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PERSONAL AND RELATIONAL WELL-BEING OUTCOMES
OF INTERPERSONALLY-DIRECTED ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

presented by

David T. Wagner

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Doctoral   degree in   Organizational Behavior/Human
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PERSONAL AND RELATIONAL WELL-BEING OUTCOMES OF
INTERPERSONALLY-DIRECTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

By

David T. Wagner

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

PERSONAL AND RELATIONAL WELL-BEING OUTCOMES OF
INTERPERSONALLY-DIRECTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

By

David T. Wagner

Research on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has received considerable

attention over the past several decades. Most of the research on the outcomes of OCB has

addressed the impact that these behaviors have on organizational performance and on

employee rewards and performance evaluations. However, almost no research has

considered how extending help to coworkers influences an employee's personal well-

being. This dissertation addresses this gap in the literature, drawing from self-

determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to investigate how employees'

interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors (OCBI) influence personal well-being as

mediated by the fulfillment of employee needs for relatedness, autonomy, and

competence. This dissertation also builds upon social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to

examine how citizenship behaviors directed toward coworkers influence an employee's

relational well-being, and specifically coworker exchange relationships. I propose, and

find, that the influence of helping on relational well-being is mediated by coworker liking

of and trust in the employee performing OCBI. Finally, I examine how employee

motives, and coworker perceptions of employee motives, influence the relationships

between OCBI and the various forms of well-being. Findings from a two-stage field

study, with participants from nine different organizations offer mixed support for the

hypothesized relationships. In general, the relationship between interpersonally-directed

citizenship behaviors and personal well-being is not observed in the data. However, the relationship between OCBI and relational well-being received considerable support. I conclude by discussing the implications of my findings for theory, practice, and future citizenship behavior research.

To Jessie, Noah and Gage—this accomplishment is as much yours as it is mine.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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PERSONAL AND RELATIONAL WELL-BEING OUTCOMES OF INTERPERSONALLY-DIRECTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Introduction

In response to the disappointing findings that job satisfaction and job performance were not meaningfully correlated, Organ (1977) proposed that scholars should turn their attention to a different form of job performance. This form of performance eventually came to be called organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Organ, 1988). OCB is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary...and in the aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Since that time sufficient research has been performed on the antecedents and outcomes of OCB to justify several meta-analyses (e.g., Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001; Dalal, 2005; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Despite the large amount of research interest which has been performed in this domain, surprisingly little research has addressed the impact of OCB on the individual who performs the behavior (Spitzmuller, Van Dyne, & Ilies, 2008). This is a notable omission in the literature. Subjective well-being, consisting of high positive affect and satisfaction, and low negative affect (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996), has attracted increasing interest in the organizational literature; given employee well-being's impact on important personal outcomes such as heart disease, (e.g., Anda et al., 1993) and organizational outcomes such as turnover (e.g., Wright & Bonett, 2007), I suggest that the gap in our understanding regarding the relationship between OCB and well-being is an important one to fill.

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Given the value of OCB to organizations, and also noting the lack of research examining the impact that OCB might have on employee well-being, I intend to contribute to the literature by answering the following research questions. First, how does performing OCB influence personal and relational outcomes for the person performing the behavior? By personal outcomes, I mean self-focused well-being, such as affective states and job satisfaction (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). Relational outcomes, on the other hand, deal with interpersonal phenomena such as the quality of employees' relationships with coworkers (coworker exchange, CWX; Sherony & Green, 2002).

Second, what are the mechanisms that account for the relationship between OCB and personal and relational well-being? To answer this question I primarily draw from self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) which suggests that personal well-being is in part obtained through the fulfillment of needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence, and also illustrate how the performance of OCB provides employees opportunities to fulfill their needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence. I also draw from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to form hypotheses predicting that the performance of OCB influences coworkers' trust in the employee performing the OCB and coworkers' liking of the employee. I also illustrate how these coworker attitudes determine the relationship quality which coworkers have with the employee. I call this relational well-being, consistent with Ryff and Singer's (2000) view that positive relationships are an important facet of overall wellness.

My third research question asks, how do the relationships between OCB and personal and relational well-being differ based upon employee motives and coworker

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attributions of the employee's motives for engaging in OCB? I answer this question by examining the moderating effects of motives for OCB on the relationships among OCB, mediators and outcomes, consistent with theory and research on self-concordance. I suggest that when individuals' motives are consistent with their behavior they will enjoy greater personal well-being. In contrast, those who engage in OCB with discordant motives will experience a sense of dissonance and will therefore enjoy fewer, if any, of the positive effects that performing OCB has on personal well-being. Likewise, applying theory on behavioral authenticity (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) to OCB would suggest that when coworkers perceive an employee as being driven merely to enhance his or her own image, the coworkers will develop lower levels of trust and liking, resulting in lower relational well-being for the employee than would occur if coworkers attributed the employee's behaviors to prosocial motives.

Various conceptualizations of OCB exist, most of which build from the premise that OCB is discretionary behavior that benefits the organization. One of the early conceptualizations of OCB identified five categories of behaviors, including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Organ, 1988). Shortly thereafter, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that these five categories can be meaningfully grouped together on the basis of the target of the behaviors, including citizenship behaviors that are primarily directed at other individuals (OCBI, consisting of altruism and courtesy), and those that are primarily directed towards the organization as a whole (OCBO, consisting of conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue). Because I am interested in the social impact of OCB in the workplace, I specifically examine citizenship behaviors directed at individuals in the workplace (OCBI). In doing

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so I use the definition provided by Williams and Anderson of OCBI as behaviors designed to "immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization (e.g., helps others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees)" (p. 602). Although OCB directed at both individuals and organizations have been shown to be beneficial, the social nature of my research questions suggests that a focus on interpersonal OCB will provide the most fitting examination of the relationships proposed in this paper. Furthermore, OCBI are behaviors that are intended to benefit specific individuals, and I thus focus on the behaviors and not on the performance outcome or the effectiveness of the behaviors.

In order to answer my research questions, I first present a review of the literature pertinent to my research questions. Second, I develop a model describing the relationships between OCBI and both personal and relational well-being, offering specific hypotheses. Third, I empirically test these hypotheses utilizing field data obtained from employees and coworkers in various for-profit business organizations. Fourth, I discuss the implications of my findings for management theory and research, as well as the implications of these findings for employees and business organizations.

The major contribution of this study is first, to show the personal and relational benefits which employees derive from performing OCBI. The second contribution is to empirically test, in a work setting, the general proposition that performing OCBI when motives are attributed to prosocial, rather than impression managing reasons, will have differential effects on well-being outcomes. The findings from these examinations present scholars with a point of departure for a promising area of research, which relates to the recent increase in interest regarding positive organizational scholarship in general

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(Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) and employee well-being in particular (Barsade,

Brief, & Spataro, 2003). Findings also present practitioners with a basis for designing the

workplace such that employees have opportunities to interact with, and the discretion to

informally assist, one another in their work.

Literature Review

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Research on organizational citizenship behavior has enjoyed a long and fruitful

history. For the past several decades scholars have investigated what predicts citizenship

behavior. This research has suggested that citizenship is due to many factors, including

dispositions (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, in press; Organ & Ryan, 1995),

contextual factors such as leader support (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and job attitudes

such as satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Ilies et al., in press).

Perhaps the reason for the interest in the predictors of OCB was the commonly

held notion that organizational citizenship behaviors contribute to organizational

performance. In fact, this assertion is definitional to the construct, as Organ states that

citizenship behaviors are discretionary behaviors that contribute to the overall functioning

of the organization (Organ, 1988). Although critical to organizational success (Katz,

1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978), recent interest has seemed to turn to the personal benefits of

performing organizational citizenship behaviors.

OCB and Personal Rewards

In this section I present a review of research that illustrates how the performance

of OCB results in work-related rewards for the employee performing the OCB. In a three

by two experimental design, Werner (1994) found that hypothetical employees who

performed high, rather than neutral, levels of extra-role behaviors were rated more

favorably, even when these ratings also considered in-role performance. In other words,

the 116 actual supervisors rated the hypothetical employees based on both their in-role

performance and their extra-role performance. Interestingly, those fictitious employees

who were rated high on citizenship behaviors showed higher halo effects, suggesting that OCB has pervasive effects on supervisor judgments of performance.

Orr, Sackett, and Mercer (1989) examined a similar phenomenon, using a policy capturing approach to evaluate the extent to which citizenship and non-citizenship behaviors accounted for the explained variance in the value of allocated dollar rewards given by 17 supervisors. The findings of Orr et al. indicate that actual supervisors assigned reward amounts to 50 fictitious employees on the basis of 13 performance ratings, three of which were citizenship behaviors. On average, 68% of the dollar amount of the rewards allocated by these supervisors was explained by non-citizenship behaviors, and 13% was explained by citizenship behaviors. This suggests that both in-role and extra-role behaviors play a part in determining the rewards that employees obtain from work.

Allen and Rush (1998) find similar results in both a lab and a field study. They obtained ratings of 148 subordinates from 80 managers. The responses indicate that supervisors gave more favorable evaluations and higher reward recommendations for employees who performed more OCB. In order to control for the possible interference which non-citizenship performance might have had on supervisor ratings of employee performance, Allen and Rush performed a follow-up lab study, in which in-role and citizenship behaviors were manipulated. They created sixteen cells, with high or low on in-role behavior and citizenship behavior, and any one of four different filmed instructors. Undergraduate students then rated the performance of the filmed instructors in the different conditions. Findings from the lab study corroborate with the field finding that OCBs are positively related to both performance ratings ($r = .26, p < .01$) and reward

recommendations ($r = .37, p < .01$), independent of task performance. Moreover, the

raters felt a higher degree of liking for instructors showing higher levels of OCB ($r = .49$,

$p < .01$) and that those instructors showing high levels of OCB were more affectively

committed to the organization ($r = .68, p < .01$). These findings have implication for the

development of my hypotheses that employees who extend help to their coworkers by

performing OCB will come to be more liked, and will thus gain greater levels of

relational well-being.

Hui, Lam, and Law (2000) performed a longitudinal field experiment in which

they examined the citizenship behaviors of 293 bank tellers who were approaching their

first opportunity for promotion. These scholars found considerable variance in the

citizenship behaviors performed by the bank tellers, and that those who were eventually

selected for promotion to a supervisory role performed more pre-promotion citizenship

behaviors than did tellers who were not promoted. This research supports the notion that

performing OCB results in favorable rewards to the individual performing them.

Likewise, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Fetter (1993) found that managers attended

to both objective performance and citizenship behaviors when evaluating subordinates'

effectiveness, and Ferris, Judge, Rowland, and Fitzgibbons (1994) found that employee

citizenship behaviors are positively related to the extent to which managers rate the

employees as better and more committed performers.

Based on the literature described above, it is rather clear that performing OCB

tends to result in favorable reward outcomes for the employee performing the OCB.

These rewards include promotion, salary, and bonus recommendations in both field and

lab settings. Some evidence also suggests that performing OCB is related to an

employee's relationship with his or her supervisor (see Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007, regarding the relationship between leader-member exchange [LMX] and OCB), as might be expected on the basis of LMX theory's role-taking and role-making stages in which the employee enhances his or her position and relationship with the supervisor by going above and beyond what is formally required by the job.

OCB and Personal Well-Being

Although there has been a substantial amount of research investigating how OCBs influence supervisor ratings of employee performance, and supervisor reward decisions, there has been much less research on the impact that OCBs have on the personal well-being of the employee who performs them. By personal well-being I mean well-being typically described as subjective well-being, which includes facets such as high positive affect, low negative affect, and high job satisfaction. I add the distinction of *personal* well-being because, as noted, this dissertation also addresses *relational* aspects of well-being, consistent with Ryff's (1995) six-component conceptualization of well-being.

Although few studies have addressed personal well-being as an outcome of OCBs, a handful of notable exceptions are worth discussing. In one of the first studies to empirically examine the determinants of OCB in organizations, Bateman and Organ (1983) tested the relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors one to two months later. The motivation behind the study was to offer an explanation for the weak relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, by connecting job satisfaction to contextual or extra-role performance. Bateman and Organ found that job satisfaction at time 1 had a bivariate correlation with citizenship behavior at time 2 of $r = .43$ ($p < .05$). However, the relationships between citizenship and job satisfaction lagged

across time were nearly identical whether job satisfaction predicted citizenship or citizenship predicted job satisfaction. Furthermore, even though the correlations were strong and significant, the relationships were not statistically significant when including job satisfaction and citizenship from the other measurement period as controls, although this may have been due to the small sample size in the study (N = 77). In the decades since this early study, sufficient evidence has accumulated to suggest that citizenship behaviors are indeed related to job satisfaction. Ilies et al. (in press) estimate that the population correlation coefficient between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors is p = .27. Again, it is important to note that, despite the causally suggestive path model in their paper, the directionality of meta-analytic estimates is reliant upon the underlying correlations. Therefore, the meta-analysis establishes that job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors are related, but does not speak to the direction of causality.

One of the few other studies to investigate the relationship of citizenship behaviors with subsequent satisfaction was a lab study performed by Park and Van Dyne (2007). These scholars conducted an experiment in which subjects' goal orientation was consistent with the form of citizenship (either voice or compliance), finding that higher levels of fit resulted in higher levels of the participant's satisfaction with his or her performance on the task. Although Park and Van Dyne's study has several core differences from the research questions addressed in this dissertation, it nonetheless suggests that some relationship exists between citizenship and satisfaction.

Past research, including meta-analyses, illustrates that OCBs and various facets of personal well-being are correlated, but the inherently correlational nature of this research does not allow a definitive statement on the causal direction of these relationships.

Therefore, as suggested by other scholars (Spitzmuller et al., 2008), I also note that one

shortcoming of the literature is the failure to illustrate how OCBs influence the personal

well-being of the employee performing the citizenship behaviors. Despite this clear gap

in the literature, only very recently are scholars beginning to turn their attention toward

filling this gap (e.g., Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2008; Wagner & Van Dyne, 2008). The

theory and empirical support presented in this dissertation address this gap in the

literature by presenting theoretical mechanisms that account for the influence of OCB on

personal well-being, and then testing these mechanisms in a field setting.

OCB and Relational Well-Being

In addition to the research which has addressed the impact of citizenship

behaviors on organizational and reward outcomes, some studies have addressed the

impact which performing such behaviors has on interpersonal relations. That is, beyond

reward or promotion decisions, what relational well-being can employees derive from

their citizenship behaviors? In discussing the implications of their study of intraindividual

fluctuations in citizenship behaviors, Ilies, Scott, and Judge (2006) mention that OCBs

may enhance organizational functioning through their effects on social capital. For

example, Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood (2002) argue that the relational aspects of

social capital may be connected to the performance of citizenship behaviors. They

suggest that citizenship behaviors "infuse" employee relationships with positive affect,

which enhances the liking and trust among members of the organization. Because of the

enhanced nature of the relationships in the organization, the organization is more likely to

flourish, thus explaining why OCBs result in increased organizational performance.

Bolino and colleagues suggest that relational social capital is an outcome of citizenship

behaviors; they also point out that the relationships are likely reciprocal, with enhanced relational outcomes leading to higher levels of citizenship behaviors among coworkers.

Related to the conceptual work by Bolino et al. (2002), is a series of studies by Johnson, Erez, Kiker, and Motowidlo (2002). In two experimental studies in which college students viewed videos of helpful or unhelpful employees, manipulated helpfulness was very highly correlated with reward allocations ($r = .79$ to $.61$, both $p < .01$). Of note is the finding from the second study, that the relationship between helpfulness and reward outcomes was mediated by the extent to which the rater (a hypothetical manager) liked the hypothetical employee shown in the video. This suggests that employee citizenship behaviors, and in particular helpfulness, positively relate to interpersonal liking.

A small scale study ($N = 73$ dyads) of supervisors and subordinates illustrated the manner in which employee behaviors are related to leader-supervisor exchange quality. Wayne and Green (1993) obtained rankings of the extent to which supervisors felt they could trust or turn to one of their subordinates if the supervisors needed help. Employees were concurrently asked the extent to which they engage in various behaviors, including altruistic (citizenship) behaviors. Findings indicate that those employees who were more prone to exhibit altruistic behaviors were those that the supervisor trusted most and with whom the supervisor had the highest quality exchange relationship.

Research on the interpersonal outcomes of OCB suggests that those who receive OCBs tend to like those who perform the citizenship behaviors. Research also suggests that employees who are more helpful are more likely to have higher quality LMX with their supervisors than are those employees who are less helpful. Moreover, conceptual

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work related to social networks suggests that helping might generate relational social capital, characterized by high levels of liking, trust, and mutual identification. The work in this domain is sufficient to allow arguments that OCBI influences interpersonal relationships. However, past studies have not addressed the mechanisms through which these relationships develop. This dissertation therefore contributes to the literature by illustrating some of the mechanisms through which OCBI leads to higher quality relationships among employees, which I have termed "relational well-being."

OCB and Motives

Research also suggests that the outcomes of OCB are more complex than simple relationships with external rewards and personal well-being. One of Bolino's (1999) major premises was that the performance of OCB would result in the employee being viewed as a good organizational citizen. It is this perception, he argues, that likely results in favorable evaluations by supervisors and coworkers. In fact, Bolino's argument revolves around the manner in which other members of the organization view the employee, and how the employee's citizenship behaviors result in these perceptions. In particular, he reasons how the perception of various different motives of the employee (e.g., by a coworker) will influence the coworker's perception of the employee as a good citizen.

In addition to the value of OCBs for performance evaluations and rewards, the findings of Allen and Rush (1998) also illustrate the importance of the perceived motives behind helping. Specifically, they found that among the field sample of supervisors, the impact of OCB on performance evaluations and reward recommendations was mediated by the extent to which the supervisor viewed the behaviors as altruistically motivated. In

other words, how the behaviors were viewed, led to an attribution to the intent behind the behavior, and it was this attribution which drove the relationship between OCB and the supervisor's evaluation of the employee's performance.

Empirical research on actual motives or behaviors also supports the notion that the reasons for helping will influence reactions to giving and receiving help. For example, the study by Hui et al. (2000), which assessed levels of citizenship behaviors before and after promotion decisions, also measured the extent to which each of the bank tellers felt that performing various citizenship behaviors was instrumental in nature. That is, the tellers were asked to indicate the extent to which performing each of the items comprising the OCB scale would help them obtain a favorable promotion outcome. Results indicate that those who viewed the citizenship behaviors as instrumental were much more likely to perform citizenship behaviors prior to the promotion decision. Furthermore, the study found that following the promotion decision, those employees who had been performing higher levels of OCB than their counterparts actually decreased in their level of OCB. This suggests that the behaviors of many of the employees were driven by their desire to obtain a promotion. Those who received the promotion were likely to decreases their citizenship behaviors because they had already obtained their objective, and those who were not promoted may have stopped performing high levels of OCB because they felt that there was no reason for doing so, as they had already failed to obtain the promotion.

Wayne and Green (1993) also contribute to this discussion with their study of LMX and follower altruistic behaviors. They found that self-rated impression management behaviors were related to the supervisor's rating of the exchange

relationship. Specifically, they found that impression management behaviors that were directed at the supervisor were positively related to the quality of the exchange relationship ($r = .29, p < .05$). In contrast, impression management behaviors that were job-related were negatively related to the quality of the relationship ($r = -.24, p < .05$). Although these findings seem relatively straight forward, I point out that self-ratings of impression management were made by employees, rather than by supervisors or coworkers. Therefore, the study by Wayne and Green does not address the manner in which coworker perceptions of employee behaviors influence relationships, but rather how the employee's perception of behaviors influences relationships.

In a considerably larger study of industrial sales teams, Strutton and Pelton (1998) examined the relationship between ingratiatory behaviors and lateral relationship quality (i.e., relationships with peer salespeople). These scholars used a stratified random sampling procedure to identify 500 industrial organizations that typically use team selling. From this sample they obtained analyzable responses from representatives in 251 of these organizations. Results from the study indicate that salesperson use of ingratiatory tactics with their team members was positively related to the quality of the interpersonal attachment to peers in the team, with the ingratiatory tactics explaining over 30% of the variance ($p < .01$) in relationship quality. At face value, these findings suggest that ingratiatory tactics might actually be beneficial for interpersonal relationships at work. However, despite the external-validity enhancing benefits of the study's sampling frame, the single source measurement calls into question the internal validity of the study. The contrast between Strutton and Pelton's findings, and those of other scholars who have

found negative effects of ingratiatory behavior on interpersonal outcomes, calls into question the role which motives have in determining the outcomes of citizenship.

A potential answer to this question comes from Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, and Judge (1995), who suggest that the same set of behaviors could be viewed as either organizational citizenship behaviors, or as organizational politics, and that the determining factor is the observer's perception of the behaviors. Although not explicitly stated, this notion supports my hypothesis that employees will derive differential benefits of helping based on how they and their coworkers perceive their motives for doing so. Empirical support for this notion is presented by Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and Ensley (2004), who examine the impact that attributions for behavior have on the relationship between coworker OCBs and peer job satisfaction. In a field sample of 95 employees, they asked employees to indicate the extent to which their coworkers performed various citizenship behaviors. They were also asked to indicate to what they attributed these citizenship behaviors, as well as their level of job satisfaction. Although the findings are derived from same-source data, because the relationship of interest is a moderated effect, the concern that the significance of the results was due to same-source bias is minimized (Evans, 1985). Findings indicate that employees who feel that their coworkers perform OCBs for self-serving reasons are less satisfied with increases in the frequency of these OCBs. Perhaps this is because the employees are preoccupied with their indebtedness to the helper. In contrast, when employees viewed the citizenship behaviors of their coworkers as well-intentioned, they experienced strong increases in their job satisfaction when the coworkers engaged in higher levels of citizenship behaviors.

A series of laboratory studies supports the notion that attributions of helpful behavior determine how help recipients respond to the behaviors. For example, Goranson and Berkowitz (1966) found that when help was extended for voluntary, rather than compulsory, reasons, the help recipient was more likely to be reciprocated in the future. Likewise, Greenberg and Frisch (1972) found that when a benefactor deliberately extended a gift or help, the recipient was more likely to reciprocate than when the help was extended accidentally. Tesser, Gatewood, and Driver (1968) asked subjects to imagine how they would feel in various scenarios wherein the individual received help from another person. When the intent behind the help was solely viewed as a benefit to the receiver, the subject tended to report feeling grateful for the help. In contrast, when the help recipient was cued to think that the help was provided in order to enhance the benefactor's reputation, the help recipient did not experience strong feelings of gratitude.

