire to help an undergraduate with her graduate school application; see Chaplin, John, & Goldberg, 1988). To be clear, our focus on contextual prosocial and competitive motivation does not negate the existence of global dispositional tendencies; it simply represents a more context-specific focus and one that is consistent with that taken by numerous prior studies in the organizational citizenship and performance literatures (see Grant & Berg, 2011 for a review).

Prosocial and Competitive Motives and Affiliative Citizenship Behavior

Researchers have identified several mechanisms through which prosocial motives may increase employees' engagement in affiliative citizenship behaviors. This body of research mostly implicates a focus on others as the pathway through which prosocial motivation drives affiliative citizenship behavior. For example, prosocially motivated employees are more likely to focus their attention on others rather than themselves, increasing opportunities to notice and respond to coworker needs (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). Further, because of their tendency to feel more responsible for others and to value the opportunity to improve the welfare of others (de Dreu, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001), prosocially motivated employees are willing to subordinate their own interests to the interests of others in the workplace (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). Finally, the prosocially motivated tend to behave cooperatively (Iedema & Poppe, 1994; Van Lange, DeBruin, Otten, & Joireman, 1997). Rather than viewing cooperative behavior as a potential threat to their own personal performance and evaluation (Wood, Chonko, & Hunt, 1986), prosocially motivated employees are more likely to see cooperating with others as a way to help others accomplish their goals (Flynn, 2003; Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1997). Based on this evidence, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Prosocial motivation will be positively associated with affiliative citizenship behavior.

How might prosocial and competitive motives interact to influence employees' readiness to execute actions directed toward benefiting and supporting others at work? Drawing on the motivational crowding-out hypothesis, we suggest that strong competitive motivation should influence the degree to which employees with strong prosocial motives engage in affiliative citizenship behavior. The motivational crowding-out hypothesis suggests that when extrinsic motives (e.g.,

motives for status, recognition, personal gain) are introduced, a motivational conflict arises and the impact of internal motives is reduced or “crowded out” (Ariely, Bracha, & Meier, 2009). We draw on this research to suggest a similar interaction between competitive and prosocial motives with respect to affiliative citizenship behavior. This theory is particularly relevant given that scholars have aligned prosocial motivation with internal motivation (Grant, 2008), and competitive motivation with external sources of motivation (Van Lange, et al., 1997). We suggest that competitive and prosocial motives represent motives that are likely to conflict with each other in individuals who experience both.

Based on the logic of motivational crowding-out, individuals with strong prosocial motivation should find that also having strong competitive motivation creates a conflict between their motives, shifting their interest from engaging in affiliative citizenship behavior solely out of a desire to help others or reaffirm a valued identity, to also engaging in such behavior for reputational gains or to achieve markers of success over others (Grant & Mayer, 2009). These competing concerns should create a motivational conflict that reduces engagement in affiliative citizenship behavior. Motivational conflict occurs when the multiple goals, values, or desires pursued by an individual come in conflict with one another (Kasser, Cohn, Kanner, & Ryan, 2007). In the case of prosocial and competitive motives, when these two desires are combined, individuals should be more likely to weigh the pros and cons of prosocial action directed toward others, evaluating it in a self-interested and systematic way (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). The more self-focused evaluation that results should undermine spontaneous displays of affiliative citizenship behavior (Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester, & Jeong, 2010).

When competitive motivation is low, however, employees with strong prosocial motivation are less likely to experience motivational conflict in which one motive undermines the expression of the other. In such instances, employees should engage in affiliative citizenship behavior because it is enjoyable for them, or because helping others is consistent with their values and view of themselves (Grant, 2008). With less motivational conflict to contend with, they will feel greater autonomy in their decision to help others (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Based on this evidence, we hypothesize the following:

H2: Competitive motivation will moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and affiliative citizenship behavior, such that strong competitive motives will weaken affiliative citizenship behavior for employees with strong prosocial motives.