At a general level, the results just discussed suggest that attributions of motive are critical determinants of the value of citizenship behaviors. In their second study Johnson et al. (2002) found that videos of a helpful employee with a bad reputation received considerably lower reward recommendations than a helpful employee with a good reputation. From these findings I presume that the help extended by the employees was interpreted on the basis of attributions which the help recipient made about the helper's motives. If the employee was viewed as acting instrumentally (bad reputation), then the rewards of helping were small; in contrast, employees with a good reputation, whose motives were presumably based on prosocial values, tended to receive larger rewards, even though the employees extended equivalent amounts of help in each condition. These

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findings offer rather straightforward, albeit indirect, support for the notion that attributions of motive matter when reacting to citizenship behaviors at work.

Although reputations (and I suggest, attributions of motive) are important in determining reward allocations in the study by Johnson et al. (2002), it is nonetheless important to note that helpfulness was the primary determinant of reward recommendations, as unhelpful employees had low levels of reward recommendations, regardless of their reputation (differences between the two unhelpful conditions were not statistically different from one another, but were significantly different from the helpful conditions). Regression analyses indicate that much of the effect of reputation, helpfulness, and their interaction on reward decisions is mediated by the extent to which the rater liked the individual, and the altruistic motives which the rater attributed to the employee. These findings suggest that employee rewards (i.e., monetary reward recommendations) and relational constructs (e.g., rater liking of employee) are connected to employee citizenship behaviors or helpfulness, and that these relationships are contingent upon how the coworker views the behaviors. When behaviors are viewed as instrumental, ingratiatory, or impression managing, it seems that they might not hold the same value as if they were viewed as sincere expressions of the employee's personality or prosocial motives.

In summary, these findings suggest that performing ingratiatory behaviors is damaging to relationships. However, conflicting evidence, such as the positive relationship between other-directed impression management and LMX (Wayne & Green, 1993), suggests that there is more involved than just the employee's motives. Of

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particular importance for relational well-being could be the extent to which the behaviors are *perceived* by coworkers as ingratiatory or impression managing.

The literature relating OCBs to the motives for their performance is encouraging in the sense that it specifies some of the boundary conditions that regulate the impact of OCBs on outcomes. However, much of the research has been performed with rewards or reward recommendations as the primary outcome of interest, with little consideration given to the interplay of motives and OCBs in predicting well-being. One exception to this is the study by Tepper et al. (2004), which examined how coworkers reacted to OCBs performed for ingratiatory or for sincere reasons. However, this study examined the well-being of the person receiving the help, rather than the well-being of the person extending the help. Therefore, the small number of studies which have integrated OCB and motives research highlight an interesting and promising area of research, but the failure of these studies to address personal well-being, and several components of relational well-being presents an important area for future research to address. Filling this gap is one of the primary foci of this dissertation.

The research addressing the outcomes of OCB has rarely taken an explicitly attributional approach, in which peers have been asked to evaluate the intent behind helping behaviors. Manipulated laboratory studies have suggested that motives do matter, but to my knowledge, no studies have taken a field approach examining how others' attributions of motives for OCB moderate the influence of citizenship behaviors on the relational well-being of the helper and how the helper's motives moderate the influence of citizenship behaviors on the personal well-being of the helper. Because of the importance of interpersonal relationships and networks, and due to the increasingly

apparent importance of well-being in organizations, this dissertation presents a useful and timely investigation of relationships that are pertinent to both businesses and scholars.

Additional Predictors and Outcomes of Citizenship Behaviors

Before continuing with the present research questions, it is important to note that examining the personal and relational outcomes of OCB does not offer a complete story of the impact of OCB on individuals and organizations, nor does it completely illustrate which employees are most likely to receive help. For instance, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) use attribution theory to develop a model explaining how group members form attributions about low performers and how these attributions influence the group members' decisions to engage in helping behaviors towards the low performer. When poor performance is attributed to low ability, then group members are likely to either compensate for the low performance or to train the low performer, depending on whether or not the lack of ability is seen as something that stable or as something that might be malleable. In contrast, when poor performance is attributed to a lack of conscientiousness, LePine and Van Dyne argue that group members might react with anger, and eventually either reject the low performer, or motivate the low performer if the lack of conscientiousness is viewed as a byproduct of the low performer's lack of experience. What is important to note from this conceptual model, is that how employees view other coworkers plays a role in how the employees react to low performance by the coworkers. Specifically, employee attributions of the causes of coworker performance will determine whether, and in which ways, the employee will help the coworker. Although the scope of my study does not encompass the predictors of OCB in organizations, I suggest that it would be valuable to consider an integrative model in

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which help-recipient-focused predictors and outcomes of OCB are added to the mechanisms presented in my model.

To shed some light on some of the potential outcomes of OCB for the help recipient, I will briefly review recent research which suggests that providing other members of an organization with help or assistance might prove harmful to that individual at a later point in time. Barnes, Hollenbeck, Wagner, DeRue, Nahrgang, and Schwind (2008) performed a two-phase experimental study in which small teams were engaged in a highly interdependent computer-based task. During the initial phase of the experiment, some teams were given unequal workloads, such that one member of the team required high levels of assistance from team members in order to complete his or her job. The researchers found that during the subsequent phase of the experiment some of the individuals who had previously received help developed a sense that they were no longer accountable for their own work, and replaced a sense of accountability for a sense of dependence on their teammates. The resulting facilitated dependence was observed in teams where the help recipient had a help advocate; that is, the help recipient had another member of the team who was able to view the amount of workload that the help recipient faced. The important takeaway from this research is that extending assistance to coworkers might present unexpected costs. And although these costs might not be immediately visible, over time they could demonstrate a negative effect on those individuals who receive the assistance. The considerations of who receives help and how receiving this help affects them is beyond the scope of the present study, but I encourage researchers to examine characteristics of both helpers and help recipients in future studies.

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Need Theories

One of the two theoretical bases for my examination of OCB comes from research on self-determination theory, which deals with basic human needs. Before discussing this theory, I present a brief review of several other need theories as a backdrop to self-determination theory.

Early Need Theories

One of these early need theories was presented by Murray (1938) who suggested close to twenty needs that are either biological or psychological in nature. These needs were considered the origin of motivation, as the satisfaction of the various needs was considered the primary impetus to action. Despite Murray's extensive list of human needs, Winter (1996) suggested that three of the needs are most important. These are the three needs emphasized by McClelland (1961), and include the need for power, the need for affiliation, and the need for achievement. The need for power is satisfied by attaining influence over others or by gaining prestige; the need for affiliation is satisfied by interacting and socializing with other people; the need for achievement is satisfied by meeting and overcoming challenges or by reaching goals. McClelland views these needs as learned, and argues that individuals have different levels of each of these needs. As evidence of this, McClelland and Winter (1969) found that training business people to hold higher need for achievement resulted in greater entrepreneurial success (also see Harrell & Stahl, 1981). A considerable amount of research has addressed variations in individual needs and their impact on personal and organizational outcomes (e.g., need for achievement and business creation and success, Rauch & Frese, 2007).

Another approach to human needs was presented by Maslow (1943). This view, although perhaps most widely known, has not received the same level of research support as McClelland's treatment of needs. Maslow suggests that needs exist in a hierarchy, with basic needs, such as food, water, and sleep, requiring satisfaction before individuals will pursue higher-level needs such as friendship, achievement, and self-actualization. Despite the popularity of this theory, an improvement to the theory presents a more useful view of human needs. Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory places various levels of Maslow's hierarchy into existence, relatedness, or growth categories. Unlike Maslow's hierarchy, Alderfer suggests that needs from different levels can be pursued concurrently, and that frustration at one level does not necessarily result in complete reversion to another level. Rather, needs in different categories can be pursued at the same time.

Each of the theories of human needs presented has helped advance our understanding of human motivation. To these theories could be added many others which have shaped the way scientists think about individual motivation. Recent work has illustrated the way in which many of these theories overlap with, and draw from, one another. For example, Baumeister and Leary (1995) argue that the need to belong is connected to many other needs that have been presented in the literature. For example, needs for power, achievement, intimacy, approval and affiliation are related in various ways to belongingness in the sense that people prefer achievements that are noticed and validated by others, rather than achievements that are accomplished in isolation. Needs for intimacy, approval, and affiliation are likewise connected to the need to belong, as they relate to others in varying manners.

Self-Determination Theory

Although the theories just reviewed present various forms of insight to interpersonally directed citizenship behaviors in the workplace, a different view on psychological needs will prove enlightening and even more appropriate for answering my research questions. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) proposes that individuals have basic needs to feel competent, autonomous, and related to those around them. The fulfillment of these needs is viewed as psychological nutrition that allows individuals to flourish (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In describing how these needs are fulfilled, Reis et al. (2000, p. 420) state that "the need for competence is fulfilled by the experience that one can effectively bring about desired effects and outcomes, the need for autonomy involves perceiving that one's activities are endorsed by or congruent with the self, and the need for relatedness pertains to feeling that one is close and connected to significant others"

As pointed out by Baumeister and Leary (1995), many of the need theories discussed above overlap, including self-determination theory. For example, the need for relatedness is clearly related to the need to belong (which is related to the need for affiliation and the need for intimacy) in the sense that it deals with interactions with other people. Likewise, the need for competence overlaps with the need for achievement, in the sense that achieving or reaching goals requires demonstration of some level of competence. Due to the many commonalities among the various approaches to human needs, the different approaches might lead to some of the same conclusions. However, one of the primary research questions behind this study deals with the personal well-being that employees derive from helping their coworkers. Research on the various need theories discussed has focused on needs as a driver of action or motivation; recent

research on self-determination theory, on the other hand, has focused on well-being as an outcome of need satisfaction. More importantly, Deci and Ryan argue that the satisfaction of needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy does not merely provide a driver of action, but that the provision of these needs is essential for optimal human functioning. In contrast, other need theories have used differences in need strength to predict outcomes, but "in doing so they have not made any implicit assumption that need satisfaction would be associated with healthier functioning" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 232). Therefore, due to the growing body of both empirical and conceptual research connecting self-determination theory, and the fulfillment of needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, to well-being outcomes, I utilize this theoretical perspective as it is the most germane approach to needs as an explanation of the relationship between interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and personal well-being at work.

It is worth noting that SDT differs from other need theories in that, although it recognizes that differences in need strengths exist, it does not focus on individual differences in these three psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Research based on SDT primarily focuses on the degree to which different social contexts lead to the satisfaction of needs and how the degree of need fulfillment leads to various consequences. This approach does not ignore the fact that both situational influences and individual differences impact an individual's reactions to particular events (Mischel & Shoda, 1995), but instead focuses on the situational factors that predict individual well-being. Therefore, in contrast to approaches by Murray or McClelland, which focus on individuals' differential levels of needs for power, achievement, and so forth, and consistent with Deci and Ryan's view that environmental factors which lead to need

fulfillment are of central concern, in this paper I examine the environmental factors and behaviors that influence need satisfactions, leaving the investigation of differences in these basic needs, and the interaction between these differences and the characteristics of the situation, for future study.

Social Exchange Theory

The major theory underlying my conceptual development of the OCBI – relational well-being relationship is social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory was introduced in the late 1950s with Homan's (1958) explanation of social behavior as exchange, in which he argues that we should view social interaction as "an exchange of goods, material and non-material" (p. 597). Homans uses the notion of mutual reinforcement as the basis of what he calls elementary social behavior. He draws from behavioral psychology, in the tradition of Skinner and others, to outline these reinforcing properties of social interactions. Much in the same way that a pigeon will be led to peck at a disk in order to receive food or other reinforcements, an individual is thought to engage in particular social behaviors or exchanges when those behaviors are amply rewarded. He suggests that people seek out interactions from which they can derive profit, with profit representing the difference between the cost incurred by engaging in the interaction and the benefit obtained from the interaction.

Homans offers many examples of what might be considered a cost. One cost might be the effort required to engage in the activity. That is, how much physical or mental energy is required to interact with the other person? This represents one facet of costs incurred through social interaction. Another cost might include incurring internal discord by changing one's opinion to match the opinions of one's group, as illustrated by

the experiment of Gerard (1954). Another set of costs might relate to the social implications of requests towards others. For example, Blau (1955; referenced by Homans, 1958) described the manner in which federal law enforcement agents interacted when dealing with difficult problems. Among a group of 16 agents, only a small number were considered highly competent. Therefore, when agents encountered problems that were too difficult for them to solve, they would seek consultations with the particularly competent agents. Although these consultations generally yielded high quality information, the costs incurred by the requesting agent included an admission of some level of incompetence. Because of this cost, agents tended to request minimal consultations from the particularly competent agents, even though they needed additional assistance. In lieu of seeking valuable expertise of highly competent colleagues, agents would ask advice from peers with similar levels of competence as themselves, presumably because doing so resulted in lower costs.

Of course, profit requires not only a cost, but also a reward, and Homans suggests that the provision of rewards acts as a reinforcement of behaviors. Homans discusses various types of rewards that individuals might derive from social interactions. One form of reward could be the "favorable sentiment" or acceptance which one receives from the group for accepting the popular belief in the group. This form of reward clearly requires some sort of relationship with important others. From the perspective of this type of reward, social exchange is entirely interpersonal. However, a different form of reward highlighted by Homans is the "maintenance of one's personal integrity" which results from following a course of action consistent with one's beliefs, even if the behavior is not consistent with group or social norms. In contrast to purely interpersonal rewards, this

form of reward suggests that social exchange does not operate at the exclusion of the self, but rather in complement to the self. This suggests that when computing the overall profit that comes from social exchange, one should consider both the interpersonal and the personal rewards that are to be compared to the costs of the behavior.

I present this discussion of the costs and benefits of social interactions to illustrate that social exchange theory is not only applicable at the observable level. That is, social exchange theory does not merely apply to the physical goods or the services that people exchange. This theory also addresses the internal costs and benefits that people derive from social interactions. As demonstrated by Blau's (1955) law enforcement agents, seeking advice from the person with the most expertise is not always the most profitable course of action. This is because, even though doing so likely yields better information, the admission of incompetence is much greater when an expertise differential exists. As shown in Blau's study, this internal cost is powerful enough to significantly influence human behavior.

In addition to the multiple sources of costs related to social interactions, the various forms of reward also have implications for this study. The importance of these different forms of reward will become apparent as I develop and present my hypotheses related to the personal and relational benefits of performing citizenship behaviors. Specifically, these different forms of reward and cost will relate to the manner in which help recipients (coworkers) will view the individual who provides the assistance. Coworkers who consistently receive help from another employee are likely to view the employee as competent, thereby resulting in an increased level of trust in the employee.

Perhaps the most influential work on social exchange theory is Blau's (1964) discussion of "exchange and power in social life." Blau's objective is to develop knowledge of "the processes of social association...that characterize the interpersonal relations between individuals" (p. 2). In essence, he attempts to understand how and why people interact, and the implications that these interactions have for social structure as a whole. Consistent with Homan's (1958) view, Blau conceptualizes the processes of social association as "an exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons" (p. 88). He argues that the exchange of goods and services is not intended merely for economic reasons, but to establish relationships, such as bonds of friendship. Interestingly, these exchanges, which sometimes serve to "cement peer relations" (p. 89), are also used to create a differentiation of status among individuals. These contrasting purposes suggest that social exchange is a complex phenomenon, and that its study can provide interesting insight into interpersonal human behavior.

Again alluding to the relational nature of exchange relationships, Blau notes that "the significance of the social 'commodities' exchanged is never perfectly independent of the interpersonal relation between the exchange partners" (1964, p. 89), and this interpersonal relationship is continuously influenced by the exchanges themselves. For example, with repeated small exchanges, two individuals who offer gifts or services and then receive gifts or services in exchange develop an increasing level of trust between them. This trust seems to be an outcome of the exchange relationship, but as the relationship matures, this trust will also mature and become an important antecedent to future exchanges. In this way social exchange theory allows an exploration of how

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interpersonal behaviors influence the characteristics of relationships and how these relationships develop across time.

This short review of social exchange theory will serve as background for the arguments to be presented in this dissertation. The theory will be further described as it is particularly relevant to the specific hypotheses I present later in the paper. Figure 1 presents a summary of the hypothesized relationships which I predict and test in this study. I present specific hypotheses and the conceptual and empirical support for these hypotheses in the next section.

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model of Personal and Relational Well-Being*

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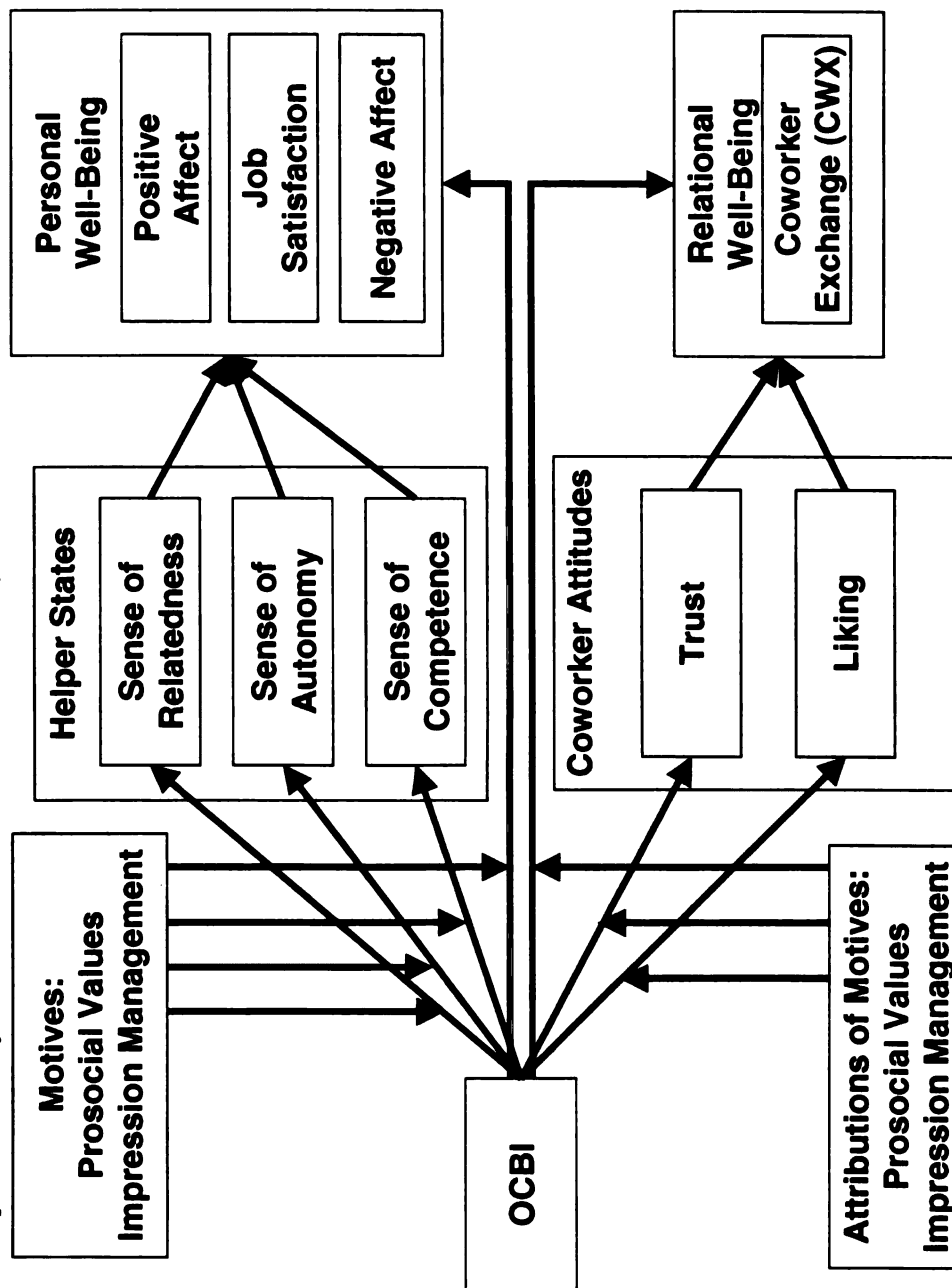
Hypothesis Development

Citizenship Behaviors and Personal Well-Being

Research on OCB has a rich history in organizational research. And despite the

many years of attention that have been paid to this phenomenon, to date there has been

very little research assessing the impact that these behaviors have on the employee

performing them. As discussed by Spitzmuller et al. (2008), an understanding of how

various forms of helping (OCBI, OCBO) influence the helper represents a rich area for

future research.

Although sparse in the organizational domain, there have been a handful of

studies on the personal outcomes gained from helping in social psychology. These studies

typically refer to social support and have examined how helping others, whether it be

through volunteering (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001), assisting an elderly spouse (Brown, Nesse,

Vinokur, & Smith, 2003), or caring for a sick partner (Kleiboer, Kuijer, Hox, Schreurs, &

Bensing, 2006), influences both the help recipient and the helper. Many of these studies

are longitudinal in nature often utilizing panel data from secondary data sources. The

studies have examined how social support influences spousal mortality (Brown et al.,

2003), health and satisfaction among elderly couples (Liena, Krause, & Bennett, 2001),

role performance, adaptability, and well-being among terminally ill subjects (Schwartz &

Sendor, 1999), and well-being among volunteers (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

Despite this attention in the social psychology literature, Spitzmuller et al. (2008)

point out that there has been very little research examining the impact that helping has on

the helper. And there has been even less research on the helper-relevant outcomes of

helping at work. For example, they note that only two published studies have examined

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the influence of helping on the helper's job satisfaction judgments (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Park & Van Dyne, 2006). Because many organizations rely quite heavily on interpersonal interaction, and given the meaningful impact of helping behaviors on beneficiaries of helping, it seems reasonable that a focused examination of the impact of helping in organizations and its implications for the helper can offer valuable insight for organizational scholars.

Helping other people could be expected to benefit the helper for various reasons. The first reason is that helping indicates that the helper has excess resources which enable him or her to assist a coworker. The ability to perform one's own work, yet still have enough energy, time, intellectual, and physical resources to help a coworker suggests that one is capable at his or her work. Therefore, from a social psychological perspective, that one is capable enough to perform his or her own work and then have excess resources to help a coworker signals to the help recipient, as well as other coworkers, that the employee is particularly adept at the job. A 14-day experience sampling study by Kleiboer et al. (2006) found that in couples where one spouse had been diagnosed with a terminal illness (Multiple Sclerosis), the extent to which partners provided one another with support during the day was positively related to self-ratings of self-esteem in the evening. Even more interesting is that when the sick spouse provided emotional support, the positive relationship with self-esteem was particularly strong. Perhaps this is because providing the healthy spouse with emotional support, when the spouse is learning to deal with the heavy burden of having a sick spouse, provides the sick spouse with some sense of control over the situation. Likewise, the fact that the sick spouse has the energy to emotionally support his or her spouse might act as a signal to the individual that he or she

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is still capable and that the disease has not completely overrun his or her physical capabilities.

In the organizational context, I expect that individuals who help their coworkers will feel an increase in positive emotions and job evaluations, as providing help that extends beyond the employee's job description will signal that the employee is not only capable of performing his or her own job, but is also assisting coworkers with their jobs. As discussed in the opening sections of this dissertation, past organizational research has been noticeably quiet regarding the relationship that performing citizenship behaviors might have on personal well-being. The few studies which have included temporally separated measures, with measures of citizenship being obtained before the well-being outcomes, include an early study by Bateman and Organ (1983) in which they found a moderately strong relationship between OCB at time 1 and job satisfaction at time 2 ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). However, when controlling for job satisfaction at time 1 and OCB at time 2 the path between OCB (time 1) and job satisfaction (time 2) was not significant. A study by Park and Van Dyne (2007) also found that forms of OCB in a laboratory experiment were related to task satisfaction when the type of OCB fit the type of goal that was primed. Although there is little research on the directional effects that might be present between OCBs and personal well-being outcomes, meta-analytic estimates indicate that the constructs are at least correlated. For example, Ilies et al. (in press) find that the estimated true score correlation between job satisfaction and interpersonally-directed OCB was $\rho = .27$. With regard to other facets of well-being, positive affect has also been empirically connected to the performance of OCBs. Williams and Shiaw (1999) examined how the experience of positive mood related to the intent to perform future

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OCBs, finding a strong correlation between recent positive affect and intent for future OCBs. And more importantly for my research questions, they found that "historical OCB" or reports of past OCB measured with Podsakoff and MacKenzie's (1989) measure of OCB were also related to current positive affect ($r = .33, p < .01$). Despite this encouraging finding, the major shortcoming is that the measures were obtained from the same source, and thus might suffer from same source bias. Their results must therefore be interpreted with caution.

Therefore, drawing from past social psychology research on volunteering and on helping sick individuals, and drawing from the small amount of research measuring both OCB and well-being constructs, I suggest that performing OCB will be related to the personal well-being of the person performing the OCB.

Hypothesis 1: Interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors will be related to employee personal well-being, demonstrating a positive relationship with (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and a negative relationship with (c) negative affect.

Mechanisms Connecting Citizenship Behaviors and Personal Well-Being

Having presented hypotheses regarding the relationship between OCB and personal well-being, I now turn to the mechanisms that might explain some of this effect. As discussed earlier in the paper, various need theories attempt to explain human action and motivation. However, one of the more recent need theories also places considerable emphasis on how the fulfillment of needs relates to well-being outcomes. Self-

determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) proposes that individuals have innate needs to feel competent, autonomous, and related to those around them. The theory argues that people tend to have a desire to be self-determining and make their own decisions. It also suggests that the fulfillment of the three basic needs identified by the theory is viewed as psychological nutrition that allows individuals to flourish (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Because citizenship behaviors are discretionary, employees who engage in them are likely to feel autonomous in doing so, suggesting that these employees' needs to act autonomously will be fulfilled. Another aspect of OCB, and particularly interpersonally directed OCB, is that the employee performs a task or provides assistance with something that is particularly difficult for a coworker. In this sense, performing OCBI would be expected to fulfill part of the employee's need for competence, because he or she is able to do something that a coworker finds difficult, thereby emphasizing the employee's ability. And finally, engaging in interpersonally-directed OCB will typically entail interaction with other individuals in the workplace, providing employees with greater opportunities to experience interpersonal relatedness at work. Therefore, the provision of OCBI should be related to the extent to which employees experience the fulfillment of their basic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Given the rationale connecting OCBI to the fulfillment of basic psychological needs, I now address the manner in which the fulfillment of these needs influences personal well-being. Studies of the relationship between need fulfillment and individual well-being have yielded rather consistent results. Sheldon, Ryan, and Reis (1996) performed a study examining the relationships between the satisfaction of individuals' needs for competence and autonomy, and the individuals' well-being, including positive

affect, negative affect, vitality, and symptomatology. They found that autonomy, measured as the extent to which they tend to do what they choose, demonstrated zero-order correlations with various facets of well-being ranging in absolute magnitude from $r = .18$ to $r = .34$, and correlated $r = .36$ ($p < .01$) with a composite measure of well-being. Competence, operationalized as the individual's perception that he or she is able to master new tasks, learn quickly, perform well, and view oneself as effective, had zero-order correlations with these same outcomes in the range from $r = .15$ to $r = .33$, and $r = .30$ ($p < .01$) with the composite measure. Although some of the facets of well-being were not statistically significantly correlated with the trait measures of competence and autonomy, the study had a small sample size ($N = 60$), and all of the relationships were in the direction hypothesized in their model.

Not only did Sheldon and colleagues (Sheldon et al., 1996) find that well-being was related to between-person differences in competence and autonomy, but that fluctuations in an individual's sense that he or she is competent or autonomous from day to day significantly predicts the individual's daily fluctuations in well-being. During each day of a two-week diary study, these researchers asked participants to indicate the three activities in which they spent the most time that day. They were then asked to indicate how *effective* they felt in each of the activities, and the reason *why* they engaged in the activity. Responses to the items measuring these responses were averaged to daily competence and autonomy scores, which were then used as predictors of daily levels of well-being (again including positive affect, negative affect, vitality, and symptomatology). The results from this study indicate that even after controlling for trait levels of competence and autonomy, the daily fluctuations in experienced competence

and autonomy predicted daily fluctuations in well-being with competence emerging as a stronger predictor ($\beta = .31, p < .01$) than autonomy ($\beta = .15, p < .01$).

A similar diary-study was performed by Reis et al. (2000). These researchers examined the extent to which competence and autonomy are related to the well-being outcomes investigated by Sheldon et al. (1996). Their findings are likewise supportive of the notion that daily fulfillment of needs for competence and autonomy are related to daily fluctuations in well-being. Furthermore, these scholars investigated the extent to which daily fluctuations in relatedness, "the feeling that one is close and connected to" others (p. 420), influenced daily well-being. Results indicate that the fulfillment of the need for relatedness significantly influenced the composite measure of well-being. Interestingly, relatedness was a significant predictor of the positive facets of well-being (positive affect, vitality) but not the negative facets of well-being (negative affect, symptomatology).

Although these studies offer rather consistent support for the relationship between the fulfillment of needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness and individual well-being, the studies suffer from various limitations. First, the studies by Reis et al. (2000) and Sheldon et al. (1996) both used student samples. Although the needs investigated are thought to be universal (Ryan & Deci, 2000), the sample selection still brings up questions of generalizability. This is particularly important to address when considering the role that need fulfillment might play in the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and well-being outcomes. Another limitation of the research by Reis et al. is that their daily measures of need fulfillment were obtained on the same questionnaire as the measures of well-being. This presents the threat that the significant

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results could be due to common source bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

A recent study by Wagner, Ilies, Wilson, DeRue, Johnson, and Ilgen (2008) has addressed both of these shortcomings in showing how the fulfillment of needs for competence and autonomy is related to subsequent well-being (positive affect, job satisfaction). First, Wagner and colleagues utilized a field sample to test their conceptual model. One requirement of participation in the study was that participants be employed full time, and that they answer the need fulfillment items while at work. The study was designed such that the 114 participants were beeped by a handheld computer at three times randomly allocated throughout the day. On these measurement occasions, the participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt competent and autonomous in the activity in which they were currently engaged. These 3 measures were averaged to obtain a daily average of how competent and autonomous the individual had felt that day. Before leaving work at the end of each of the 10 workdays included in the study the employee responded to a web-based survey assessing the employee's level of job satisfaction and positive affect for the day. Their results indicate that an employee's average sense of competence and autonomy for the day significantly predict positive affect ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$ and $\beta = .11$, $p < .05$, respectively) and job satisfaction ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .20$, $p < .01$, respectively) at the end of the day. In sum, the findings of Wagner et al. corroborate with past research on the benefits of the fulfillment of needs for competence and autonomy (and relatedness), yet do so through a more rigorous design which rules out the concern that the relationships could solely be due to common-method or common-source bias.

Additional research performed in the workplace verifies the relationships between need fulfillment and types of satisfaction. For example, Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) found that a manager's tendency to support self-determination among employees was highly correlated with employee ratings of general satisfaction ($r = .69$, $p < .01$). Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, and Ryan (1993) found that supervisor and employee ratings of autonomy and competence predicted positive outcomes including work satisfaction. And finally, results of a large research project by Spector et al. (2002) showed that, among over 5,000 managers in 24 different countries, those who felt in control of their work exhibited higher job satisfaction than those who felt that their work was driven by external influences, suggesting again that a sense of autonomy is an important determinant of one's job satisfaction.

Sheldon et al. (1996, p. 1277) suggest that "the functional role of need-fulfilling experiences…is to replenish psychological energies and thereby enable ongoing motivated behavior." In this sense, feelings of relatedness, autonomy, and competence provide employees with the essential "psychological nutriments" that are necessary in order to experience well-being (Ryan, 1995; Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996; Sheldon et al., 1996). I therefore propose that the extent to which employees feel a sense of relatedness, autonomy, and competence at work, which can be facilitated by engaging in OCBI, will be positively related to their personal well-being.

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and positive affect will be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational

citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction will be mediated by fulfillment of the

employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational

citizenship behaviors and negative affect will be mediated by fulfillment of the

employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Moderated Relationships among Citizenship, Need Fulfillment, and Personal Well-Being

Past theory and research suggests that motives for performing OCB are important

predictors of citizenship behavior. Indeed, research on the motives related to OCB (e.g.,

Grant, 2008; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007) primarily focuses on identifying various

predictors of OCB. This is an important stream of research, as it provides greater

understanding of which employees engage in OCB and when they do so. Rioux and

Penner (2001) identified three major motives for performing OCB. The first factor,

organizational concern, relates to the employee's "pride in and commitment to the

organization;" prosocial values motives deal with "a need to be helpful and a desire to

build positive relationships with others;" impression management motives involve "a

desire to avoid looking bad to coworkers and supervisors to obtain rewards" (Rioux &

Penner, 2001, p. 1307). Although these various motives might lead an individual to

engage in OCB, it is clear that the three motives are distinct from one another. Especially

evident is the contrast between prosocial value motives and impression management

motives. The prior focuses on an individual's need or desire to be helpful and to build relationships with others. In contrast, the latter is focused on obtaining rewards or preserving an image. Given the differences among these various motives, the present research sets out to examine the differential effects of each motive on the relationship between citizenship behaviors and personal and relational well-being outcomes.

Indeed, despite research examining motives as predictors of OCB, to my knowledge, no research has examined how the motives for performing citizenship behaviors moderate the impact of these behaviors on personal or relational outcomes. Citizenship behaviors might occur in organizations because people are simply predisposed to helping others and this is evidenced by their behaviors in the work environment (e.g., prosocial value motives; Rioux & Penner, 2001). However, strong situations might also determine behavior, meaning that some people might engage in citizenship behaviors because cultural norms dictate that people be "team players" even if being a team player is not part of the formal job description. Furthermore, some people might engage in citizenship behaviors because doing so will allow them to obtain some external outcome or reward, such as favorable performance evaluations from their supervisors (e.g., Hui et al., 2000) or recommendations for promotion or rewards (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998).

Because the intent of this study is to examine the impact of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors (and not organization-directed citizenship behaviors) on both personal and relational outcomes, I will not examine organizationally-relevant motives for OCB (i.e., the organizational concern motive identified by Rioux & Penner, 2001). Rather, I will focus my investigation on the moderating impact that prosocial

value motives and impression management motives have on the relationship between OCBI and the well-being outcomes.

Therefore, given that researchers have already addressed many of the antecedents of OCB (including motives for OCB), and given the paucity of research addressing the moderating effect that motives for OCB might have on relationships involving OCBI, and finally, given the potential role that perceived or attributed motives for performing OCBI could have on interpersonal or relational outcomes at work, and the role that actual motives could have on the relationship between OCBI and personal well-being, I focus this study on the moderating role of employee motives and coworker perceptions of employee motives for OCBI. Doing so will provide the field with valuable insight regarding the impact that OCBI has on organizations (shown in the early work in OCB), individuals (as discussed in the first half of this paper) and coworker relationships (as accomplished in the last half of this paper).

As an example of how motives might influence the relationships among OCBI, need fulfillment, and personal well-being, consider the following. An employee is preparing an important presentation and would benefit from feedback on the presentation. A coworker who is aware of the project and its importance offers to lend some "fresh eyes" to look over the presentation. This illustrates behaviors that are not part of the helping employee's job description, but that represent considerable value for the organization. Consider now, how the employee might respond if he did not have strong prosocial tendencies, but rather felt compelled to help by strong organizational norms or social pressures. In this instance, the employee might help, but would do so grudgingly, inconsistent with his prosocial motives. This misfit between motives and behaviors would

create dissonance within the individual, hampering the ability of OCBI to enhance the employee's well-being. However, prosocial values are not the only motives that might drive employee behaviors. Employees also might have strong motives to manage impressions that coworkers have of them. Therefore, suppose an employee offers to help review the presentation, even though doing so falls outside of her job description; suppose further that this employee is particularly interested in the image that coworkers have of her. This employee will be acting consistently with her internal motives for impression management and will therefore experience consonance with internal values, resulting in higher levels of personal well-being as an outcome of helping.

The variable benefit of performing OCBI to employees with varying levels of prosocial values and impression management motives can be understood by considering the notion of self-concordance. Self-concordant goals are those goals which are consistent with a person's developing interests and core values (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). This research suggests that pursuing self-concordant goals results in greater levels of goal progress and higher levels of well-being. For example, Sheldon and Houser-Marko (2001) found that new college students who were enrolled in college for self-concordant reasons were significantly better adjusted (including both social and emotional adjustment) at the end of their first and second semesters in college. In a study of nearly 1,000 employees and over two hundred leaders, Bono and Judge (2003) found that self-concordance was positively related to employee outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Individuals with self-concordant goals were also more likely to feel a sense of growth (i.e., their "struggle to grow and develop as a person") and to experience greater

goal progress than those pursuing non-self-concordant goals. This suggests that pursuing *self*-concordant goals (e.g., a highly prosocial individual who frequently offers help) is likely to result in a heightened sense of competence, via the growth and development of pursuing the goals. Furthermore, the social and emotional adjustment would likely enhance the sense of relatedness that the individual has with other people, thereby fulfilling another basic psychological need. Lastly, the pursuit of a goal that is completely in alignment with one's intrinsic goals will naturally satisfy the individuals sense of autonomy, as the nature of self-concordant goals suggests that they are goals which are inherently engaging for the employee. Indeed, these arguments are supported by empirical research indicating that the extent to which students pursued self-concordant goals across the course of a semester was positively related to the fulfillment of their needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy, and that these in turn predicted their subjective well-being at the end of the semester (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

Returning to the example of an employee choosing to help a coworker with a presentation, I propose that the employee who helps because he genuinely cares about helping others (i.e., has high prosocial value motives) will feel a sense of self-concordance in his behaviors. That is, he will feel that the behaviors he undertakes are consistent with what he values. Because of this he will feel a greater sense of autonomy, as has elected to perform behaviors that are consistent with his goals and what he values. Furthermore, because he highly values helping others and their success, his assistance to his coworker will help him feel a greater sense of competence and purpose. In contrast, the employee who helps his coworker merely to conform to social pressures, yet in opposition to internal values, is likely to experience reduced intrinsic benefit from

performing the citizenship behavior. In this context, he would not feel he is acting autonomously because his actions are inconsistent with what he internally values, and because he feels externally compelled to perform the behavior. This employee is also not likely to feel as competent as an employee motivated by prosocial value motives, because he does not see the way in which his actions influence valued outcomes. Finally, because of the nature of interpersonally-directed OCB, providing help to another individual is likely to provide more opportunities to experience a sense of relatedness; in sum, this will result in the fulfillment of what Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest are the three fundamental psychological needs.

Empirical research supports these assertions, as employees' self-set goals that were autonomous or self-concordant had a much higher rate of attainment (Sheldon & Elliott, 1998), and self-concordant behaviors are shown to be positively related to favorable job attitudes (Bono & Judge, 2003). Because motives for citizenship behaviors might be due to either prosocial value motives or to impression management motives, the consideration of how well behaviors match these motives is particularly important for the implications of citizenship behaviors on the fulfillment of employees' needs, and their personal well-being.

A similar stream of research indicates the harmful effects of behaving in a manner that does not represent one's internal states or values. Studies on emotional labor suggest that presenting an emotional "front" that is inconsistent with internally experienced states results in emotional dissonance, which is a strong predictor of burnout and job dissatisfaction (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). This suggests that acting inconsistently with one's values may be harmful to one's personal well-being. Specifically, when one

engages in discretionary behaviors because one feels compelled to do so, rather than doing so because of internalized values, the result could be a decrease in well-being (e.g., positive affect, job satisfaction; Ryan & Deci, 2000; see also Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Reis et al., 2000; Sheldon et al., 1996). For these reasons, I expect that when employee behaviors are not concordant with their motives, either prosocial values or impression management, the employees will experience less of the personal well-being benefit that could be derived by performing a level of helping that is consistent with their values and motives. Again, such research is consistent with empirical findings from self-concordance research (Sheldon & Elliott, 1999; Sheldon & Houser-Marko, 2001).

It is therefore evident that an employee's motives for behavior are crucial to understanding the extent to which such behaviors fulfill the employee's needs, and the extent to which the behaviors result in personal well-being outcomes. In contrast, it is the coworker-attributions of the employee's motives that have an impact on how the employee's citizenship behaviors influence relational well-being and its mediators. Therefore, the interaction of an employee's motives and helping behaviors should primarily influence the employee's *personal* well-being, whereas the interaction between helping and coworker perceptions of the employee's motives should influence *relational* well-being, as explained later.

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship

behavior and (c) negative affect, will be moderated by the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger relationships than employees with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (c) negative affect, will be moderated by the employee's impression management motives, such that employees with higher impression management motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower impression management motives.

Hypothesis 7: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, will be moderated by the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, will be moderated by the employee's impression management motives, such that employees with higher impression management

motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower

impression management motives.

In addition to the formal hypotheses just presented, I also argue that the extent to

which the moderated relationships influence personal well-being outcomes is mediated

by the fulfillment of psychological needs. Specifically, the conceptual model presented in

this dissertation argues for mediated moderation, or in the language of Edwards and

Lambert (2007), for a first-stage and direct-effects model. Therefore, the preceding

hypotheses will be complemented by an analysis of the extent to which the proposed

moderated effects are mediated by the fulfillment of psychological needs.

Citizenship Behaviors and Relational Well-Being

As discussed earlier, citizenship behaviors are those actions which are

discretionary and are not encompassed by an employee's formal job description. These

behaviors can range from being exceptionally punctual and attending non-mandatory

meetings, to assisting a coworker with a difficult problem and helping a coworker in a

time of need. Because I am interested in the relational well-being which is derived from

citizenship behaviors, I focus on interpersonally-directed OCB, or OCBI, which are

discretionary behaviors that are performed with the intent to help another person; more

precisely, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggest that OCBI includes the courtesy and

altruism facets identified by Organ (1988).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) provides an effective conceptual framework

for OCB research. This theory describes the "exchange of activity, tangible or intangible,

and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons" (Homans, 1961, p.

13). The notion behind social exchange theory is that individuals will provide one another with goods with the expectation that they will receive other goods at some point in the future. Relationships viewed in this way are assumed to strive towards equality, with reciprocity ensuring that no inequity exists (Adams, 1965). Because of this social exchange perspective, it is natural to consider the interpersonal or relational outcomes of citizenship behaviors. Specifically, I will investigate how OCBI relate to coworker exchange relationships, and how these are mediated by the extent to which coworkers trust and like the employee. The choice of these constructs is based upon social exchange theory which, as described earlier, outlines expectations which individuals form as they exchange goods, including the trust that individuals develop, little by little, as they exchange goods or services with one another across time. Below I present hypotheses connecting OCBI to relational well-being by discussing research either directly or indirectly linking citizenship behaviors to interpersonal relationships.

Perhaps the most frequently studied relationship in organizations has been the relationship between leaders and their followers. Indeed, leader-member exchange theory (LMX) has received a considerable amount of research attention over the past several decades (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Research on LMX suggests that subordinates who receive favorable treatment from their supervisors, through enhanced opportunities, resources, and other tasks that fall outside the subordinates job description, feel a desire to reciprocate these benefits to their leader. Therefore, followers are presumed to engage in extra-role or citizenship behaviors, as a way to reciprocate towards the leader. Meta-analytic estimates suggest that LMX and OCB are modestly related constructs ($\rho = .32$, Hackett, Farh, Song, & Lapierre, 2003). A

more recent meta-analysis obtained a more exhaustive collection of research articles relating LMX and OCB and found a slightly stronger relationship between the two constructs ($\rho = .37$, Ilies et al., 2007). Also of note is the finding that interpersonally-directed citizenship behavior correlated more strongly ($\rho = .38$) with LMX than did organization-directed citizenship behaviors ($\rho = .31$, and the difference between the two was statistically significant). The rationale is that, because LMX is an interpersonal, relationship-based phenomenon, employees will reciprocate the preferential treatment by performing interpersonally-focused citizenship behaviors that extend beyond their formal job requirements.

A recent study by Nahrgang, Morgeson and Ilies (2009) took a growth curve modeling approach to understanding how LMX develops between team leaders and team members. With a sample of 69 team leaders and 330 team members, these researchers traced the development of LMX relations over the initial 8 weeks following the formation of teams participating in a team-based competition related to a masters of business administration leadership course and undergraduate-level management capstone course. Findings from their study indicate that initial ratings of LMX were primarily predicted by leader agreeableness and follower extraversion. However, later ratings indicate that the development of LMX is contingent upon leader and follower performance, including follower contextual performance. This suggests that work relationships are not merely due to interpersonal similarity or personality, but also due to actual behaviors and performance in the workplace. Supervisors often form evaluations of employees based both on in-role and extra-role behaviors (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998) and the findings of

Nahrgang et al. provide some evidence that employees' citizenship behaviors influence the development of their relationships with their supervisor.

Related to the considerable amount of research on LMX is research examining exchange relationships among team members (team-member exchange, TMX; Seers, 1989) and the dyadic exchange relationships that occur among coworkers who do not necessarily function in a team (coworker exchange, CWX; Sherony & Green, 2002). These other forms of interpersonal exchange differ in the target of the exchange, but follow similar conceptual arguments as to their development and outcomes. Indeed, Venkataramani and Dalal (2007) point out that the connections between helping and interpersonal relationship variables are not restricted to leader-follower settings, thereby suggesting that findings from LMX and TMX research can be reasonably be applied to CWX research.