Prosocial and Competitive Motivation and Challenging Citizenship Behavior

We predict that employees with strong competitive motives will be more likely than employees with strong prosocial motives to engage in challenging citizenship behavior. Because challenging citizenship behaviors have greater potential to result in reputation gains as individuals engage in behaviors which draw attention to their contributions to the organization (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998), those with strong competitive motives should be more likely to engage in these behaviors due to their desire to gain status and distinguish themselves from others (Van Lange et al., 1997). Those with strong competitive motivation desire personal recognition and rewards (Van Lange et al., 1997), and should be more likely to engage in challenging citizenship behavior as a means of gaining recognition from supervisors and peers (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Thus:

H3: Competitive motivation will be positively associated with challenging citizenship behavior.

How might prosocial and competitive motives interact to influence employees' readiness to engage in challenging citizenship behavior? We predict that prosocial motivation will be most influential when competitive motivation is weak. When employees have strong competitive motivation, strong prosocial motivation should not provide additional gains in challenging citizenship behavior. As noted, competitively motivated employees already have a desire to challenge the status quo to secure gains for themselves; we expect additional motivation to make a prosocial difference in the organization to result in only minor changes to their desire to engage in challenging citizenship behavior. Focus of attention theory supports this prediction. As Gardner and colleagues (1989) have shown, individuals differ in their predilection to think about and pay attention to certain aspects of work. In essence, the more employees focus on one work-related goal, the less attention they have to focus on other goals (Gardner, Dunham, Cummings, & Pierce, 1987). While there may be momentary shifts in their focus of attention, employees are reasonably consistent in their reports of the areas of work that capture their primary focus (Gardner et al., 1989). When employees are focused on goals that entail engaging in visible behaviors to draw attention to their contributions to the organization, they should be less likely to pay attention to goals that focus on prosocial contributions to the organization.

When employees have weak competitive motives but strong prosocial motives, they should be more likely to engage in challenging citizenship behavior not from a desire to secure personal gains, but from a desire to improve the well-being of the organization. When personal gains are less of a concern, prosocially motivated employees will focus their attention primarily on making a positive difference in the organization (Grant & Mayer, 2009). When employees have a strong desire to make a prosocial difference in the organization and are not constrained by other concerns, they should be more likely to invest in goals that serve the organization as a whole (Cardador, Dane, & Pratt, 2011). Based on this argument, we predict the following:

H4: Prosocial motivation will moderate the relationship between competitive motivation and challenging citizenship behavior, such that strong prosocial motives will increase challenging citizenship behavior for employees with weak competitive motives.

Overview of Present Research

We tested our study hypotheses in two field studies wherein employees provided reports of their levels of prosocial and competitive motivation, and supervisors provided ratings of employee citizenship behaviors. Across two different settings, we tested whether motivation type predicted two forms of citizenship behavior, and further, whether motivation type interacted to produce the expected moderation effects.

STUDY 1

In Study 1, we focused on the effects of prosocial and competitive motivation on affiliative citizenship behavior. Specifically, we aimed to establish the relationship between prosocial

motivation and affiliative citizenship behavior, as well as the hypothesized moderation effect in a field context with employed participants.

Participants and Procedures

Participants were officers and their direct supervisors from three police departments located in the mid-western United States. We sampled police departments based on previous research suggesting that police officers hold both competitive and prosocial motives (Van Maanen, 1975; Soeters, 2000), and based on evidence that affiliative citizenship behaviors, such as interpersonal helping between officers, are critical to the effective and safe conduct of work in this context (Paoline, 2003).

The public relations or human resource directors from each police department were contacted by the first author to request participation in the study. All agreed to participate. With permission from the chief of police and shift sergeants from each organization, we attended police officer briefing sessions for the morning and night shifts at each organization. We did this on two separate days to capture employees from the two shift cycles. Officers attending the briefing sessions completed paper and pencil surveys on a voluntary basis. All attendees present at the briefings agreed to participate in the study. Supervisors completed a separate survey for each of their subordinate officers. Employee surveys were matched to supervisor surveys, resulting in matched surveys from 60 police officers and their supervisors.