On the basis of past theory and research, I propose that employees who perform organizational citizenship behaviors, and particularly OCBs that are directed at other individuals (OCBI) will develop stronger exchange relationships with their coworkers than will those employees who do not engage is such interpersonally-directed behaviors.

Hypothesis 9: Employee interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors will be positively related to coworker exchange (CWX).

Mechanisms Connecting Citizenship Behaviors and Relational Well-Being

Social exchange theory also helps explain potential mechanisms that might account for the relationship between OCBI and relational well-being. As discussed

previously, social exchange theory suggests that individuals develop social bonds through the "exchange of goods, material and non-material" (Homans, 1958, p. 597). These exchanges could therefore include tangible gifts or objects of value, but could also include intangible offerings such assistance interpreting a difficult report or information regarding company norms or policies. The premise of the theory is that mutual reinforcement acts as the basis for elementary social behavior. As one person extends a good to another, the other is implicitly expected to return a good in exchange. However, this return of goods is expected to happen at an unspecified time, thereby distinguishing social exchange theory from more determinate economic approaches to exchange. Blau argues that with the repeated exchange of goods of increasing value, exchange partners develop a sense of trust between them. This is the basis of my argument that trust will mediate part of the relationship between OCBI and coworker exchange relationships. Homans suggests that with the exchange of goods comes a favorable sentiment, such that exchange partners might have some inclination to feel close or to like the other person. Given research on affective correlates of citizenship behaviors, I will also hypothesize that part of the OCBI – CWX relationship is mediated by coworker liking of the employee.

Empirical research provides some insight as to the likelihood that the mechanisms just discussed do indeed mediate the influence of OCBI on relational well-being. For example, in characterizing exchange relationships, Tse and Dasborough (2008) find that TMX is significantly related to ratings of relationships with team members ($r = .38$, $p < .05$) and positive emotions ($r = .77$, $p < .01$). Relatedly, Venkataramani and Dalal (2007) suggest that exchange relationships are related to

positive affective relationships and trust. They find empirical support for a connection between helping and positive affective relationships, and suggest that these relationships contribute to the development of trust over time. This trust is the basis for the exchange relationship, as the other party will be willing to accept short-term inequity with the expectation that favors will be reciprocated in future interactions.

OCBs are also likely to signal to colleagues that the individual performing the citizenship behaviors is a capable employee. In a study of 70 newcomers, 70 leaders, and 102 teammates in two different organizations, Chen & Klimoski (2003) studied how newcomers' past experience influenced team members' expectations about the employee. They also examined how these expectations related to the subsequent level of social exchange which team members had with the new employee. They found that newcomer experience was related to team expectations ($\beta = .28$, $p < .05$) and that these expectations were significantly related to social exchanges at time 2 ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$). The important point to consider from Chen and Klimoski's findings is that it was not necessarily the team member's ability or actual experience which impacted subsequent exchange relationships, but rather how the other team members *perceived* the newcomer's ability. This suggests that a critical determinant of CWX will be coworkers' perception of the employee's ability. Helping behaviors signal that the employee extending the help is capable at the task. Therefore, an employee who helps a coworker is demonstrating his or her ability at the task. In other words, helping behaviors can be considered a way in which employees can highlight skills which they have; these skills are particularly valuable, especially during instances in which the coworker needs help (Flynn & Brockner, 2003). Because of the potential impact of helping on others' perceptions of the

helper's ability, it is not surprising that the frequency and perceived generosity of help

has been shown to positively influence employee social status (Flynn, 2003, 2005).

Therefore, providing help might be a way in which employees improve their own

standing within the organization, thereby contributing to enhanced exchange relationships

with their peers.

Further insight into the relationship between OCBI and relational well-being is

offered through Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) model of trust, which suggests

that employee ability is a key determinant of perceived trustworthiness. Therefore,

employees who demonstrate high levels of ability by helping their coworkers should be

more likely to be trusted than those who are perceived as having low ability due to their

lack of helping behaviors. Considered together with the findings of Chen and Klimoski,

this suggests that employees who demonstrate their ability by helping their coworkers are

likely to be viewed as desirable exchange partners, thereby resulting in higher quality

coworker exchange relationships than those who do not perform OCBI, because such

behaviors send signals that the individual giving the help is capable and therefore able to

perform well on difficult tasks.

Because of the discretionary nature of helping behaviors, and due to their positive

impact on important organizational outcomes (Organ, 1988), I expect individuals who

perform OCBs to be viewed as more capable than those who do not perform such

behaviors. Furthermore, those who are in need of help are likely to experience a sense of

liking and gratitude for the helper, as receiving help will get them nearer to goal

completion. Employees who consistently help and who are widely liked will be more

prone to develop a trustworthy reputation which should result in increased desire by

coworkers to engage in exchange relationships with the employee. In this way I expect helping behaviors to be related to the quality of the coworker exchange relationship.

Given the positive reactions which coworkers will have to receiving help (via OCBI by the employee), I expect OCBI to be positively related to subsequent CWX with this relationship occurring through the influence of OCBI on coworkers' trust in and liking of the employee. I therefore hypothesize the following.

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be mediated by (a) coworker trust in the employee and (b) coworker liking of the employee.

Moderated Relationships among Citizenship, Trust, Liking, and Relational Well-Being

Social interactions in organizations are never entirely independent of one another. This suggests that employee behaviors and interactions with their coworkers will be interpreted in context of how that individual typically acts. These interpretations are pervasive, because most people tend to try and make sense of their surroundings (Heider, 1958), including making attributions for the behaviors of those around them. Attribution theory explains both how people form attributions for behavior, and how these attributions shape their reaction to behaviors. My emphasis is on the latter part of the model; specifically, I consider how the attributions which coworkers make will influence the positive relationship between OCB and relational well-being, and the relationship between OCB and the mediators trust and liking.

In Bolino's (1999) conceptual treatment of OCBs he considers whether employees performing citizenship behaviors are "good soldiers" or merely "good actors." The underlying behaviors might be exactly the same, but it is the attributions which employees make which might mean all the difference between reacting with gratitude (Tesser et al., 1968) or with viewing the behavior as office politics (Ferris et al., 1995).

Ferris et al. (1995) note that the organizational politics construct is closely related to several other constructs, including impression management, and that the differences between the various constructs are minimal. Therefore the study of office politics and citizenship behaviors provides a useful basis for my investigation of the moderating role of impression management and prosocial value motives on the helping and relational well-being relationship. "The key differentiating feature between politics and citizenship is not so much the particular behaviors a person exhibits, but rather the motives or intentions attributed to the person by the perceiver in making sense of why the behaviors were displayed" (Ferris et al., 1995, p. 232). Therefore, it is not possible to distinguish between activities designed to benefit coworkers and the organization (OCB) and activities designed to primarily benefit the employee (politics), merely on the basis of the behaviors themselves.

Behaviors such as providing favors or building up others through spoken messages have been shown to increase an individual's liking of the person performing the behaviors (Ferris et al., 1995; Jones, 1990; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). A study by Tepper et al. (2004) illustrates one reason why the interpretation of helping behaviors as political versus prosocial is important. Over the course of two studies, Tepper et al. illustrate the differential effects which OCBs performed by coworkers have on employees. Findings

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from their first study indicate that OCBs performed by coworkers are positively related to employee organizational commitment seven months later. One reason why citizenship behaviors might have this effect on employees is the influence which the frequent performance of OCBs could have on an organization's work climate. If coworkers are frequently engaging in OCBs, workers might feel a greater sense of confidence or trust in their coworkers, knowing that they can rely upon them if they need help. In a second study Tepper and colleagues found that when controlling for attributed motives for OCBs, coworker OCBs were positively related to employee job satisfaction; this might suggest that the positive atmosphere fostered by helpful coworkers results in the employee liking his or her coworkers and job more than employees in an unhelpful work environment. Not only did the study by Tepper et al. illustrate the main effects of OCB on these outcomes, but also the importance of the attributions which employees make for their coworkers' OCB. Specifically, the study found that when coworkers who were attributed with self-serving motives performed high levels of OCB, the employee was less satisfied with the job than when the apparently self-serving coworkers performed low levels of OCB. In contrast, when the employee observed high levels of OCB from coworkers whose actions he or she attributed to well-intentioned motives, the employee experienced much higher levels of job satisfaction than when the coworkers did not perform OCB. Taken together, Tepper and colleagues' two studies suggest that the performance of OCB will influence another employee's well-being, and that the influence is moderated by the motives which help recipients attribute to their coworkers' behaviors.

Given the positive impact which one employee's citizenship behaviors can have on another employee, and the likely increases in the help recipient's liking of the job and

coworkers, along with the recipient's increased commitment to the organization, I suggest that employees perceived as having high prosocial motives are prone to be liked more than those who help others and are perceived as having high impression management motives. In addition to the moderating effect of prosocial value and impression management motives, it is again worth noting that I expect a main positive effect of helping on relational well-being, trust and liking.

An experimental study by Goranson and Berkowitz (1966) offers further insight into how the perceived motivation behind helping behaviors influences subsequent interactions between the helper and the help recipient. Subjects were divided into three groups in which they received help from a confederate. One third of the subjects received help that appeared to be autonomously initiated by the confederate, one third received help after the confederate was apparently compelled to help, and one third were refused help by the confederate. In a subsequent trial, the subjects were led to believe that they were subordinates of a supervisor who happened to be the confederate from the prior stage of the experiment. The supervisor was to receive a reward based upon how hard the subordinate worked at a task. Findings indicate that those subjects whose supervisor had taken the initiative to help them were likely to exert higher levels of effort than subordinates who viewed the help they had received as being compulsory.

The study by Goranson and Berkowitz (1966) is particularly important to my questions of interest as the design of the study outlines a working exchange relationship. Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), people tend to strive towards equity (Adams, 1965) by reciprocating received help at some later time. Social exchange theory suggests that the reciprocation of goods or services is not explicitly established prior to or

during the interaction, but that it is implicitly assumed as a condition of the exchange. Therefore, the various conditions of receiving help in the study of Goranson and Berkowitz indicate the manner in which exchange relationships between coworkers might vary depending on the perceived motives behind helping.

For example, in two-thirds of the conditions, a confederate helped the subject with her task during the first portion of the experiment. In the second stage of the experiment, in which the confederate played the part of a supervisor, and the subject played the part of the supervisor's subordinate, researchers strongly implied that the subordinate's performance would be the primary determinant of whether the supervisor (the confederate) would receive a cash prize. This situation clearly outlines an exchange relationship, albeit an indirect one. The subject directly benefited by the confederate's help during the first portion of the experiment, whereas the confederate (supervisor) benefited indirectly from the subject's (subordinate) efforts via the relationship between subordinate effort and supervisor reward. These findings suggest that when coworkers receive help from another employee, and the coworkers view this help as being sincerely motivated rather than compelled, they are more likely to reciprocate the help through a higher quality exchange. Therefore, helping that is attributed to prosocial motives will more likely lead to high quality coworker exchange relationships than will helping that is attributed to external motives which might include the seeking of external rewards via impression management.

A second, and related, interpretation of these findings could be that coworkers who attribute an employee's help to prosocial motives could begin to view that employee as someone in whom they can trust. Because attributions of helping behavior to stable

prosocial motives suggest a high level of reliability and invariance in the employee's behaviors, coworkers who attribute an employee's help to prosocial value motives are likely to trust that the employee will act in a similar fashion in other situations because the motive is to obtain internal benefits. In contrast, a coworker who attributes an employee's help to self-serving or impression managing motives might expect the employee's behaviors to vary depending on what would provide the employee with the most instrumental benefit. The accumulation of coworkers' evaluations of an employee's trustworthiness is likely to lead to that employee's development as either someone on whom others can depend, or as a self-interested employee seeking primarily his or her own gain. Therefore, attributions of the motives behind helping are likely to influence the amount of trust that coworkers have in the employee, which will likely influence the extent to which the employees develop a high quality coworker exchange relationship.

Other scholars also offer support for the notion that the value of helping behaviors might be contingent upon the motives perceived to motivate helping. As cited by Ferris et al. (1995, p. 239), Jones and Pittman (1982, p. 179) argue that "the very success of ingratiation usually depends on the actor's concealment of ulterior motivation." This suggests that if ingratiation or other self-serving behaviors are performed in a way that elicits prosocial attributions by observers, then the employee performing the behaviors will derive considerable benefit from the behaviors. In contrast, if the actor is unable to conceal his or her self-serving intent then the recipients of the ingratiatory or helpful behavior will warily respond and the actor will derive considerably less benefit from the actions. I suggest that the critical factors determining the impact of behaviors on

relational well-being are the attributions which coworkers make for the help the employee extends.

The model of trust developed by Mayer et al. (1995) suggests that factors of perceived trustworthiness include benevolence and integrity. Benevolence is a concept closely related to altruism. In other words, Mayer and colleagues' model implicitly suggests that performing altruistic citizenship behaviors is a manifestation of an employee's trustworthiness. Therefore, as employees demonstrate citizenship behaviors, they are more likely to be trusted by their coworkers. One of the fundamental motives thought to lead to citizenship behaviors is prosocial values. Individuals with prosocial values engage in citizenship behaviors because it is the natural expression of who they are. Employees with high prosocial values will engage in citizenship behaviors because they are naturally inclined to do so, and they derive benefit directly from the activity because it is consistent with their internal desires (Rioux & Penner, 2001). As coworkers make attributions that an employee's citizenship behaviors are performed because the employee sincerely likes helping other people, then the coworkers are likely to perceive the employee as benevolent, and therefore trustworthy (Mayer et al., 1995). In contrast, if employees are not intrinsically motivated by prosocial values, but rather by a desire to manage impressions, the employee will derive benefit from the impressions which others form of him or her. However, when coworkers make impression managing attributions for coworker citizenship behaviors, they might be less likely to respond favorably to the help. This might be due to the coworker's perception that the employee is not dealing with integrity, another antecedent to trust identified by Mayer et al., thereby harming the trust which the coworker might have in the employee. Coworkers who make impression

managing attributions to their coworkers also might be concerned that the employee is providing help merely to gain social status or to generate a "favor deficit" between the two. Because people tend to avoid inequity (Adams, 1965), I suggest that helpers attributed with impression managing motives will be liked by their coworkers less than helpers who are attributed with prosocial motives (see Allen & Rush, 1998). Therefore, the motive to which coworkers attribute employee helping are critical in determining the coworkers' reactions to the help, with the influence of helping on CWX occurring through coworker trust in and liking of the employee.

In their study, Tepper et al. (2004) found that employee well-being was related to the quantity of coworkers' OCB. Findings indicate that the more an employee perceives that his or her coworkers are engaging in citizenship behaviors, the higher the satisfaction the employee experiences. These findings are moderated by the employee's attributions of the coworkers' behaviors. When behaviors are attributed to good intentions, the relationship is strongly positive. In contrast, when employees attribute coworker OCBs to self-serving motives, the relationship between coworker OCB and employee job satisfaction is negative. These findings suggest that workers who receive OCBs from their colleagues will be more prone to like their colleagues, due to the benefits they derive from the relationship, but only when employees appear to have prosocial motives.

Hypothesis 11: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational

citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be moderated by coworker

attributions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees

attributed with higher prosocial value motives will have a stronger positive relationship than employees attributed with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees attributed with higher impression management motives will have a weaker positive relationship than employees attributed with lower impression management motives.

Hypothesis 13: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees attributed with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees attributed with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees attributed with higher impression management motives will have weaker positive relationships than employees attributed with lower impression management motives.

Method

I tested the hypotheses with a field sample of full-time employees and their

coworkers; first I assessed employee interpersonally-directed citizenship behavior, as

rated by coworkers, and the influence that these behaviors have on employee-rated

relatedness, competence, and autonomy at time 1. I then tested the extent to which the

fulfillment of these needs mediated the relationship between citizenship behavior and

personal well-being, including positive affect, job satisfaction and negative affect, at time

2. I then tested employee self-rated prosocial value and impression management motives

as moderators of relationship between OCBI and personal well-being.

Second, in the relational well-being portion of the model I examined how

coworker-rated helping related to coworker-rated trust and liking at time 1, and how these

mediated the relationship between employee citizenship behavior and coworker exchange

relationships at time 2. Finally, I examined the extent to which coworker perceptions of

employee prosocial value and impression management motives moderated these

relationships. A summary of these relationships was presented earlier in Figure 1.

Research Setting and Participants

Before obtaining a sample of participants, I performed a power analysis to

determine the number of subjects I would need to find my hypothesized effects. Given

the typically high reliability of the measures of helping and motives used in the study

(many exceeding $a = .90$; Rioux & Penner, 2001), and correlations ranging from nearly r

$= .25$ to $r = .40$ for the main effects (Ilies et al., 2007; Organ & Ryan, 1995), the required

power would be in the range of 70 to 140 participants. However, as I also investigate

moderating effects, I needed substantially more participants to achieve a reasonable level

of power to observe these effects. Specifically, using an alpha level of .05 and a power of .80, and assuming that the interaction term would account for an additional three to four percent of the variance in the outcomes, I needed to obtain data from approximately 186 to 250 participants.

Because a critical component of my model is interpersonally directed OCB, it is important that my sample include employees who have opportunities to help their coworkers on a regular basis. Therefore, my sampling strategy focused on entire organizations or departments in which employees have a tendency to interact with one another. Managers from participating organizations were asked "During a typical work week, do employees in this organization have opportunities to interact with or help one another in their work?" Organizations were only invited to participate if the manager was able to indicate that employees indeed have opportunities to interact during a typical work week. This ensured that participants have opportunities to interact with their peers at work, thereby providing opportunities for variance in helping behaviors. Moreover, I asked participants to answer the question, "On average, how often do you have opportunities to interact with other employees, or help/receive help from other employees?" Responses were given on a scale from *1 = once per year or less*, to *7 = hourly or more often*. Over 73% of respondents reported having opportunities to help or receive help from other employees *several times per day* or *hourly or more often* (scoring either 6 or 7 on the 7-point scale). One respondent scored a 2 on the scale (*more than once per year*) and all other respondents scored 3 (*more than once per month*) or higher. Therefore, because no respondents scored on the bottom of the scale (*1 = once per year or less*) I included all respondents in the analyses.

I obtained responses from a total of 184 employees, matched at time 1 and time 2, working in 9 different companies. The largest company and one of the smaller companies create and sell software and web applications, and provide web design. Two companies are in the healthcare sector (e.g., hospital, dental practice), one company provides supplies for construction, and one provides financial services; three other organizations work in higher education. Within these various companies, employees held jobs related to sales, shipping, marketing, software development, web development, nursing, dentistry, and financial services.

On average, the employees who participated in the study had 4.9 years experience with their respective companies and held their current job title for 3.7 years. Over 78% held at least a 4-year college degree and 60% of the participants were male. The majority of the sample was Caucasian (90%), with participants also self-identifying as Asian (5%), African-American (2%), Hispanic (1%), Pacific-Islander (1%), and other (1%). The majority of the respondents ($N = 129$) worked in one organization, and each of the remaining respondents ($N = 55$) worked in one of the remaining 8 companies. A comparison of respondents from the large organization versus all other respondents indicated that the two groups are not significantly different with regard to gender, race, or level of education. However, the large group of respondents had, on average, 5.1 fewer years working at their present company, and 4.5 fewer years working with their current job title. This difference in tenure might be due to the fact that the first company is younger than most of the other companies (e.g., just over 20 years old, as compared to 70 years for the company with one of the larger groups of participants). I examined the fifteen variables used in the analyses via ANOVA, comparing mean levels of each

variable as a function of company affiliation, and found that there are no significant differences in mean levels for 11 of the 15 variables measured, with job satisfaction, coworker exchange, and employee rated motives (prosocial and impression managing) showing significant differences in mean levels. I tested the hypotheses with a reduced sample, including only participants from the largest group of respondents, and found that the pattern of results was nearly identical to that for the entire sample. Therefore, I include the full dataset in the analyses.

Procedure

As stated, data collection occurred in nine different organizations. Each participating organization provided a list of potential participants, including names, email addresses, and an indication of the coworkers with whom each employee interacts at work. From this list I randomly selected three coworkers to rate each focal employee. This approach ensured that there was no systematic selection of coworkers, thus increasing the likelihood that I would obtain variance in coworker ratings of employee OCBI, rather than allowing the employee to solicit ratings from coworkers who would all provide high ratings of OCBI and coworker exchange (e.g., an employee would be likely to suggest that a well-liked coworker provide ratings, rather than a coworker with whom the employee had a poor relationship).

Once rating assignments were made for each coworker, I emailed each participant in the organization with a form email briefly summarizing the study, mentioning the possibility of winning an iPhone for participating, and listing the names of the three employees whom they would rate. The email also contained the URL to an online survey which would gather the participant's responses. After approximately 4 days I sent a

reminder to participants who had not yet responded to the survey. Approximately three days later I sent a final reminder asking non-respondents to complete the survey. Approximately one to two weeks after completing the first survey, I sent participants an email inviting them to complete the second and final survey. Following the same pattern, participants who completed the first survey were sent up to two reminders before the data collection for the organization was closed

When filling out the surveys at time 1, focal employees completed measures of their motives for OCBI (prosocial values and impression management) and the employee's sense of relatedness, autonomy, and competence, as they had been experienced over the preceding two months. Coworkers filled out a measure of the focal employee's OCBI over the prior two months, ratings of the employee's motives for performing the OCBI, and ratings of the coworkers' trust in and liking of the employee. At time 2, approximately 2 weeks later, I emailed each employee a link to an online survey collecting positive affect, job satisfaction, and negative affect. At time 2 coworkers also reported on the quality of their exchange relationship with each of the three employees they had rated at time 1.

The relationship between OCBI and personal well-being, including mediators and moderators, was assessed via averaged coworker reports of employee OCBI, and employee reports on measures estimating mediators, moderators, and outcomes. The relationship between OCBI and coworker exchange, including the mediators and moderators, was assessed from coworker reports, thus allowing me to examine how coworker perceptions of employee OCBI influence the coworker-employee relationship. Although the same-source responses for the relational well-being model do raise some

concern, the measures will either be separated temporally, or the relationships among measures will be moderated, which minimizes concern that significant relationships might be due to common source variance (Cummins, 1972; Evans, 1985).

Measurement

Measures Testing Relationship between Citizenship and Personal Well-Being

Interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors. OCBI was measured by asking coworkers to respond to Williams and Anderson's (1991) seven-item measure, using anchors ranging from *1 = strongly disagree*, to *7 = strongly agree*. Example items read "This employee helps others who have been absent," and "This employee helps others who have heavy workloads." These scores were then averaged, such that each employee had a score comprised of the ratings made by his or her coworkers. Reliability for this coworker-rated measure of helping was $\alpha = .89$.

Motives for OCB. The employee's motives for performing OCBI were self-reported with Rioux and Penner's (2001) prosocial values motive and impression management motive scales, which were each ten items long. Employees were asked how important each motive is for them with regard to why they perform helping behaviors at work. Responses range from *1 = not at all important*, to *7 = extremely important*. The measure of prosocial values motives had items such as "Because I feel it is important to help those in need" and had a reliability of $\alpha = .85$. The measure of impression management motives had items such as "To impress my co-workers" and had a reliability of $\alpha = .92$.

Relatedness. The extent to which performing the helping behaviors satisfied the employee's need for relatedness was measured using Reis and colleagues two-item

measure (Reis et al., 2000). I also included an additional item, related to the original two items, and modified all items to reference employees' sense of relatedness with their coworkers following OCBI over the preceding two months. I used this measure because of its prevalence in research examining the relationship between need fulfillment and individual well-being, and because of its considerable empirical support as a predictor of well-being. The instructions for the measures reference behaviors over the past two months that have been beyond the scope of normal job duties and in which the employee has helped or assisted other coworkers. The stem read "After doing these things, I..." and was followed by items such as "felt close and connected with my coworkers." The entire list of items is given in the appendix. Responses to the items were given by the employee on a scale from *1 = not at all*, to *7 = extremely*. Reliability for the measure was $\alpha = .89$.

Competence. The extent to which performing the helping behaviors satisfied the employee's need for competence was measured with three items based on the item used by Reis et al. (2000; see also Wagner et al., 2008). The original measure asked respondents to think about the three activities on which they spent the most time that day, and to indicate their effectiveness at each of the three activities on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all effective*) to 7 (*extremely effective*). However, because my study examines longer periods of time and one broad category of behaviors, I created two additional items, similar to the item used by Reis et al., for a total of three items. This approach is consistent with the measure used by Wagner et al. (2008). Participants were reminded of various behaviors as examples of OCBI, and were then given the stem "After doing these things, I..." followed by items such as "...felt capable as an employee." Responses were

given by the employee on a scale from *1 = not at all,* to *7 = extremely.* Reliability for the measure was α = .88.

Autonomy. The extent to which performing OCBI satisfied the employee's need for autonomy was measured with four items assessing external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation (Sheldon et al., 1996), and were weighted -2, -1, +1, and +2 respectively, and then summed to create an overall measure of autonomy. More specifically, employees used a scale from *1 = strongly disagree,* to *7 = strongly agree.* Respondents were instructed to consider the times they performed certain behaviors classified as OBCI over the past two months, and then read the stem "I engaged in these behaviors over the past two months because..." followed by the items "something about my situation forced me to do it" (external), "I made myself do it, to avoid anxiety or guilt" (introjected), "interesting or not, I felt that it expressed my true values" (identified), and "I did it purely for the interest and enjoyment in doing it" (intrinsic). The score given for the extrinsic motivation item was multiplied by negative two (-2), the score given for the introjected motivation item was multiplied by negative one (-1), the score given for the identified motivation item was unchanged (multiplied by positive one), and the score given for the intrinsic motivation item was multiplied by positive two (+2). This approach to evaluating the satisfaction of autonomy needs is common in studies of self-determination theory (c.f., Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Reis et al., 2000; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995; Sheldon et al., 1996). As an alternative approach to computing this scale I reverse coded the external and introjected items and then averaged the four items. The coefficient alpha for the measure when using this approach was α = .44 (however, because of the weighting scheme used in this study coefficient alpha does

not apply to this measure; this is consistent with the the lengthy list of studies just cited). The two scales correlate $r = .98, p < .01$. For all analyses in the paper I use the summed measure constructed using the weighting scheme proposed by past research (e.g., -2, -1, +1, +2).

Positive and negative affect. Positive and negative affect were self-reported by the employee at time 2, by indicating the extent to which they felt 20 adjective descriptors of affect from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson & Clark, 1994) over the preceding two months. This measure was used because it is one of the most widely used instruments to assess affect, typically demonstrates high reliabilities, and is an important component of well-being. Adjectives for the positive scale include "interested," "enthusiastic," and "excited," and adjectives for the negative scale include "upset," "irritable," and "distressed." Responses were given on a scale from *1 = slightly or not at all*, to *7 = very much*, and had a reliability of $\alpha = .92$ for PA and $\alpha = .89$ for NA.

Job satisfaction. The employee's job satisfaction over the prior two months was self-reported at time 2 with the five-item Brayfield-Rothe Index (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). This five-item version of the index is among the most frequently used measures of employee job satisfaction, and provides a very concise measure of an important facet of well-being; the measure also generally shows strong internal consistency. The items in the measure were modified from a general evaluation of job satisfaction to an assessment of job attitudes over the preceding two months. The specific items read as follows: "Over the past two months I have found real enjoyment in my work," "Most days over the past two months I have felt enthusiastic about my work," "During the past two months I have felt fairly satisfied with my present job," "Each day of work over the past two months has

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seemed like it would never end" (reverse-coded) and "During the last two months I have considered my job rather unpleasant" (reverse-coded). Ratings were given on a seven-point scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree,* to *7 = strongly agree.* Reliability for the measure was $\alpha = .86$.

Measures Testing Relationship between Citizenship and Relational Well-Being

Interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors. OCBI was measured by asking coworkers to respond to Williams and Anderson's (1991) seven-item measure, using anchors ranging from *1 = strongly disagree,* to *7 = strongly agree.* Example items read "This employee helps others who have been absent," and "This employee helps others who have heavy workloads." I use this measure of OCBI because of its prevalence in the literature and its strong nomological support; of course, the primary reason for using the measure is because it directly assesses the construct of interest, OCBI. Reliability for this coworker-rated measure of helping was $\alpha = .89$.

Motives for OCB. Coworkers were asked to attribute the motives which drove the employee's OCBI over the prior two months by responding to Rioux and Penner's (2001) prosocial values motives and impression management motive scales (ten items each). Coworkers indicated how important they thought that each of the statements was for the employee in determining his or her motivation for helping others at work. Responses range from *1 = not at all important,* to *7 = extremely important.* The measure of prosocial values motives had items such as "Because s/he feels it is important to help those in need" and had a reliability of $\alpha = .94$. The measure of impression management motives had items such as "To impress her/his co-workers" and had a reliability of $\alpha = .96$.

Trust. Coworkers were asked to indicate the extent of their trust in the employee by responding to the six-item cognition-based trust scale by McAllister (1995). I selected this scale because it assesses the extent to which coworkers trust the employee's professionalism, job-related competence, and general performance in the workplace. These are perceptions which I expect to be related to the employee's performance of OCBI in the workplace. The measure includes items such as "Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker," and "I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work." All items were rated on a scale from *1 = strongly disagree*, to *7 = strongly agree*. The measure had a reliability of $\alpha = .91$.

Liking. The extent to which coworkers like the focal employee was assessed with a four-item measure used by Wayne and Ferris (1990). The measure originally referred to leader-subordinate relationships; I adapted the measure to instead refer to coworker relationships. The first item "How much do you like this coworker?" was rated on a scale from *1 = I don't like this coworker at all*, to *7 = I like this coworker very much.* The remaining three items, which included items such as "Working with this person is a pleasure," were rated on a scale from *1 = strongly disagree*, to *7 = strongly agree.* Reliability for the measure was $\alpha = .93$.

Relationship quality. Relationship quality was measured at time 2, using Sherony and Green's (2002) six-item measure of coworker exchange, which was derived from Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) measure of leader-member exchange. This measure was chosen because it is the only measure that deals directly with coworker exchange relationships, and is derived from an already well-validated measure of LMX. Coworker

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responses were given on a scale from *1* to *7*, with various anchors as shown in the

appendix. Example items read "Do you know where you stand with this co-worker?" and

"How would you characterize your working relationship with this co-worker?"

Reliability for the measure was $\alpha = .92$.

Analyses and Results

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Although all of the measures used in this study are previously validated and well-established in the literature, before performing substantive analyses I ensured that the proposed constructs were indeed uniquely measured and that they each loaded on their appropriate construct. To achieve this I performed a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). The results of these analyses are given in Table 1. Because I have four different combinations of measures (source by time), I performed four different CFAs. The first included employee-rated measures at time 1. These items were meant to represent six different constructs: OCBI, prosocial value motives, impression management motives, relatedness, autonomy, and competence. Therefore, I ran a one-factor model with all items loading on one common factor, a two-factor model, with items loading on an OCB factor (OCBI, prosocial motives, impression management motives) and a need fulfillment factor, and a six-factor model, with items loading on their hypothesized constructs. An evaluation of the comparative fit indices (CFI), root mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the χ^2 values for the various models indicates that the six-factor model, with each construct loading on its own factor, represents the most appropriate structure for the data, with the lowest χ^2 (1457.35, 614 df) and RMSEA (.080) values, and highest CFI (.786) value. Moreover, the six-factor model fit the data significantly better than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1860.90$, 14 df, $p < .01$).

Employee responses at time 2, including positive affect, job satisfaction, and negative affect, were examined in three separate CFAs with comparisons made between

Table 1. *Confirmatory Factor Analyses*

Model	df	χ^2	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Employee Measures: T1					
One-factor model	629	3644.95	.233	.150	.183
Two-factor model	628	3318.25	.316	.142	.179
Six-factor model	614	1457.35	.786	.080	.092
Employee Measures: T2					
One-factor model	275	1843.69	.481	.173	.164
Two-factor model	274	1632.74	.551	.161	.166
Three-factor model	272	951.07	.775	.114	.092
Coworker Measures: T1					
One-factor model	629	12600.21	.459	.178	.214
Two-factor model	628	10721.17	.544	.164	.215
Five-factor model	619	6017.99	.892	.080	.061
Coworker Measures: T2					
One-factor model	9	95.424	.959	.136	.032

Note. N = 213 for employee T1; N = 192 for employee T2; N = 602 for coworker T1; N = 521 for coworker T2; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean squared residual.

the one-factor, two-factor (affect factor and satisfaction factor) and three factor models. Evaluation of the comparative fit indices (CFI), root mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the χ^2 values for the various models suggests that a three-factor model, with each construct loading on its own factor, represents the most appropriate structure for the data, with the lowest χ^2 (951.07, 272 *df*) and RMSEA (.114) values, and highest CFI (.775) value. The three-factor model fit the data significantly better than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 681.67, 2 *df, p* < .01).

Coworker responses at time 1, which include ratings of employee OCBI, perceived prosocial motives for helping, perceived impression managing motives for helping, trust in the employee, and liking of the employee, were also analyzed via CFA. The resulting comparative fit indices (CFI), root mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the χ^2 values for the various models contrast the fit of the data to a one-factor model, a two-factor model (OCBI and motives as one factor, trust and liking as the second factor), and a five-factor model with each set of items loading on its *a priori* factor. Through these analyses I was able to determine that the five-factor model, with each construct loading on its own factor, represents the most appropriate structure for the data, with the lowest χ^2 (6017.99, 619 *df*) and RMSEA (.080) values, and highest CFI (.892) value. This five-factor model fit the data significantly better than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4703.18$, 9 *df*, $p < .01$).

Finally, coworker responses at time 2 consisted of only one measure, and I therefore performed a CFA to ensure that the *a priori* factor structure of the measure held for my data. The comparative fit index (CFI), and the χ^2 value suggests that the one-factor model is a reasonable fit for the data ($\chi^2 = 95.42$, 9 *df*; RMSEA = .136; CFI = .959). See Table 1 for a summary of each of these measurement models and the competing models.

Personal Well-Being Analyses

I tested the personal well-being hypotheses via ordinary least squares regression, using hierarchical regression for the hypotheses examining moderator effects. In testing this portion of the model, I used the average coworker ratings of employee OCBI over the prior two months; therefore, I computed the inter-rater and group-mean reliability of

OCBI ratings to assess the appropriateness of aggregating this measure, and to give empirical rationale for the conceptually relevant estimate of the actual citizenship behaviors in which the employee engaged over the prior two months. Results indicate significant inter-rater reliability ($ICC1$ = .18, p < .01). However, the group-mean reliability was quite low ($ICC2$ = .32), which is due to the small number of coworkers providing ratings for each employee (the average number of raters was 2.14 per employee). In addition to computing the ICC for OCBI ratings, I also computed an index of interrater agreement (r_{WG}; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993). In doing so I used the null or rectangular distribution, consistent with the notion that a random selection of coworkers should provide ratings of OCBI covering the entire range of the scale. Results suggest a high level of agreement among coworkers in ratings of employee OCBI (median r_{WG} = .90), exceeding cutoff criteria recently proposed by Cohen, Doveh, and Nahum-Shani (2009). Based on these collective tests, I have a reasonable empirical basis for aggregation of OCBI ratings; therefore, as planned, I use them as predictors in the personal well-being analyses.

Personal Well-Being Results

To give an overview of how the variables in the study are related, I present a correlation matrix in Table 2. Examination of the correlation matrix indicates that average OCBI ratings are positively related to self-ratings of prosocial value motives (r = .22, p < .01), but unrelated to impression management motives. The table also indicates that self-ratings of motives for helping are not significantly correlated (r = .06, p > .10), suggesting that it is appropriate to examine the moderating effects of prosocial value motives and impression management motives separately from one another. The

Table 1. *Correlations Among All Study Variables*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. OCBI	5.42	.80	(.89)						
2. Prosocial Values	5.81	.66	.22**	(.85)					
3. Impression Management	3.16	1.32	.02	.06	(.92)				
4. Relatedness	5.50	.98	.12	.31**	.00	(.89)			
5. Autonomy	4.90	5.50	.05	.35***	-.29**	.30**	.--		
6. Competence	5.82	.94	.06	.28***	.10	.46***	.23**	(.88)	
7. Positive Affect	3.82	.65	.10	.23**	-.10	.15*	.16**	.11	(.92)
8. Job Satisfaction	5.63	1.07	.14†	.15*	-.08	.18*	.18**	.18*	.58**
9. Negative Affect	1.69	.60	.00	-.13†	.10	-.11	-.14†	.01	-.29**
10. Prosocial Values	5.19	.84	.76***	.30**	.05	.22**	.05	.09	.12
11. Impression Management	3.24	1.08	-.47***	-.05	.22**	.00	-.01	.06	-.09
12. Trust	5.84	.90	.72***	.07	-.03	.06	-.01	.04	.08
13. Liking	5.80	.85	.74***	.19*	.00	.16*	.03	.03	.00
14. Coworker Exchange	3.73	.80	.65***	.09	-.15†	.01	-.01	-.07	-.03

Variable	M	SD	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
8. Job Satisfaction	5.63	1.07	(.86)						
9. Negative Affect	1.69	.60	-.47**	(.89)					
10. Prosocial Values	5.19	.84	.10	-.06	(.94)				
11. Impression Management	3.24	1.08	-.11	.00	-.43***	(.96)			
12. Trust	5.84	.90	.16*	-.03	.56***	-.53**	(.91)		
13. Liking	5.80	.85	.09	.05	.73***	-.55***	.73**	(.93)	
14. Coworker Exchange	3.73	.80	-.06	.04	.58**	-.48	.56**	.70**	(.92)

Note. N = 163-184. OCBI = average coworker ratings at time 1; variables 1 through 6 reported by employee at time 1, variables 7 through 9 rated by employee at time 1, variables 10 through 13 rated by coworkers at time 1, variable 14 rated by coworker at time 2.

correlations also indicate that the extent to which each of the needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy was fulfilled over the first time period of the study was positively related to at least one of the personal well-being outcomes at the second measurement period (see Table 2 for details).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors would be positively related to employee personal well-being, including (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and negatively related to (c) negative affect. Results of the regression analyses indicate that average coworker-rated OCBI is not related to positive affect (β = .10, t = 1.38, p > .10; see Table 3) or negative affect (β = .00, t = .04, p > .10; see Table 5), but is marginally related to job satisfaction (β = .14, t = 1.86, p < .10; see Table 4), consistent with Hypothesis 1b. Thus Hypothesis 1a and 1c were not supported, and Hypothesis 1b received weak support. See Tables 3, 4, and 5 for more details regarding these results.

Table 3. *Regression of Positive Affect on Interpersonally-Directed Citizenship Behaviors (OCBI) and Mediators*

Predictors	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	3.35		9.72**	2.90		6.21**
OCBI	.09	.10	1.38	.08	.10	1.25
Relatedness				.05	.08	.93
Autonomy				.01	.11	1.32
Competence				.02	.03	.36
R^2	.01			.04		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Fulfillment of the needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence employee-rated at time 1. B values represent raw regression coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † p < .10, two-tailed. * p < .05, two-tailed. ** p < .01, two-tailed.

Table 4. *Regression of Job Satisfaction on Interpersonally-Directed Citizenship Behaviors (OCBI) and Mediators*

Predictors	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	4.61		8.19**	3.41		4.48**
OCBI	.19	.14	1.86†	.16	.12	1.59
Relatedness				.09	.09	.98
Autonomy				.02	.11	1.38
Competence				.13	.11	1.29
R^2	.00			.07		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Fulfillment of the needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence employee-rated at time 1. B values represent raw regression coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 5. *Regression of Negative Affect on Interpersonally-Directed Citizenship Behaviors (OCBI) and Mediators*

Predictors	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	1.68		5.36**	1.83		4.28**
OCBI	.00	.00	.04	.01	.02	.20
Relatedness				-.08	-.13	-1.47
Autonomy				-.01	-.13	-1.58
Competence				.05	.08	.97
R^2	.02			.03		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Fulfillment of the needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence employee-rated at time 1. B values represent raw regression coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and positive affect will be mediated by

fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence. However, there can be no mediating effect of these variables because there is no significant relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and positive affect (see Table 3). Therefore, Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c are not supported. Furthermore, examination of the mediators, measured at time 1, as predictors of positive affect at time 2 indicates that there is no relationship between the fulfillment of needs for relatedness, autonomy, or competence and positive affect ($\beta = .08$, $t = .93$, $p > .10$; $\beta = .11$, $t = 1.32$, $p > .10$; $\beta = .03$, $t = .36$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction would be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence. The relationship between citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction was marginally significant, and thus there is a possibility that some of this effect could be mediated. However, none of the proposed mediators were themselves significantly related to job satisfaction at time 2. Therefore, Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c were not supported (see Table 4). Furthermore, results indicate the lack of a relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of needs for relatedness ($\beta = .12$, $t = 1.53$, $p > .10$; see Table 6), autonomy ($\beta = .05$, $t = .68$, $p > .10$; see Table 7), and competence ($\beta = .05$, $t = .71$, $p > .10$; see Table 8)

Table 6. *Regression of Relatedness on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	4.73		9.21**	5.48		74.45**	5.50		74.27**
OCBI	.14	.12	1.53	.05	.04	.53	.17	.14	1.85†
PSV				.50	.33	4.28**			
IM							.01	.01	.12
OCBI x PSV				.16	.09	1.24			
OCBI x IM							.19	.21	2.73**
R^2	.01			.11			.06		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives, impression management motives, and fulfillment of the need for relatedness employee-rated at time 1. β values represent standardized regression coefficients. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 7. *Regression of Autonomy on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	3.07		1.06	5.00		12.14**	4.99		12.27**
OCBI	.36	.05	.68	-.18	-.03	-.35	.34	.05	.67
PSV				2.88	.34	4.38**			
IM							-1.27	-.30	-4.12**
OCBI x PSV				-.10	-.01	-.14			
OCBI x IM							-.29	-.06	-.78
R^2	.00			.12			.10		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives, impression management motives, and fulfillment of the need for autonomy employee-rated at time 1. B values represent raw regression coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 8. *Regression of Competence on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	5.46		10.94**	5.79		80.32**	5.81		79.55**
OCBI	.06	.05	.71	-.02	-.02	-.20	.07	.06	.77
PSV				.44	.30	3.83**			
IM							.07	.10	1.33
OCBI x PSV				.08	.05	.64			
OCBI x IM							.05	.06	.72
R^2					.08			.02	

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives, impression management motives, and fulfillment of the need for competence employee-rated at time 1. B values represent raw regression coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and negative affect would be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence. Because there was no direct effect of citizenship behavior on negative affect, there is no need to test for mediation. Therefore, Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c were not supported (see Table 5).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that the relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, would be more strongly positive, and that the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (c) negative affect would be more strongly negative, for those who reported higher prosocial value motives, than for those

who reported lower prosocial value motives. Results indicate that the interaction between citizenship behaviors and prosocial value motives was not significantly related to positive affect (β = .02, t = .23, p > .10; see Table 9), job satisfaction (β = -.02, t = -.29, p > .10; see Table 10), or negative affect (β = .00, t = -.02, p > .10; see Table 11). Therefore, Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c were not supported. However, it is worth noting that prosocial value motives assessed at time 1 were significantly related to positive affect (β = .23, t = 2.91, p < .01) and marginally related to negative affect (β = -.15, t = -1.87, p < .10) at time 2.

Table 9. *Regression of Positive Affect on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	3.35		9.72**	3.81		75.30**	3.83		76.04**
OCBI	.09	.10	1.38	.04	.05	.68	.08	.10	1.26
PSV				.23	.23	2.91**			
IM							-.05	-.10	-1.29
OCBI x PSV				.02	.02	.23			
OCBI x IM							-.06	-.09	-1.23
R^2	.01			.06			.03		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives and impression management motives employee-rated at time 1. Positive affect employee-rated at time 2. β values represent standardized regression coefficients, computed with ordinary least squares regression. † p < .10, two-tailed. * p < .05, two-tailed. ** p < .01, two-tailed.

Table 10. *Regression of Job Satisfaction on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	4.61		8.19**	5.65		67.15**	5.65		68.58**
OCBI	.19	.14	1.86†	.15	.11	1.45	.18	.13	1.75
PSV				.20	.12	1.53			
IM							-.06	-.07	-.97
OCBI x PSV				-.04	-.02	-.29			
OCBI x IM							-.07	-.08	-.99
R^2	.00			.03			.03		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives and impression management motives employee-rated at time 1. Job satisfaction employee-rated at time 2. β values represent standardized regression coefficients. † $p <$ .10, two-tailed. * $p <$ .05, two-tailed. ** $p <$ .01, two-tailed.