The final samples from each of the three police departments represented 76%, 60% and 21% of police officers at each organization, yielding an average response rate of 52%. The lower percentage for the third organization represents the fact that a lower number of supervisors completed the survey. This meant that we were unable to match many of the completed employee surveys with a survey from their supervisor, so these data had to be excluded. The total sample included a roughly equal percentage of police officers from each organization, 36.7%, 36.7% and 26.7%, respectively, reducing the likelihood that any one organization would skew the results. Police officers in the sample were 78% male, averaged 37 years of age ($SD = 7.6$), and had an average organizational tenure of 9.4 years ($SD = 6.2$).

Measures

Employee surveys contained the measures of employee prosocial and competitive motivation and controls. Supervisor surveys contained the measure of affiliative citizenship behavior. These surveys took less than 5 minutes to complete. All items used a 7-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*).

Prosocial and competitive motivations. Prosocial motivation was measured using the 5-item measure developed by Grant (2008). Items included: "I prefer to work on tasks that allow me to have a positive impact on others," and "I am most motivated when I have the opportunity to use my abilities to benefit others" ($\alpha = 0.97$). We measured competitive motivation using a 6-item scale adapted from Elliot (1999) to include items based on the characterization of competitive orientation described by Van Lange and colleagues (1997). Since competitive orientation has traditionally been assessed based on individual behavior in an experimental game (Van Lange, et al., 1997), we developed a measure based on this assessment. We combined concepts from

this assessment with Elliott's (1999) achievement motives, which include those related to outperforming others. We integrated the two to form a measure of competitive motivation with items including: "I am most motivated when I am doing better than others," and "I am most motivated when I am competing with others" ($\alpha = 0.93$).

Affiliative citizenship behavior. Following Grant and Mayer (2009), we tested supervisor-rated helping as a form of affiliative citizenship behavior. Helping refers to extra-role behavior intended to offer assistance to others (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Helping behavior was measured using seven helping-related items from the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). The Comparative Emphasis Scale measures four work values (helping, honesty, fairness, achievement) that have been identified as important in work settings (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1997). Supervisors were asked to indicate, for each of their subordinates, the degree to which police officers engaged in the following types of behaviors: "He/she tries to be helpful to others at work," and "He/she likes lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty" ($\alpha = 0.95$).

Control variables. We controlled for organizational tenure, which has been found to affect a range of work attitudes and behaviors (Hall & Schneider, 1972). We also controlled for organizational differences using a dummy variable for each organization in the sample. Additionally, we controlled for social integration and proactive personality as possible confounding influences on affiliative citizenship behavior. Feeling socially connected with one's workgroup should be correlated with the desire to want to be helpful to them and should thus be associated with affiliative citizenship behavior (Ilies, Spitzmuller, Fulmer, & Johnson, 2009). Employee proactivity should be correlated with citizenship behavior in that proactive employees are likely to engage in action that has an impact on the environment (Grant & Parker, 2009), such as contextual performance (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010). We measured social integration with a 3-item measure (Keyes, 1998). Items included: "I feel like I am an important part of my work community" ($\alpha = .77$). Proactive personality was measured using the 5-item scale developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). Items included: "I'm always looking for better ways to do things" ($\alpha = .90$).

RESULTS

Table 1 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables in Study 1. Consistent with predictions, prosocial motivation was correlated with affiliative citizenship behavior ($r = .40, p < .01$), but competitive motivation was not ($r = .03, n.s.$). In line with past research, the control variables – social integration and proactive personality – were strongly correlated with affiliative citizenship behavior ($r = .40, p < .01, r = .35, p < .01$, respectively); however, organizational tenure was not correlated with affiliative citizenship behavior ($r = -.03, n.s.$). Moreover, there were no organizational sample differences in affiliative citizenship behavior.

To test our hypotheses, we followed the moderated regression procedures recommended by Cohen and colleagues (2003). We conducted hierarchical regression analyses predicting affiliative citizenship behavior with the independent and moderating variables, as well as the interaction term. We entered the control, independent, and moderator variables in the first step, and the

TABLE 1
Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Prosocial motivation	5.3	1.1	—						
2. Competitive motivation	4.7	1.2	.44**	—					
3. Affiliative citizenship behavior	5.6	1.1	.40**	.03	—				
4. Social integration	4.7	1.2	.38**	.25	.40**	—			
5. Proactive personality	5.3	.89	.56**	.17	.35**	.45**	—		
6. Organization tenure	9.4	6.2	-.11	-.12	-.02	-.16	-.33**	—	
7. Organization A dummy	.27	.45	-.01	.04	.04	-.10	.13	.09	—
8. Organization B dummy	.37	.49	-.08	-.10	-.15	-.28	.11	.12	-.46

Note. Organizational tenure is calculated in years.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

TABLE 2
Study 1: Coefficients and Standard Errors Associated With OLS Regression

	<i>Affiliative citizenship behavior</i>				
	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>		
	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Organization A dummy	.36	.04	-.08	.34	-.03
Organization B dummy	.35	-.07	-.21	.33	-.09
Organization tenure	.02	.09	.02	.02	.13
Social integration	.14	.28	.26	.13	.27
Proactive personality	.22	.12	.38	.22	.30
Prosocial motivation	.17	.32*	.13	.17	.12
Competitive motivation	.13	-.20	-.29	.12	-.30*
Prosocial motivation \times competitive motivation			-.23	.08	-.41**
R^2		.29			.40
$R^2 \Delta$.11**

Note. Organization tenure is calculated in years.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

partial product term in the second step. The results, in Table 2, show that prosocial motivation was positively associated with affiliative citizenship behavior ($\beta = .32$, $s.e. = .17$, $p = .04$). These results support *H1*.

With respect to the interaction hypothesis, the results showed a significant negative interaction between prosocial motivation and competitive motivation in predicting affiliative citizenship behavior ($\beta = -.41$, $s.e. = .08$, $p = .004$ [see Table 2]). We interpreted this interaction by plotting the simple slopes at one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the independent variable (prosocial motivation) and moderator variable (competitive motivation). The results, displayed in Figure 1, show that when prosocial motivation is weak, competitive motivation has little or no effect on employees' affiliative citizenship behavior. However, when prosocial motivation is strong, high levels of competitive motivation are linked to lower levels of affiliative

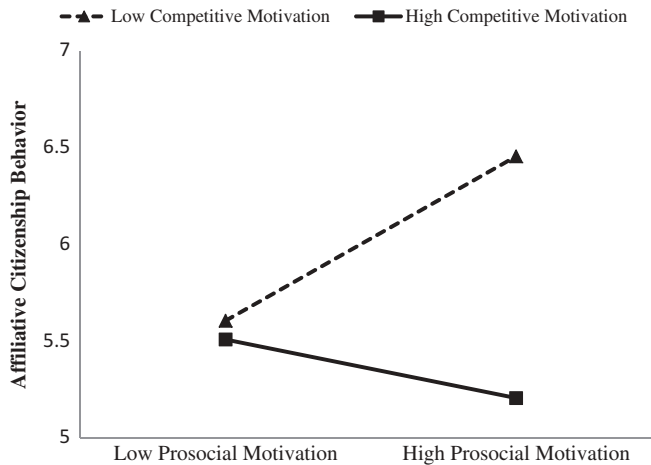


FIGURE 1 Study 1 regression slopes for the interaction of prosocial and competitive motives predicting affiliative citizenship behavior.

citizenship behavior. These findings support *H2*, that competitive motives weaken the positive relationship between prosocial motivation and affiliative citizenship behavior.