Table 11. *Regression of Negative Affect on OCBI and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	1.68		5.36**	1.70		36.27**	1.70		36.99**
OCBI	.00	.00	.04	.03	.04	.18	.00	.00	.00
PSV				-.14	-.15	-1.87†			
IM							.06	.12	1.60
OCBI x PSV				.00	.00	-.02			
OCBI x IM							.00	-.01	-.10
R^2	.02			.02			.01		

Note. N = 174. OCBI represents averaged coworker ratings at time 1. Prosocial value motives and impression management motives employee-rated at time 1. Negative affect employee-rated at time 2. β values represent standardized regression coefficients. † $p <$ .10, two-tailed. * $p <$ .05, two-tailed. ** $p <$ .01, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, would be more strongly positive, and that the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (c) negative affect would be more strongly negative, for those who reported higher impression management motives, than for those who reported lower impression management motives. Results indicate that the interaction between citizenship behaviors and impression management motives was not significantly related to positive affect ($\beta = -.09$, $t = -1.23$, $p > .10$; see Table 9), job satisfaction ($\beta = -.08$, $t = -.99$, $p > .10$; see Table 10), or negative affect ($\beta = -.01$, $t = -.10$, $p > .10$; see Table 11). Therefore, Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c were not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, would be moderated by the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower prosocial value motives. Results indicate that the interaction between citizenship behaviors and prosocial value motives was not significantly related to the fulfillment of the needs for relatedness ($\beta = .09$, $t = 1.24$, $p > .10$; see Table 6), autonomy ($\beta = -.01$, $t = -.14$, $p > .10$; see Table 7), or competence ($\beta = .05$, $t = .64$, $p > .10$; see Table 8). Therefore, Hypotheses 7a, 7b, and 7c were not supported. However, the results do indicate that prosocial value motives have a direct effect on relatedness ($\beta = .33$, $t = 4.28$, $p < .01$; see Table 6), autonomy ($\beta = .34$, $t = 4.38$, $p < .01$; see Table 7), and competence ($\beta = .30$, $t = 3.83$, $p < .01$; see Table 8).

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Hypothesis 8 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, would be moderated by the employee's impression management motives, such that employees with higher impression management motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower impression management motives. Results indicate that the interaction between citizenship behaviors and impression management motives was related to the fulfillment of the need for relatedness (β = .21, t = 2.73, p < .01; see Table 6), but not to the fulfillment of the needs for autonomy (β = -.06, t = -.78, p > .10; see Table 7), or competence (β = .06, t = .72, p > .10; see Table 8). Therefore, Hypothesis 8a was supported, whereas Hypotheses 8b and 8c were not supported. Furthermore, individuals' impression management motives were significantly negatively related to the fulfillment of their need for autonomy (β = -.30, t = -4.12, p < .01; see Table 7), providing additional insight into the relationship between motives for helping and the fulfillment of psychological needs. The nature of the interaction between citizenship behaviors and impression management motives and their effect on the fulfillment of the need for relatedness is shown in Figure 2. This figure shows high OCBI and impression management motives at one standard deviation above their respective means, and low OCBI and impression management motives at one standard deviation below the respective means. The scale of the outcomes ranges from two standard deviations above, to two standard deviations below the respective means. This same convention is followed in the figures for all interactions in the manuscript. Figure 2 illustrates that individuals who report high impression management motives benefit much more from performing citizenship behaviors in that they experience a strong

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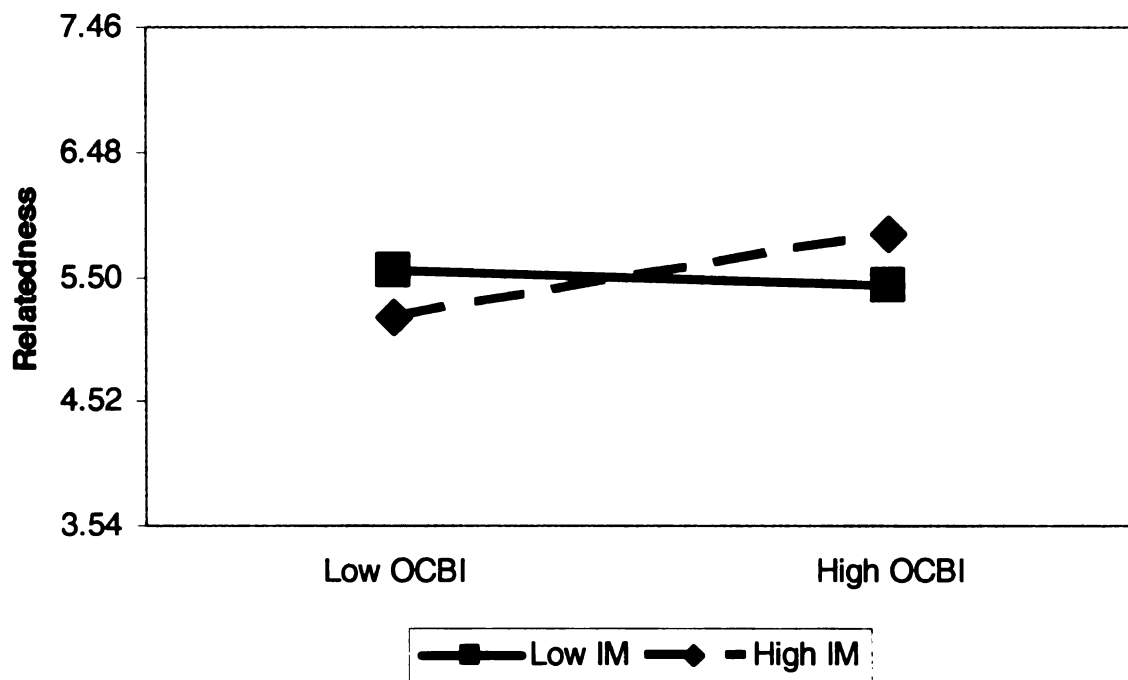
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positive relationship between performing citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of

their needs for relatedness, whereas those low on impression management motives do not

demonstrate any relationship between performing citizenship behaviors and the

fulfillment of their need for relatedness.

Figure 2. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on Relationship Between Interpersonally-Directed Citizenship Behaviors and Fulfillment of the Need for Relatedness

In addition to the formal hypotheses tested above, I also predicted that the

moderated effect of citizenship behaviors on personal well-being outcomes would be

mediated by the fulfillment of psychological needs, with citizenship behaviors having a

moderated effect on the mediators, and the mediators exerting a direct effect on the

outcomes. This approach is referred to as a direct effect and first stage moderation model

(Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Using this approach allows me to test the paths of the model

at varying levels of the moderator and combine the effects to determine the overall direct

effect and overall indirect effects at varying levels of motives for helping.

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Results from this analysis indicate that employees who report a low level of

impression management motives (one standard deviation below the mean) experience no

connection between the performance of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors

and relatedness. In contrast, those who report high levels of impression managing

motives (one standard deviation above the mean) experience a positive relationship

between performing interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of

their need for relatedness (95% confidence interval ranging from $B = .13$ to $B = .80$). The

remaining relationships analyzed via the method proposed by Edwards and Lambert

(2007) indicate that there is no direct moderated effect nor indirect moderated effect

(mediated moderation) between citizenship behaviors and the outcomes at levels of

impression management and prosocial value motives one standard deviation above and

below the respective means.

Relational Well-Being Analyses

For the relational well-being portion of the model, up to three coworkers supplied

ratings of their perceptions of employee behaviors as well as their own attitudes about

their relationship with the employee. Because data from various sources will be linked to

the same focal individual (the employee), I analyzed the data with a hierarchical linear

modeling (HLM) framework. Using HLM will allow me to account for the non-

independence of ratings made about the same target (i.e., the focal employee), and

provide robust standard errors with which I can test the beta coefficients in the model.

By creating a two-level model with the employee as the level-two grouping

variable, I am able to account for the fact that some employees might be rated by several

coworkers, whereas others might only be rated by one coworker. HLM accounts for these

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differences in numbers when computing the standard errors, thereby providing robust

standard errors with which to test the statistical significance of the coefficient estimates.

It is important to note that I do not center the level-one variables; rather, I perform

analyses on uncentered data, which allows me to examine the collective impact of both

rater perceptions and actual employee behaviors. An example of the data file is shown

below in Table 12. This example data illustrates that employee 1001 is rated by two

coworkers, whereas employee 1002 is rated by three coworkers. The two-level HLM

model I use for the analyses examines the relationships among variables, including both

between and within employee variance (i.e., no variables were centered), while still

accounting for the fact that multiple ratings were made for each employee and that there

were different numbers of ratings for each employee.

Table 12. *Example Data Structure for Level-1 HLM Data File*

EmployeeID	RaterID	OCBI	CWX	...
1001	1078	5.14	5.33	...
1001	1105	5.86	5.17	...
1002	1010	5.20	5.44	...
1002	1061	6.29	6.58	...
1002	1083	4.71	6.50	...
...	...	...	...	...

To test the proposed relationships, I first established the direct relationship

between OCBI (coworker-rated at time 1) and the relational well-being outcome in model

1 of the analyses, by regressing coworker exchange (time 2) on OCBI (time 1). To test

the mediating effect of trust and liking on the relationship between OCBI and relational

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well-being, I separately regressed each mediator on helping to establish the possibility that the variables might mediate the relationship. After illustrating that the mediators are related to OCBI, I can then test whether they mediate the relationship between OCBI and the outcome. This is done by adding the mediators to the regression of the outcome on helping in step two of the regression equation. The proportion decrease in the coefficient for OCBI indicates the proportion of the effect of OCBI on the outcome that is mediated by trust and liking. Although the CFA illustrated that prosocial value and impression management motives for helping are not orthogonal, they are distinct measures, displaying a moderately low correlation (level-1 correlation of $r = .35$, $p < .01$; the creators of the scale, Rioux & Penner, 2001, found a correlation of $r = .30$). Therefore, to account for any shared variance that the two measures might have, I included each measure in tests of the relational well-being hypotheses; because results were substantively equivalent when including both moderators or each moderator separately, I present the results of the analyses using each measure separately.

To test the proposed moderation of the relationship between interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and relational well-being, I regressed coworker exchange on OCBI, attributed motives for OCBI, and the interactions between OCBI and each of the attributed motives. A significant regression coefficient for the interaction term indicates that the relationship between OCBI and relational well-being differs based upon the attributed motives of the OCBI. The next stage of the analysis was to test whether coworker ratings of trust and liking at time 1 mediated the moderated relationship between OCBI and relational well-being. To test this, to the equation including the main effects of OCBI, attributed motives, and their interactions, I also added the mediators

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(trust and liking) into the regression equation. The decrease in the strength of the relationship between the interaction of OCBI and motives and the outcome indicates the extent to which the moderated relationship is mediated by trust and liking. By following the approach suggested by Edwards and Lambert (2007), the direct and indirect effects can be calculated by multiplying the coefficient estimates for each path in the conceptual model, thereby yielding the direct effect of the citizenship behaviors and motives, and the portion of the moderated effect that is exerted on coworker exchange through the mediators (indirect effect), at different levels of the moderators (e.g., one standard deviation above and below the mean).

Relational Well-Being Results

Before examining specific hypotheses, I present a correlation matrix summarizing the relationships among the variables in Table 13. These correlations were computed in HLM by estimating single-level models with a single predictor. The effects were standardized by multiplying the coefficient of the predictor by its standard deviation and dividing by the standard deviation of the outcome. These standard deviations were obtained from null models in which the variable was predicted with only an intercept at level one, and which partitioned the variance observed in the variable into between- and within-employee components. This approach controls for the lack of interdependence among ratings of the same employee. The correlations in the matrix range from small to moderately high, although none of the correlations exceeds the reliability of any particular measure.

Table 13. *Correlations among Variables in the Relational Well-Being Portion of the Model*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. OCBI	5.41	.80	(.89)	.73**	-.41**	.65**	.68**	.69**
2. Prosocial Values	5.19	.84	.68**	(.94)	-.40**	.54**	.62**	.60**
3. Impression Mgt	3.24	1.08	-.33**	-.35**	(.96)	-.45**	-.41**	-.46**
4. Trust	5.84	.90	.63**	.55**	-.42**	(.91)	.71**	.67**
5. Liking	5.80	.85	.68**	.69**	-.37**	.74**	(.93)	.76**
6. Coworker Exchange	3.73	.80	.64**	.59**	-.36**	.64**	.71**	(.92)

Note. N = 602. Correlations were computed in HLM with correlations below the diagonal estimated in a model with the employee as the level-2 grouping variable, and with uncentered data. Correlations above the diagonal were estimated with a model using the rater as the level-2 grouping variable, and data centered around the rater's mean; this approach accounts for rater tendencies by removing between rater variation in the scores. Values along the diagonal represent coefficient alpha for each measure. Interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI), prosocial value motives, impression management motives, trust, and liking were all rated at time 1; coworker exchange was rated at time 2. All ratings were provided by coworkers. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

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Hypothesis 9 predicted that employee interpersonally-directed organizational

citizenship behaviors would be positively related to coworker exchange. Results indicate

that citizenship behaviors rated by a peer at time 1 were strongly related to the peer's

rating of coworker exchange with the employee at time 2 ($\beta = .73$, $t = 20.23$, $p < .01$; see

Table 14). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Table 14. *Regression of Coworker Exchange (CWX) on Helping and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	.29		1.71†	3.64		95.28**	3.67		109.00*
OCBI	.63	.73	20.23**	.54	.61	14.92**	.59	.68	18.82**
PSV				.18	.20	4.44**			
IM							-.12	-.20	-5.98
OCBI x PSV				.07	.11	2.95**			
OCBI x IM							-.03	-.05	-1.07
R^2		.49			.50				.48

Note. N = 602. OCBI = interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors
(time 1); PSV = prosocial value motives (time 1); IM = impression management motives
(time 1). Coworker exchange measured at time 2. B values represent raw regression
coefficients and β values represent standardized regression coefficients computed with a
hierarchical linear model (HLM) with predictors and criterion at level 1 and the employee
as the grouping variable at level 2. All variables are coworker rated. † $p < .10$, two-tailed.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-

directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange would be mediated

by (a) coworker trust in the employee and (b) coworker liking of the employee. To test

this hypothesis, I first regressed trust and liking on citizenship behaviors in separate

equations. Results indicate that interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors indeed

predict both trust in ($\beta = .80$, $t = 19.22$, $p < .01$; see Table 15) and liking of the employee

($\beta = .81$, $t = 25.17$, $p < .01$; see Table 16). Next I regressed coworker exchange on

citizenship behaviors, coworker trust in the employee, and coworker liking of the

employee. Results indicate that both trust in ($\beta = .10$, $t = 2.38$, $p < .05$; see Table 17,

Model 1) and liking of the employee ($\beta = .43$, $t = 9.51$, $p < .01$; see Table 17, Model 1)

significantly predict coworker exchange ratings at time 2, and that the effect of

interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors, although still significant ($\beta = .33$, $t = 7.36$,

$p < .01$; see Table 17, Model 1), is reduced by over 54%. This provides support for

Hypothesis 10, and indicates that the relationship between citizenship behaviors and

coworker exchange is partially mediated by coworker trust in and liking of the employee.

Table 15. *Regression of Trust on Helping and Motives for Helping*

Predictors	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	1.74		7.60**	5.80		126.12*	5.78		149.67*
OCBI	.75	.80	19.22**	.60	.64	11.12**	.63	.68	16.66**
PSV				.16	.18	3.19**			
IM							-.21	-.32	-9.34**
OCBI x PSV				-.09	-.13	-3.13**			
OCBI x IM							.09	.15	3.88**
R^2		.41			.46			.50	

Note. N = 602. OCBI = interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors (time 1); PSV = prosocial value motives (time 1); IM = impression management motives (time 1). Coworker exchange measured at time 2. β values represent standardized regression coefficients computed with a hierarchical linear model (HLM) with predictors and criterion at level 1 and the employee as the grouping variable at level 2. All variables are coworker rated. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 16. *Regression of Liking on Helping and Motives for Helping*

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Predictors	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	1.74		9.78**	5.77		145.50*	5.77		168.28*
OCBI	.75	.81	25.17**	.47	.51	11.72**	.68	.74	22.68**
PSV				.37	.41	9.26**			
IM							-.13	-.20	-5.85**
OCBI x PSV				-.03	-.05	-1.03			
OCBI x IM							.04	.07	2.00*
R^2		.47			.50				.49

Table 17. *Regression of Coworker Exchange (CWX) on Helping, Motives for Helping and Trust, Interpersonal Commitment, and Liking*

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Predictors	B	β	T	B	β	T	B	β	T
Intercept	-.48		-2.75**	.92		3.83**	1.16		4.57**
OCBI	.29	.33	7.36**	.29	.34	7.64**	.29	.34	7.65**
PSV				.03	.04	.88			
IM							-.05	-.08	-2.67**
Trust	.09	.10	2.38*	.10	.12	2.89**	.07	.09	1.90†
Liking	.37	.43	9.51**	.37	.43	9.30**	.36	.43	9.31**
OCBI x PSV				.09	.13	5.11**			
OCBI x IM							-.05	-.08	2.44*
R^2		.63			.63				.62

Note. N = 602. OCBI, PSV, IM, liking and trust rated at time 1. Coworker exchange rated at time 2. β values represent standardized regression coefficients computed with a hierarchical linear model (HLM) with predictors and criterion at level 1 and the employee as the grouping variable at level 2. All variables are coworker rated. † $p < .10$, two-tailed. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange would be moderated by coworker perceptions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees viewed as having higher prosocial value motives will have a stronger positive relationship than employees viewed as having lower prosocial value motives. Results indicate that the interaction between peer ratings of employee citizenship behaviors and prosocial value motives significantly predicts ratings of coworker exchange at time 2 ($\beta =$ .11, $t = 2.95$, $p < .01$; see Table 14, Model 2). The form of this interaction is shown in Figure 3 and illustrates that employees who are perceived as having high prosocial value motives, as opposed to low prosocial value motives, experience a stronger positive connection between their citizenship behaviors and the coworker exchange relationships that they have with their coworkers. These findings provide support for Hypothesis 11.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange would be moderated by coworker perceptions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees viewed as having higher impression management motives would have a weaker positive relationship than employees viewed as having lower impression management motives. Results indicate that the interaction between peer ratings of employee citizenship behaviors and impression management motives does not significantly predict ratings of coworker exchange at time 2 ($\beta = -.05$, $t = -1.07$, $p > .10$; see Table 14, Model 3). Therefore Hypothesis 12 was not supported.

Figure 3. Moderating Effect of Prosocial Value Motives on Relationship Between Interpersonally-Directed Citizenship Behaviors and Coworker Exchange
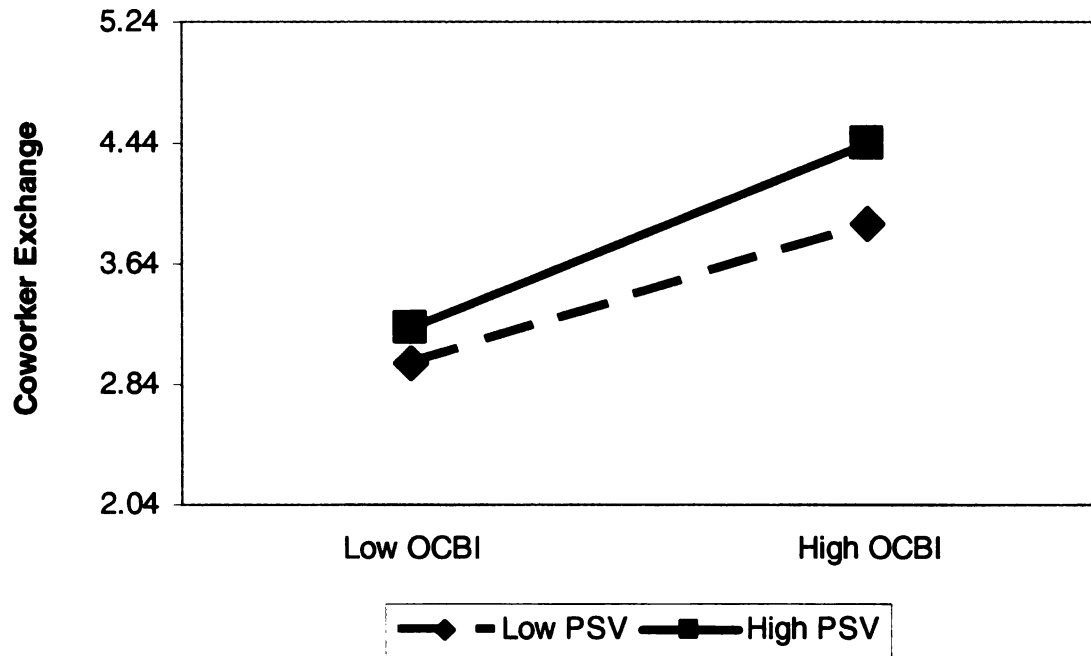
Hypothesis 13 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee would be moderated by coworker perceptions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees viewed as having higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees viewed as having lower prosocial value motives. Results indicate that the interaction between peer ratings of employee citizenship behaviors and prosocial value motives predicts the extent to which coworkers trust the employee ($\beta = -.13$, $t = -3.13$, $p < .01$; see Table 15, Model 2), explaining an additional 5% of the variance in coworker trust. The form of this relationship illustrates that perceived prosocial value motives have a positive main effect on coworker trust in the employee, but that the strength of the relationship between citizenship behavior and trust in the employee is actually stronger for those who are

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perceived as having lower prosocial value motives (Figure 4), which is opposite to what I hypothesized. In contrast, the interaction of citizenship behaviors and perceived prosocial value motives did not significantly predict coworker liking of the employee ($\beta = -.05$, $t = -1.03$, $p > .10$; see Table 16, Model 2). Therefore, Hypothesis 13a was not supported, with a significant effect opposite that hypothesized, and Hypothesis 13b was not supported.