DISCUSSION

Study 1 examined the direct and interactive effects of prosocial and competitive motives on affiliative citizenship behavior. Consistent with our predictions, we found that prosocial motivation, but not competitive motivation, was positively and significantly related to supervisor evaluations of employees' affiliative citizenship behavior. Moreover, as expected, the positive relationship between prosocial motives and affiliative citizenship behavior was attenuated by strong competitive motives.

To extend the findings from Study 1, we conducted a second study with participants from a different occupation and organization in which we shifted our criterion variable to citizenship behavior directed toward the organization – challenging citizenship behavior. Consistent with previous research, we examined the voicing of concerns as a form of this type of citizenship behavior (Grant & Mayer, 2009; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). In this study, we collected ratings of challenging citizenship behavior from supervisors and tested *H3* and *H4*.

STUDY 2

In Study 2, we tested the effects of prosocial and competitive motivation on challenging citizenship behavior. Specifically, we aimed to establish the relationship between competitive motivation and challenging citizenship behavior, as well as the hypothesized moderation effect in a second field context with employed participants.

Participants and Procedures

We surveyed bank employees and their supervisors from two commercial retail banks located in the mid-western United States. We selected banks for our sample because they utilize reward systems and evaluation criteria consistent with both competition and cooperation. Individual sales and excellence are of paramount importance, though bank employees are called upon to help one another with their work (George & Hedge, 2004). These features make a banking context particularly attractive for testing our study hypotheses.

We selected banks using a convenience sample, contacting banks in the geographic area proximal to the first author. The human resource directors from both banks were contacted to invite participation in the study. Both agreed to participate, and employees were recruited with their help via an email message. Following an email from the human resources director alerting employees to the opportunity, every employee in each bank received an email from the first author asking them to complete an online survey, and providing the link. One month later, using the same process, supervisors rated the challenging citizenship behavior of their subordinates. Employee surveys were matched to supervisor surveys, resulting in matched surveys from 140 bankers and their supervisors. The samples from each of the two banks represented 46% and 55% of employees at each organization, yielding an average response rate of 51%. The total sample included a roughly equal percentage of employees from each organization, 40% and 60%, respectively, reducing the likelihood that either organization would skew the results. Bankers in the sample were 82% female, averaged 39 years of age ($SD = 13.4$), and had an average organizational tenure of 5.8 years ($SD = 7.1$).

Measures

Employee surveys contained the measures of employee prosocial and competitive motivation and all but one of the controls. Supervisor surveys contained the measure of employees' challenging citizenship behavior and the individual influence control measure. These surveys took less than five minutes to complete. All items used a 7-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*).

Prosocial and competitive motivations. Employees completed the same measures of prosocial and competitive motivation used in Study 1 ($\alpha = .84$ and $\alpha = .71$, respectively).¹

Challenging citizenship behavior. Drawing on prior research, we measured voicing concerns as a form of challenging citizenship behavior. Voicing concerns is defined as "making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998: 109), and was measured using a 3-item scale reflecting the highest loading items from the scale developed by LePine and Van Dyne (1998). Supervisors were asked to reflect on the frequency with which the employee engaged in the following behaviors in the last month: "Made recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group," "Spoke up and encouraged others in his/her group to get involved in issues that affect the group," and "Spoke up with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures" ($\alpha = .93$).

Control variables. We again controlled for organizational tenure and included a dummy variable for the organization. As in Study 1, we controlled for proactive personality ($\alpha = .77$)

because proactive employees are likely to engage in action that has an impact on the environment (Grant & Parker, 2009), such as voicing important issues (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Additionally, because the degree of influence employees have over others may affect supervisor perceptions of voice (Burriss, 2012), we controlled for the degree of employee influence over others in the organization using supervisor ratings. Individual influence was reported by supervisors, and measured using 3 items from Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, and Judge (1995). Items included: "In the past month, it has been easy for this employee to develop a rapport with most people" ($\alpha = .86$).

RESULTS

Table 3 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables in Study 2. Prosocial motivation was significantly correlated with challenging citizenship behavior ($r = .19$, $p < .05$), but competitive motivation was not ($r = .05$, n.s.). Consistent with past research, the control variables—individual influence and proactive personality—were correlated with challenging citizenship behavior ($r = .49$, $p < .01$, $r = .17$, $p < .05$, respectively); however, organizational tenure was not correlated with challenging citizenship behavior ($r = -.11$, n.s.). Moreover, there were no organizational sample differences in challenging citizenship behavior.

To test our hypotheses, we again followed the moderated regression procedures recommended by Cohen and colleagues (2003). We conducted hierarchical regression analysis predicting supervisor-rated challenging citizenship behavior with competitive motivation, prosocial motivation, and the interaction term. The control, independent, and moderator variables were entered in the first step, and the interaction term was entered in the second step. The results, displayed in Table 4, did not show the expected significant relationship between competitive motivation and challenging citizenship behavior ($\beta = -.06$, s.e. = .11, $p = .44$). Thus, $H3$ was not supported.

As Table 4 shows, the analysis revealed a significant interaction between prosocial motivation and competitive motivation to predict supervisor ratings of challenging citizenship behavior ($\beta = -.16$, s.e. = .15, $p = .03$). We interpreted the interaction by plotting the simple slopes at one standard deviation above and below the mean for the independent variable (competitive motivation) and moderator variable (prosocial motivation). The results, displayed in Figure 2,

TABLE 3
Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Prosocial motivation	6.1	.61	—					
2. Competitive motivation	4.7	.95	.06	—				
3. Challenging citizenship behavior	4.8	1.3	.19*	.05	—			
4. Individual influence	5.6	1.0	-.06	.07	.49**	—		
5. Proactive personality	5.7	.68	.45**	.30**	.17*	-.08	—	
6. Organization tenure	5.8	7.1	-.03	-.06	-.11	-.08	-.20*	—
7. Organization A dummy	.60	.49	.04	.13	.12	.14	.08	.19*

Note. Organizational tenure is calculated in years.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

TABLE 4
Study 2: Coefficients and Standard Errors Associated With OLS Regression

	<i>Challenging citizenship behavior</i>				
	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>		
	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Organization type	.21	.05	.14	.21	.05
Organizational tenure	.01	-.03	-.01	.01	-.01
Individual influence	.10	.52**	.66	.10	.52**
Proactive personality	.17	.16	.26	.17	.14
Prosocial motivation	.18	.14	.30	.18	.14
Competitive motivation	.11	-.06	-.08	.11	-.06
Prosocial motivation \times competitive motivation			-.32	.15	-.16*
R^2		.32			.35
$R^2 \Delta$.03**

Note. Organizational tenure is calculated in years.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

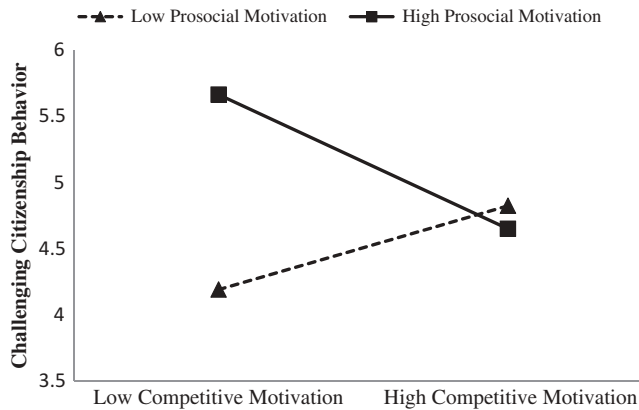


FIGURE 2 Study 2 regression slopes for the interaction of prosocial and competitive motives predicting challenging citizenship behavior.

illustrate that when competitive motivation is strong, prosocial motivation has little or no effect on employees' challenging citizenship behavior. However, when competitive motivation is weak, strong prosocial motivation is associated with higher levels of citizenship behavior. These results suggest that, in support of *H4*, strong prosocial motivation enhances challenging citizenship behavior when competitive motivation is weak.