Figure 4. Moderating Effect of Prosocial Value Motives on the Relationship between OCBI and Trust
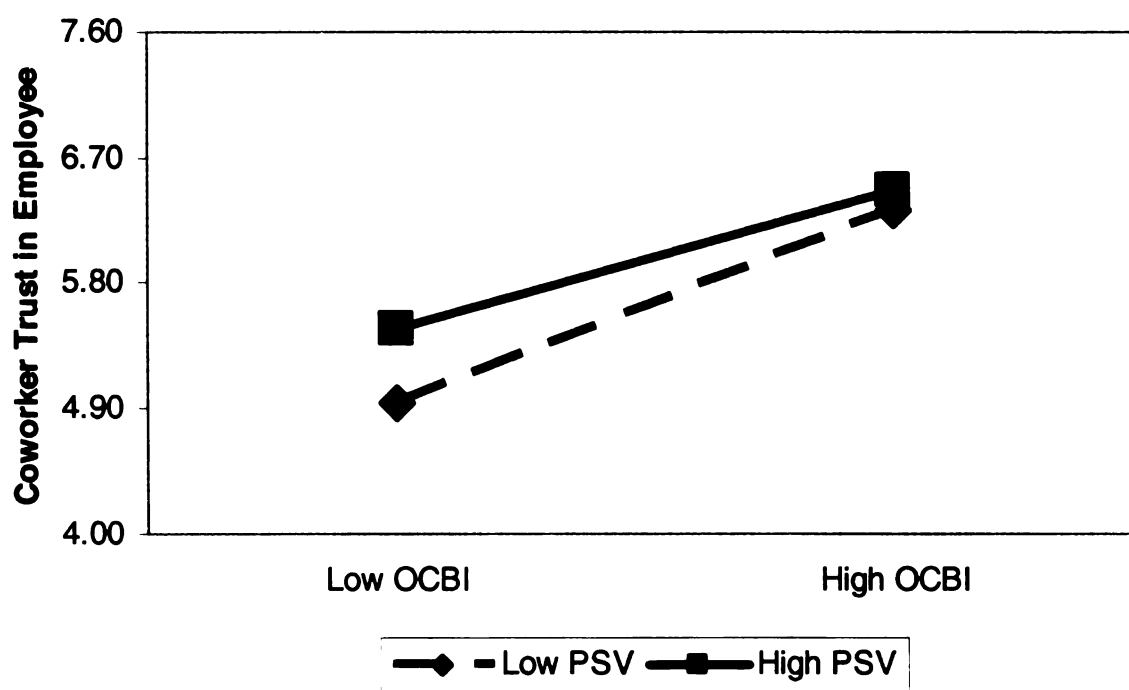
Hypothesis 14 predicted that the positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee would be moderated by coworker perceptions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees viewed as having higher impression management motives will have weaker positive relationships than employees viewed as having lower impression management motives. Results indicate

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that the interaction between peer ratings of employee citizenship behaviors and impression management motives predicts the extent to which coworkers trust the employee (β = .15, t = 3.88, p < .01; see Table 15, Model 3), explaining an additional 9% of the variance in coworker trust. The form of this relationship is such that employees low in impression management motives are more trusted, on average. However, the connection between citizenship behaviors and trust is actually more strongly positive for those employees perceived as having high impression management motives, as compared to those perceived as having low impression management motives (Figure 5).

Likewise, results also indicate that the interaction between peer ratings of employee citizenship behaviors and impression management motives predicts the extent to which coworkers like the employee (β = .07, t = 2.00, p < .05; see Table 16, Model 3), explaining an additional 2% of the variance in coworker liking of the employee. The form of this relationship is similar to that for trust in the coworker, as those lower on impression management motives appear to be more liked, on average, but the performance of citizenship behaviors is more strongly positively related to liking of the employee for those perceived as having higher, as opposed to lower, impression management motives (Figure 6). Therefore, both Hypothesis 14a and 14b found statistically significant results, but these results were opposite the direction hypothesized, and thus were not supported.

Figure 5. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on the Relationship between OCBI and Trust
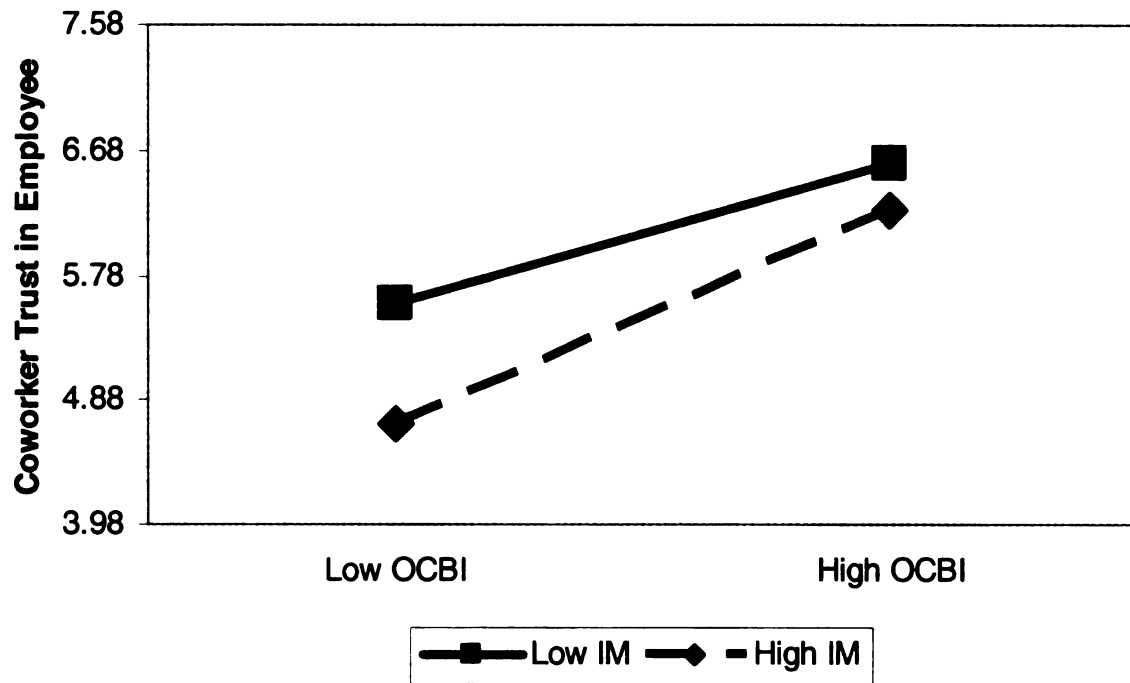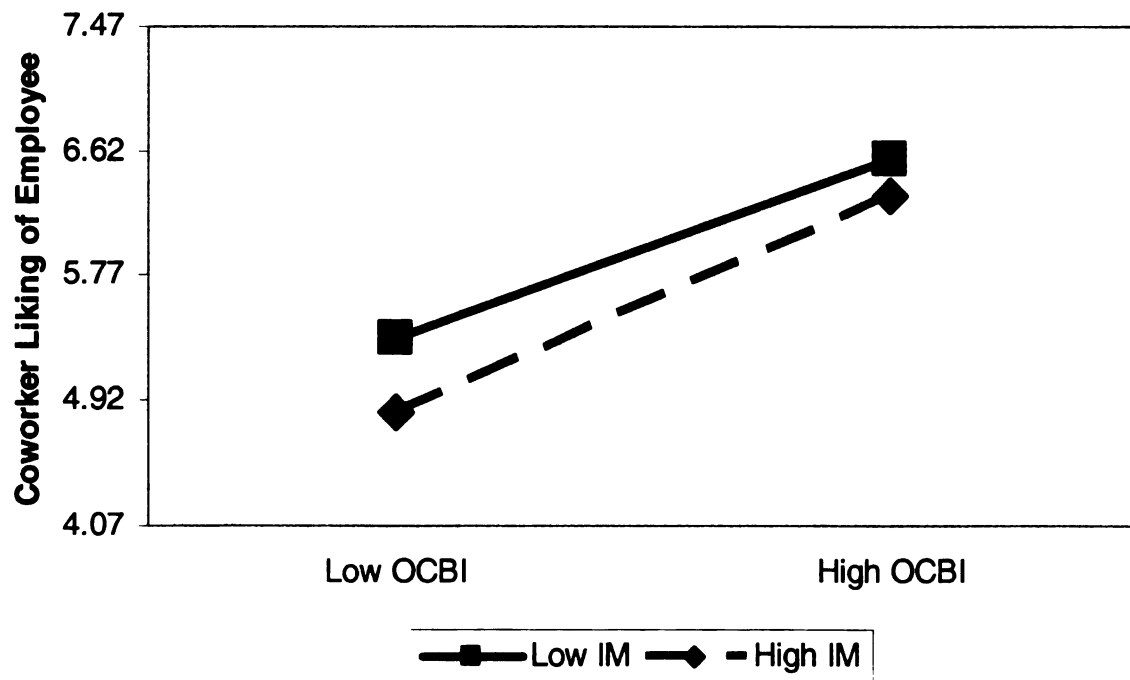

Figure 6. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on the Relationship between OCBI and Liking

Finally, the nature of the preceding hypotheses, that interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors predict coworker exchange, as moderated by perceived motives, and mediated by coworker trust and liking, suggests that the data should be analyzed as mediated moderation. In the language of Edwards and Lambert (2007), this is a direct effect and first stage moderation model. I therefore follow Edwards and Lambert's suggestions for computing the direct and indirect effects that are attributable to each portion of the path model, providing an overall assessment of the moderated effects in the model, whether they be mediated or directly related to the outcome.

Findings from the examination of the direct moderated effects, and the indirect moderated effects (i.e., the moderated effect of citizenship behaviors on trust and liking, and the subsequent effect of trust and liking on coworker exchange) are summarized in Table 18. These results indicate that both the indirect and the direct effects have an impact on coworker exchange relationships. Specifically, at low levels of perceived prosocial value motivation, the direct effects (.204) are not as strong as those when perceived prosocial value motives are high (.385). Figure 7 demonstrates the form of these relationships, illustrating a disordinal effect, in which performing citizenship behaviors is critical for employees perceived as having high prosocial motives, because of the strong positive relationship between citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange relationships for these employees. In contrast, employees viewed as having low prosocial motives experience a weaker positive direct effect of citizenship behaviors on their coworker exchange relationships.

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Table 23. *Direct and Indirect Effects on Coworker Exchange at Various Levels of Prosocial Value Motives and Impression Management Motives*

High Prosocial Value Motives			High Impression Management Motives		
Indirect Effects	Direct Effects	Total Effects	Indirect Effects	Direct Effects	Total Effects
.213	.385	.599	.323	.228	.552
Low Prosocial Value Motives			Low Impression Management Motives		
Indirect Effects	Direct Effects	Total Effects	Indirect Effects	Direct Effects	Total Effects
.258	.204	.462	.261	.357	.619

Note. Effects presented are from raw coefficient estimates, with all constructs measured on 7-point scales. Indirect effects include the sum of the respective products of the relationship between citizenship behavior and each mediator (trust and liking), and the relationship between each mediator and coworker exchange, as moderated by prosocial value motives or impression management motives. Direct effects include the effect of interpersonally-directed citizenship behavior on coworker exchange as moderated by prosocial value motives or impression management motives.

However, the difference in the total effects at low (.462) and high (.599) ratings of prosocial value motives, although statistically significant, is not as drastic as one might expect (see Figure 8), given the strong direct effects. The reason that the overall effect is not as drastic as would be expected, given the disordinal effect shown in Figure 7, is because of the larger indirect effects under low (.258) rather than high (.213) prosocial value motives.

These effects are primarily due to the moderating effect of perceived prosocial value motives on the relationship between citizenship behaviors and coworker trust in the employee. Figure 9 illustrates that performing citizenship behaviors has a stronger positive effect on coworker trust for employees perceived as being less prosocially motivated. This unexpected form of the relationship indicates a suppressing effect of

Figure 7. Moderating Effect of Prosocial Value Motives on Direct Effect between Citizenship and Coworker Exchange
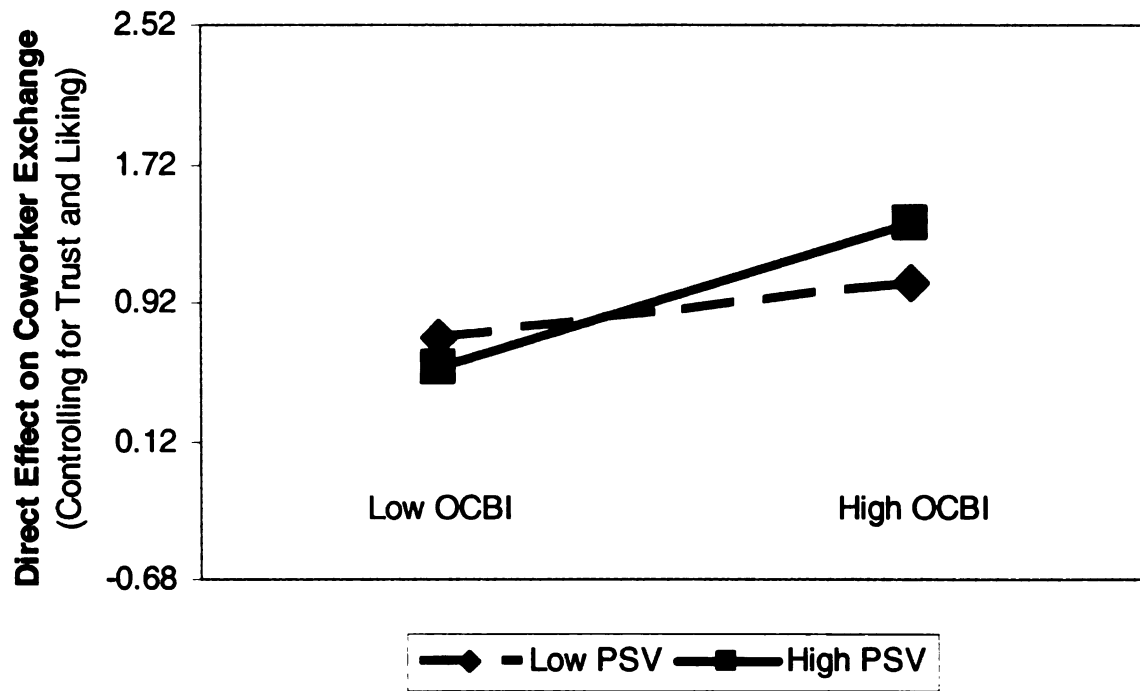

Figure 8. Total Relationship between Citizenship and Coworker Exchange as Moderated by Prosocial Value Motives
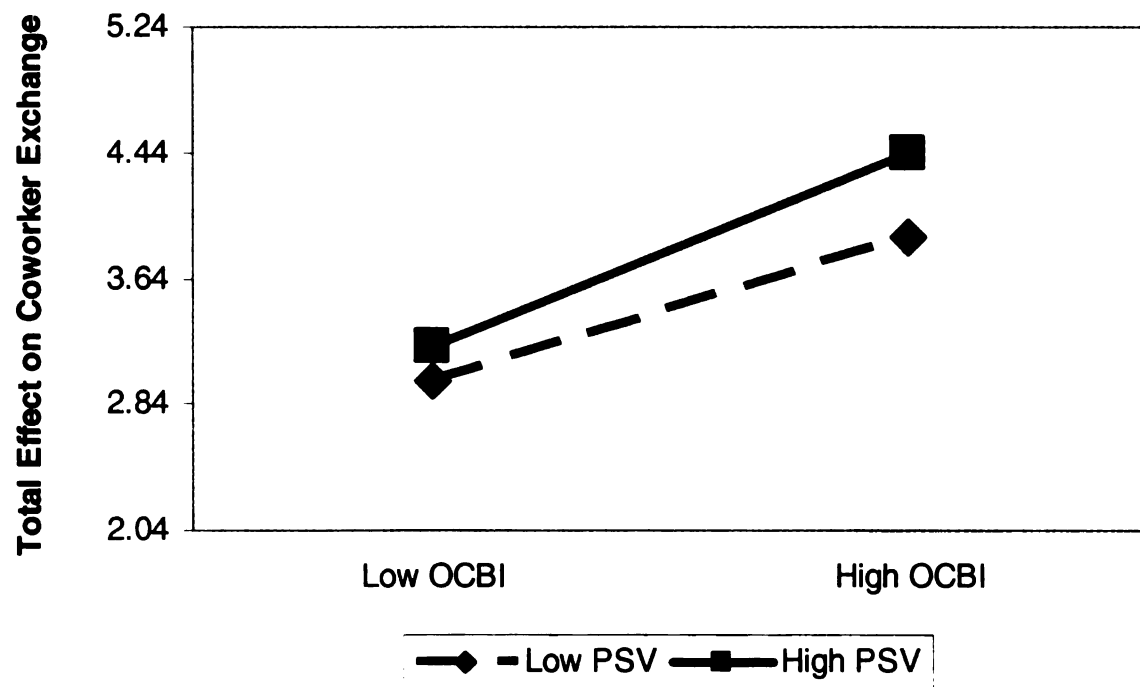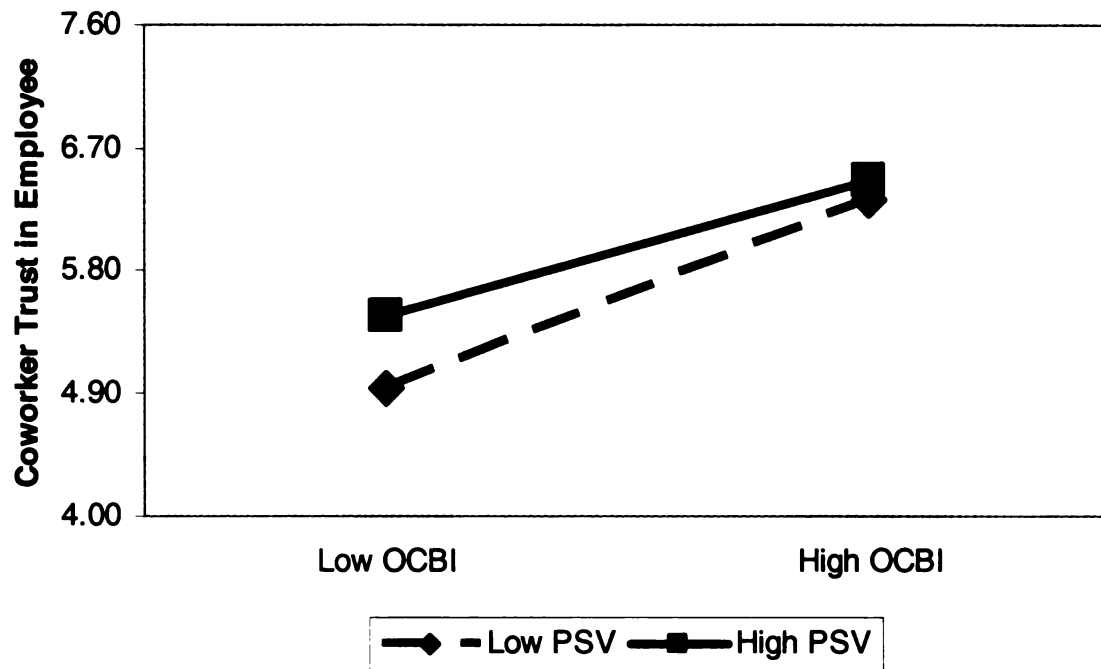
Figure 9. Moderating Effect of Prosocial Value Motives on Relationship between OCBI and Trust

coworker trust on the relationship between citizenship behavior and coworker exchange relationships, as moderated by perceived prosocial value motivation.

Notwithstanding these suppressor effects, the results suggest that when employees are perceived as having high prosocial value motives in performing their citizenship behaviors, the behaviors have an overall stronger positive impact on their coworker exchange relationships than when the employees perform the same behaviors, but are perceived as doing so for less prosocial reasons.

Similarly, the extent to which employees are perceived as having high impression management motives influences the strength of the direct connection between citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange (i.e., when controlling for trust and liking; see Table 17, Model 3). The pattern of results (Table 18) indicates that the direct effect of citizenship behavior on coworker exchange is stronger when the employee is perceived as

having low impression management motives (.357) as opposed to when the employee is perceived as having high impression management motives (.228). This moderating effect is shown in Figure 10.

However, opposite effects are seen on the mediators, such that low impression management motives result in smaller indirect effects (.261) than when impression management motives are viewed as high (.323). This is due to the significant moderating effect of impression management motives on the relationships between citizenship behaviors and both coworker trust in and liking of the employee. Figure 11 illustrates these moderating relationships as they relate to coworker trust in the employee, and Figure 12 illustrates how coworker liking of the employee is a function of perceived impression management motives and citizenship behaviors.