DISCUSSION

Study 2 examined the direct and interactive effects of prosocial and competitive motives on supervisor evaluations of employees' challenging citizenship behavior (voicing concerns). The results

demonstrated that competitive motivation was not significantly related to challenging citizenship behavior, and that prosocial motivation improves challenging citizenship behavior for those with weak competitive motivation. Our findings build on Study 1 by showing how prosocial and competitive motives combine to affect another type of citizenship behavior—that which is directed toward benefiting the organization. The results provide further evidence of the influence of mixed motives on employee citizenship.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across two studies conducted in different occupational contexts using field samples with multi-source data, we found that competitive motivation attenuates the positive relationship between prosocial motivation and affiliative citizenship behaviors, and that prosocial motivation improves challenging citizenship behavior, but only when employees have low levels of competitive motivation.

Theoretical Contributions

This study makes several theoretical contributions. First, it helps to resolve conflicting findings about the relationship between prosocial motives and employee citizenship behaviors. While some research has shown a positive relationship between prosocial tendencies and citizenship behavior (e.g., Rioux & Penner, 2001), other studies have failed to substantiate this relationship (e.g., Ladd & Henry, 2000). We showed that mixed motives may complicate the relationship between prosocial motivation and citizenship behavior. Across two studies with varied occupations and organizational contexts, we found evidence that prosocially motivated employees were less likely to exhibit affiliative citizenship behavior when they held strong competitive motives and were more likely to exhibit challenging citizenship behavior when their competitive motivation was weak. Our findings suggest that to understand the effect of prosocial motivation on employee citizenship, we must understand how prosocial motives are influenced by other motives.

A second, related contribution of our findings is that they highlight the importance of considering how multiple motives interact to shape employee work behavior. Though some scholars have tended to treat individuals as having primarily self-serving or other-directed motives (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), researchers have recently called for examinations of self-serving and other-directed motives as interactive rather than dichotomous predictors of workplace outcomes (de Dreu, 2006; Wrzesniewski et al., 2014). This research takes a step toward answering this call. In doing so, it also builds on an emerging body of research on mixed motives and citizenship. While evidence suggests that some types of self-serving motives (e.g., impression management motives) can enhance the positive relationship between prosocial motives and employees' affiliative citizenship behavior (Grant & Mayer, 2009), our results show that other types of self-serving motives (e.g., competitive motives) undermine the positive relationship between prosocial motives and affiliative citizenship. The divergent results highlight the need to consider a more nuanced perspective on the interaction between self-serving and other-directed motives.

Third, while researchers in multiple disciplines have highlighted that organizations are continuously engaged in the balancing act of fostering cooperation and competition (Stoelhorst & Richerson, 2013), there is a paucity of research examining the interactive effects of prosocial and

competitive tendencies at the individual level in organizations. While organizations have long attempted to manage the tension of fostering cooperative and competitive motivation in their employees, this research presents evidence that combining these tendencies—whether through selection or elicitation of motivation—may represent a tension at the individual level, at least with respect to engaging in organizational citizenship behavior.

Fourth, our research advances the study of prosocial motivation. Study 2 suggests that the expression of prosocial motivation, particularly when competitive motivation is weak, is related to challenging citizenship behavior. As such, our results suggest a broader base of impact of prosocial motivation at work than has been suggested previously. In particular, others have found evidence that prosocial motivation is positively linked to personal well-being (Gebauer, Riketta, Broemer, & Maio, 2008) and interpersonal helping (Grant & Mayer, 2009). The results of Study 2 move the literature beyond psychological and interpersonal effects by fostering a better understanding when and why prosocial motivation might be associated with citizenship behavior directly targeted at benefiting the organization.

Fifth, this research contributes to an emerging literature on competitive motivation in the workplace. Our study results suggest that across varied organizational contexts, competitive motives were unrelated to two types of citizenship behaviors. Moreover, strong competitive motives discouraged employees with strong prosocial motivation from engaging in affiliative citizenship behavior. These findings build on previous research that suggests that, while competitive motives may be associated with some workplace benefits—such as employee willingness to exert high levels of effort toward accomplishing the goal of outperforming others (Elliot & Church, 1997)—they do little to encourage citizenship behavior in the workplace, and may even undermine the propensity to engage in citizenship among employees who hold prosocial motives. This finding complements other research linking competitive motives to behaviors that undermine employee and organizational effectiveness, such as lower levels of feedback seeking, and a propensity to shy away from challenging situations in favor of those that allow for relatively certain success (Button, Matheiu, & Zajac, 1996).

Limitations and Future Directions

This research suffers from limitations that suggest avenues for future research. First, our sequential sampling did not allow us to test all four hypotheses in both samples. While we were able to establish a strong interactive effect for prosocial and competitive motives on two forms of citizenship behavior, we cannot rule out the possibility that sample differences (e.g., police officers were predominantly male and bankers were predominantly female) affected the results (see Taylor, Klein, Lewis, Gruenewald, Gurung, & Updegraff, 2000). This shortcoming suggests that future research should further examine potential gender and context effects that may influence whether and how those with prosocial and competitive motives engage in citizenship behavior.

A second limitation pertains to the generalizability of our findings. We sampled two occupations across five organizational contexts; however, it may be that the findings reported here do not apply similarly to other occupational or organizational contexts. For example, in occupations characterized by team-level rewards and group-level cooperation—where groups compete against one another and success depends on the accomplishment of competitive group-based goals (e.g., consulting teams, sales teams)—it may be that having both prosocial and competitive motives has

more synergistic effects, such that employees who have high levels of both motivations show the highest levels of affiliative and challenging citizenship behavior. Future studies should test this possibility.

Another limitation is that we were not able to directly assess the psychological mechanisms associated with the interaction between prosocial and competitive motives. Building on the logic of the motivational crowding-out hypothesis, we theorized that competitive motives undermine the positive relationship between prosocial motives and affiliative citizenship behavior because having strong prosocial and competitive motives creates a motivational conflict that shifts an employee's interest away from engaging in affiliative citizenship behavior. However, there may be other explanations for the attenuating effect of competitive motives found here. Future research is needed to directly test these and other potential mechanisms as explanations for the findings presented here.

Conclusion

Across two studies, we found that competitive motivation attenuates the relationship between prosocial motivation and affiliative citizenship behaviors, and that prosocial motivation improves challenging citizenship behavior when employees have low levels of competitive motivation. Our findings offer important theoretical, practical, and research implications concerning how mixed motives shape citizenship behavior in the workplace. Further, they show that when it comes to citizenship behavior, it may be better to have employees who are more motivated to give than to compete.

NOTE

1. We note that Cronbach's alphas are lower in this sample. For prosocial motivation this difference is explained by the lower average inter-item correlation in Study 2 vs. Study 1 (.52 vs. .86). For bankers, the item "I prefer to work on tasks that allow me to have a positive impact on others" had the lowest average correlation with the other items; however, reliability was not improved when this item was removed. For competitive motivation, the difference is also explained by the lower average inter-item correlation in Study 2 vs. Study 1 (.32 vs. .64). For bankers, the item "I am most motivated when I am doing better than others" had the lowest average correlation with other items; however, reliability was not improved when this item was removed.

AUTHOR NOTES

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