Figure 10. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on Direct Effect of OCBI on CWX
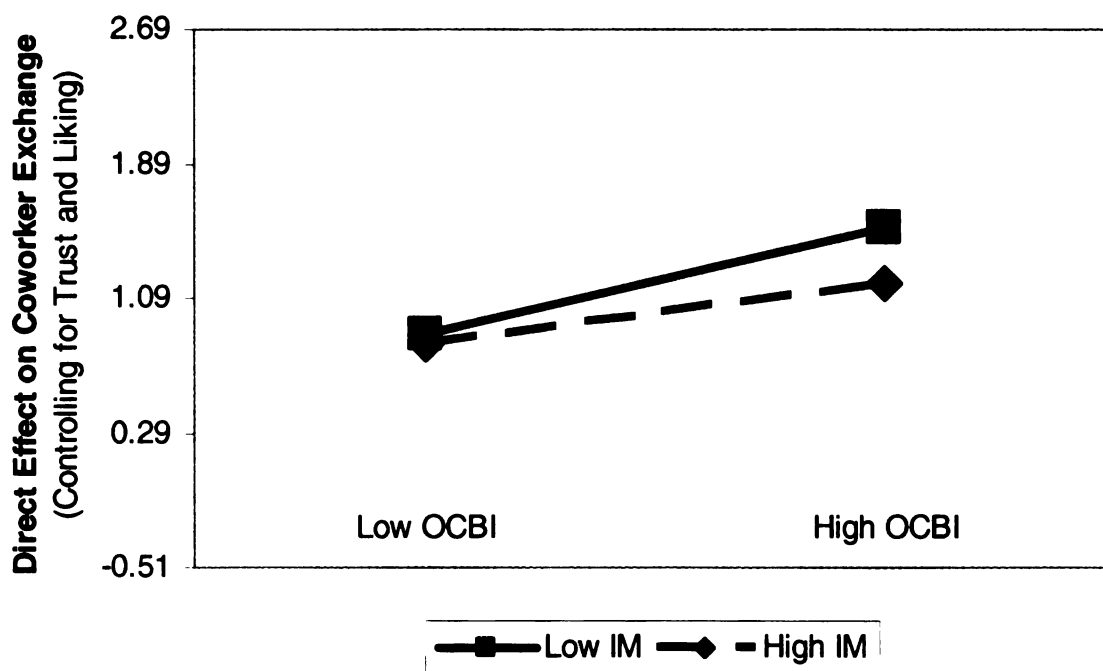
Figure 11. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on Relationship between OCBI and Trust
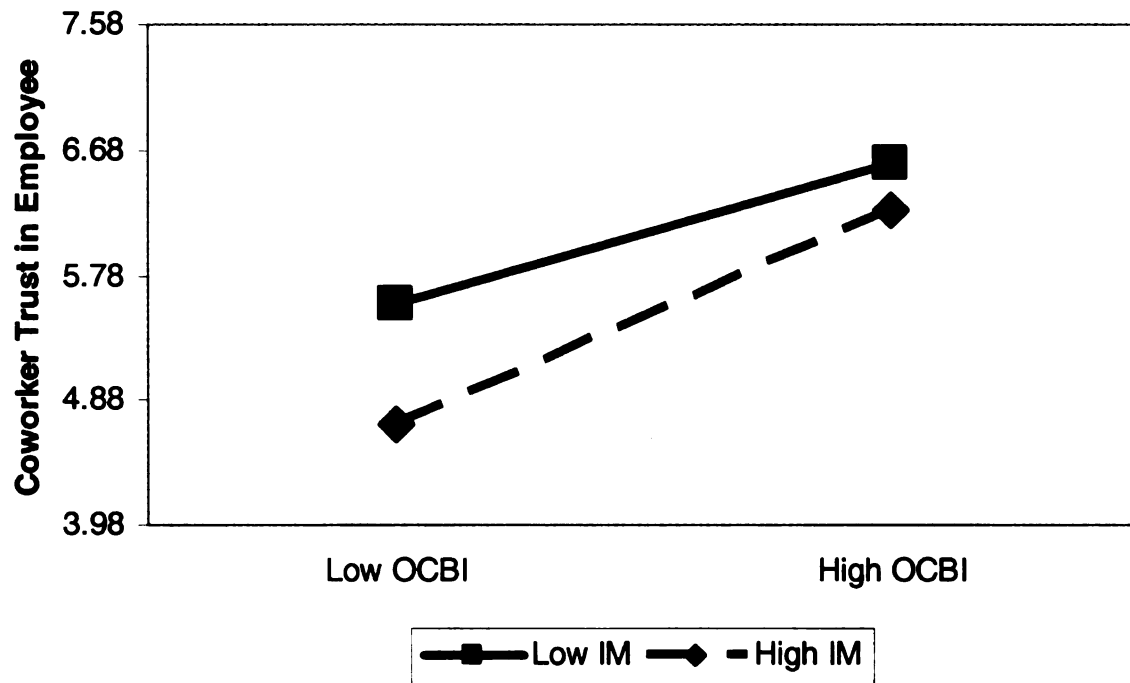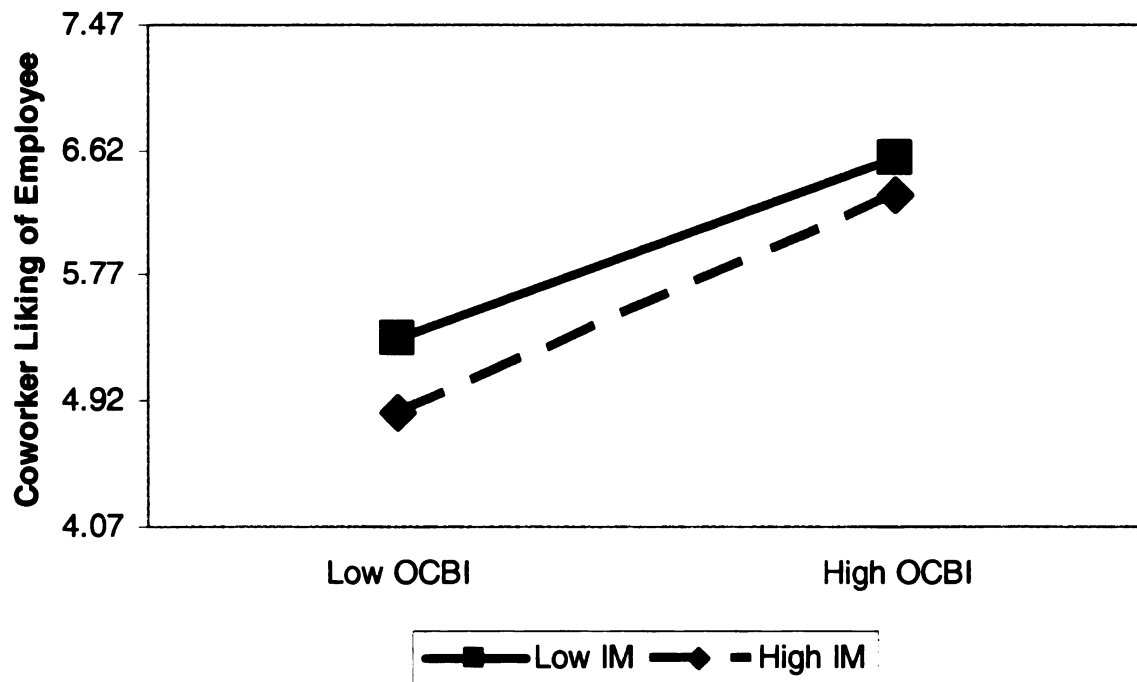

Figure 12. Moderating Effect of Impression Management Motives on Relationship between Citizenship and Coworker Liking of the Employee

Adding together the direct and indirect effects at varying levels of the moderator results in overall effects that are not statistically different from one another (.619 for low, .552 for high), which conclusion can also be arrived at visually by combining the simple slopes from the three graphs presented above.

The contrast in these total effects is consistent with the results shown in Table 14, Model 2 and Model 3, indicating an overall relationship between the interaction of citizenship behavior and prosocial value motives and coworker exchange, but not between the interaction of citizenship behavior and impression management motives and coworker exchange.

Discussion

Discussion for Personal Well-Being Model

This study examined the manner in which interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors influence an employee's personal well-being through the behaviors' effects on the fulfillment of basic psychological needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence. This was accomplished through a two-stage data collection procedure in which responses were obtained from focal employees and from several coworkers, each of whom rated the focal employee. Findings from the study offer weak support for the hypotheses related to personal well-being. First, there was no support for a direct connection between coworker-rated interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors measured at time 1, and the personal well-being outcomes, positive affect and negative affect, measured at time 2. Because of the lack of a direct connection between interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and the affective facets of personal well-being, there is no possibility that there could be a mediating effect of need fulfillment on these relationships. Thus, these mediation hypotheses were unsupported. However, interpersonally-directed citizenship behavior was related to job satisfaction, but this relationship was not mediated, in part because of the lack of a relationship between citizenship behavior and the fulfillment of needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence.

With regard to the moderating effect of prosocial value and impression management motives on the connection between citizenship behaviors and personal well-being, the data are not supportive of a relationship between the interaction terms and the well-being criteria. However, with regard to the relationship between citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of psychological needs, the data do suggest that motives are

an important moderator. Specifically, the results indicate that the extent to which performing citizenship behavior fulfills employees' needs for relatedness is contingent upon the employees' impression management motives. The results for this relationship indicate that employees who report low levels of impression management motives experience no change in the fulfillment of their needs for relatedness as a function of their citizenship behaviors. In contrast, those employees who report high levels of impression management motives experience a strong and positive relationship between performing interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of their need for relatedness. One explanation for this is that individuals who experience strong motivation to manage impressions are particularly concerned with how they are viewed by others, and thus view citizenship behaviors in an instrumental manner, as a means of feeling connected with others. In contrast, those with weaker impression management motives might be less concerned with public perception and might not perceive a strong connection between performing citizenship behaviors and feeling related to their coworkers.

In addition to the above-mentioned results of the tests of formal hypotheses, the analyses reported for the first half of the model also present other interesting findings. First, although the mediation analyses were unsupported, there was a significant relationship between the fulfillment of an employee's need for autonomy and the employee's positive and negative affect at a later point in time. Specifically, those who felt that their behaviors were autonomously driven experienced higher positive affect and lower negative affect two weeks later.

Another notable finding from the analyses indicates that motives for helping are significantly related to well-being outcomes (e.g., positive affect and negative affect) and also to the fulfillment of needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence. Specifically, those individuals who reported that they engaged in citizenship behaviors because they were prosocially motivated (time 1), were more likely to experience higher levels of positive affect and lower levels of negative affect at a later point in time (time 2). The employees who reported higher prosocial value motives were also more likely to experience the fulfillment of their needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence, as compared to those employees reporting lower levels of prosocial value motives. Finally, individuals reporting high impression management motives experienced less fulfillment of their need for autonomy compared to those who were low in impression management motives.

At least three of the findings just mentioned have theoretical or practical implications for management research. First, research on self-determination has suggested that the fulfillment of needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence is important for well-being. However, much of the research in this field has either been performed in lab settings or has been performed with student samples (e.g., Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000), although notable exceptions to these settings can be found in the literature (e.g., Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Wagner, et al., 2008). Therefore, by examining the relationship between the fulfillment of the need for autonomy and personal well-being outcomes in a work setting with full-time employees, this study strengthens research on self-determination theory by connecting the research to work settings. Therefore, the first implication of this research

for management theory is the finding that self-determination theory constructs are useful for understanding how full-time employees obtain well-being at work.

Second, with the growing phenomenon of work teams in organizations (Vella, 2008), and with the clear importance of social interactions in the workplace, this study suggests that interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors have implications for an employee's sense of relatedness or belonging in the workplace, particularly when the performance of these behaviors is consistent with the employees' driving motives. Specifically, those who were driven by impression management motives experienced a positive relationship between performing citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of their need for relatedness. In other words, those who care about managing impressions need to perform citizenship behaviors in order to feel that they belong. This finding could be used when considering the composition of work teams and characteristics of work teams that are critical for team effectiveness. For example, if a team requires that team members feel a sense of relatedness or connectedness with one another, it would be important to ensure that highly impression managing employees have sufficient opportunities for citizenship behaviors as these will lead to a higher sense of relatedness in the group. This study thus shows the functional value that impression management motives might have for employee belonging.

Impression management is centered on creating a certain perception by others, either to avoid looking bad or to gain rewards (Rioux & Penner, 2001). The driving motivation behind impression management is the perception that others will hold about the individual driven by the motive. Therefore, the need for relatedness is particularly relevant because feeling connected or related to others will be influenced by how one

feels he or she is viewed by others. And because the behaviors of interest in this study are *interpersonally-directed*, the sense of relatedness one has with others is of central importance. However, it appears that those employees motivated by impression management feel that their behaviors, even discretionary behaviors such as OCBI, are not driven by intrinsic motivation. Indeed, those motivated by impression management experienced less fulfillment of the need for autonomy than those who reported lower impression management motives. This might occur because of external factors which, although not forcing the employee to act in a particular way (e.g., engage in OCBI), nonetheless exert an influence on the employee. Therefore, these behaviors which are defined as discretionary might nonetheless be performed to appeal to an external party. This phenomenon seems to be an interesting area for future research. Specifically, to what extent does the external pressure to engage in citizenship behaviors moderate the benefit of such behaviors?

Interestingly, however, the relational well-being benefits of OCBI were greater (i.e., had a more positive slope) for those high in impression management than for those lower on impression management. Perhaps this is because coworkers see attempts at OCBI by high impression managers as a genuine attempt to improve their image. Indeed, perhaps perceiving that an employee just wants to do good because he is prosocial in nature is less important than knowing that he is being authentic by trying to foster a good image through the performance of citizenship behaviors. Thus, it appears that the authenticity of the employee's motive, even when that authenticity means that the employee engages in citizenship behaviors for self-serving reasons, is more important than the prosocial nature of the motivation. Kernis and Goldman (2006) describe various

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forms of authenticity, with relational authenticity seeming particularly relevant for coworker relationships. They argue that being authentic in one's relationships with others results in greater benefits for interpersonal relationships, and this is what the present study indicates. Therefore, another implication of this study is to support the notion that authenticity in relationships plays a role in determining subsequent relational well-being, and that this is the case even when the perceived motives behind citizenship behavior are impression managing rather than prosocial.

Research on motives for helping was designed to examine predictors of prosocial behaviors in various contexts; however, the objective of this study was to extend that research by examining the differential effect of citizenship behaviors on various outcomes as moderated by these motives. The findings of the study also point to an additional issue relating motives to personal well-being. Specifically, results indicate that employees who reported higher levels of prosocial value motives at time 1 were likely to also report higher positive affect and lower negative affect at time 2. This suggests that the motivation to act prosocially might stem from a dispositional tendency to help others. And if these motives are found to be dispositional, with which other personality factors might they correlate? Additional research might find that prosocial value motives are not only related to the performance of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors (whether rated by coworkers or by the employee), but that they might also be related to extraversion or agreeableness. Such research could contribute to our knowledge of how personality influences the work domain by illustrating how motives predict work behaviors, and how they relate to overall well-being, as a function of individual dispositions.

The relational well-being portion of the model tested in this study examines the

manner in which interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors influence the exchange

relationships that exist among coworkers. The study examines the mediating influence of

coworker liking of and trust in the focal employee, with particular emphasis given to how

perceived employee motives moderate the strength and direction of the hypothesized

relationships.

This portion of the model was tested through a two-stage data collection

procedure in which responses were obtained from coworkers of each employee. These

coworkers rated the extent to which the employee engaged in interpersonally-directed

citizenship behaviors over a two-month span and also rated the motives for which the

employee engaged in such behaviors, and also rated their trust in and liking of the

employee. At a subsequent point in time (one to two weeks later) the coworkers

completed a measure of their exchange relationship with the employee.

The findings from the relational well-being portion of the model offer mixed

support for the hypotheses. First, consistent with the primary hypothesis in this portion of

the model, the data illustrate that time 1 ratings of interpersonally-directed citizenship

behaviors were strongly positively related to coworker exchange relationships rated at

time 2. Second, because of the significant relationship between the citizenship behavior

and coworker exchange, it is meaningful to examine the possibility of mediators of the

relationship. Consistent with my predictions, over half of the effect of citizenship on

coworker exchange was mediated by coworker trust in and liking of the employee. This

helps explain at least two of the mechanisms through which coworker exchange relationships form.

Third, the results of this study support the notion that citizenship behaviors would differentially influence coworker exchange outcomes as a function of the motives which coworkers perceived in the employee. Results indicate that employees who are perceived as having higher prosocial value motives experience a stronger connection between citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange than do employees perceived as having lower prosocial value motives. In contrast, impression management motives did not demonstrate a moderating effect on the relationship between interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange.

Finally, the results fail to support the hypotheses that coworker trust in and liking of the employee will be more strongly related to citizenship behaviors at low levels of impression management and high levels of prosocial values motives. In fact, contrary to my predictions, citizenship behaviors had a stronger positive relationship with trust when prosocial value motives were rated as low, as compared to high; likewise, those who were rated as having high impression management motives enjoyed a more positive relationship between citizenship behaviors and both trust and liking as compared to those rated low in impression management motives. I discuss these unexpected findings in more detail below.

In additional analyses, I examined the implicit hypothesis that the moderated effect between citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange would be mediated by trust and liking, consistent with what Edwards and Lambert (2007) call a direct effect and first stage moderation model. The results offer support for the notion that trust and liking are

responsible for a portion of the effects of citizenship behaviors on coworker exchange at varying levels of prosocial value motives. Interestingly, it appears that trust and liking have a slight suppressing effect on the citizenship-exchange relationship. This is apparent when noting that for employees rated high on prosocial motivation, the direct effects are much higher than for those rated low on prosocial motivation. However, the indirect effects for highly prosocial employees are lower than the indirect effects for those low on prosocial motivation. This is because, contrary to my hypotheses, citizenship was more positively related to trust under low levels of prosocial value motivation than under high levels of prosocial value motivation.

Following a similar pattern, results indicate that the direct effect of citizenship on coworker exchange under low impression management motivation is nearly 60% stronger than the direct effect for those with high levels of impression management motivation. In contrast, the indirect effect under low impression management motivation is approximately 20% weaker than the indirect effect for those with high levels of impression management motivation. This pattern of results reveals some interesting possibilities as to the manner in which citizenship behaviors influence coworker relationships, particularly as they relate to the trust that a coworker might place in another employee, or the extent to which the coworker likes the employee.

Implications

The results of the relational well-being portion of this dissertation, which deal with the "meso" level of prosocial behavior (Penner, Dovidio, Pilavin, & Schroeder, 2005), present several implications for management research and practice. First, the quality of employee relational well-being can be enhanced through discretionary and

helpful behaviors directed at other employees. Consistent with the predictions of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees who provide their coworkers with assistance in the workplace are more likely to develop strong relationships with those coworkers. This finding can directly be applied to management phenomena such as newcomer socialization; specifically, by giving new employees the opportunity to engage in helpful behaviors toward their new coworkers, the employees are likely to develop stronger relationships than those who are only expected to sit back and learn from their colleagues. Such an approach is also worth considering when addressing the integration of various teams or work groups, as might be the case when companies are acquired or reorganized. As the employees of the distinct groups begin helping one another they are likely to develop improving exchange relationships, thereby contributing to the overall cohesiveness of the newly-(re)formed organization.

A second implication of the findings of the present study deals with the mechanisms through which citizenship behaviors enhance coworker exchange relationships. As was also suggested by Blau (1964), with recurring exchanges, individuals are likely to develop the assurance that the other party will continue to reciprocate. Additional exchanges provide increasing information about the exchange partner's typical manner of behaving, thereby providing a larger amount of information on which to base one's judgments about the individual. Findings from this study indicate that, indeed, employees who provide their coworkers with resources (via OCBI) acquire more trust from their coworkers and are generally more liked, and that these coworker states are important factors in determining the employee's future exchange relationships with coworkers. Essentially, performing citizenship behaviors allows an employee to

show that he or she is trustworthy, which leads to the acquisition of greater trust and subsequently leads to better coworker exchange. Again, managers interested in building cohesive groups, teams, departments, or organizations would do well to consider the extent to which coworkers are able to develop trust in one another, perhaps by providing them with sufficient opportunities to meaningfully interact (i.e., provide one another help with work activities) and develop trust.

A third implication of these findings is that simply providing help is not always enough to obtain the full benefit of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors. Indeed, the examination of motives for providing this help (Rioux & Penner, 2001) indicate that helping behaviors by employees perceived as being prosocially motivated receive a premium in the market of coworker exchange. This seems relevant for research on personality and self-presentation. It is not enough to be prosocially motivated, but it also critical that others accurately perceive these prosocial motives in order for employees to enjoy the full benefits of the behaviors for coworker exchange relationships. The importance of making these motives evident to coworkers presents at least two streams of future research on this topic. First, to what extent will employee emotional intelligence play a role in maximizing the benefit of citizenship behaviors? Perhaps those who are more skilled at using their emotions to influence others (e.g., Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004) will also be more apt to convey their prosocial motivation to their coworkers. Or perhaps the conveyance of these motives will depend more on emotional expressivity (Friedman, Prince, Riggio, & DiMatteo, 1980). In either case, it is important to consider the facility with which employees are able to make their favorably-viewed motives known if they are to derive the maximum benefit from helping behaviors.

A related stream of research deals with the perception of motives from the perspective of the coworker. The scope of the present study did not address the manner in which coworkers form their perceptions of employee motives, or coworkers' bases for attributing particular causes for employee behaviors. However, such an examination will help disentangle the manner in which these behaviors impact relationships at work. Indeed, although the findings of the study do not suggest that "no good deed goes unpunished," they do suggest that some good deeds are rewarded much more than others, and that the extent of the benefit depends on coworker perceptions of employee motives. Therefore, what predicts the perception of these motives?

Attribution theory would suggest that coworkers will make favorable attributions about the behaviors of employees with whom they hope to preserve relationships (Holtzworth-Munroe & Jacobson, 1985). This might suggest that employees with whom the coworker has a favorable relationship, and with whom the coworker hopes to have a continuing relationship, will be viewed as more prosocial and less impression managing. Following this line of thought, those attributed such motives would have better exchange relationships with the particular coworker. Consistent with this, the results of the study suggest that coworker perceptions of employee motives for helping are strongly related to coworker exchange relationships (positively for prosocial value motives and negatively for impression management motives), and the value of interpersonally-directed citizenship behavior is particularly strong for those viewed as having favorable motives. Despite these findings, this study does not address how coworkers arrive at their perceptions of the employee's behaviors; I encourage scholars to further study this phenomenon in future research.

A fourth implication of the findings presented herein is that we need to better understand how perceived motives influence the development of trust among coworkers. Unexpected findings from the study suggest that those who are perceived as having high prosocial value motives tend to be more trusted, but it is those who are lower on prosocial value motives that derive greater increases in trust as a result of their citizenship behaviors. Likewise, employees viewed as being more driven by impression management are also less trusted. However, when these employees engage in helping behaviors, it appears that trust in them accrues more rapidly than it would to the less impression-managing peers. These surprising findings offer a starting point for future research to examine the interpersonal processes behind these relationships.

Perhaps one explanation for this observation is that when coworkers receive assistance from an employee at work, they recognize that they are engaging in social exchange relationships. Consistent with social exchange theory, they implicitly acknowledge that they will have a future opportunity to reciprocate the help received, and will thus restore a sense of equity in the relationship (Blau, 1964). It appears that when coworkers perceive the impression managing motives of their coworkers, all parties implicitly agree to the underlying contract of reciprocity and social exchange. However, perhaps when coworkers receive help from employees who appear to have no other motive than to behave prosocially, the exchange leaves the coworker uneasy because he or she is unsure of how to reciprocate or whether or not the employee understands or has expectations of reciprocity. In this sense, perhaps prosocially-perceived helpers create conflict because they refute norms of social exchange. This notion of countervailing

effects of motives and citizenship behaviors on social exchange and trust and liking is a finding of considerable interest in this study and merits further investigation.

Another potential reason for the observed moderating influence of motives on the relationship between citizenship behaviors and coworker trust might be due to ceiling effects. For example, employees in this study who are viewed as having high prosocial value motives are generally more trusted, whereas those who are perceived as having low prosocial value motives are less trusted. Yet results indicate that those who are viewed as less prosocially motivated derive greater benefit from their citizenship behaviors. Perhaps this is because citizenship behaviors provide information to coworkers that the employee is making efforts to be trusted. Because the employee perceived as high in impression management motivation or low in prosocial motivation is, on average, less trusted than low impression-managing, highly-prosocial counterparts, there is more room for increased trust. Therefore, the performance of citizenship behaviors by the employee provides additional information to influence coworker judgments of the employee, with increasing levels of citizenship behavior resulting in higher levels of trust.

This observation of ceiling effects related to the performance of citizenship behaviors is similar to the ceiling effect that agreeable individuals experience with relation to their coworkers. Ilies et al. (2006) found that highly agreeable individuals (one standard deviation above the mean on the trait) exhibited higher levels of OCB, but the day to day performance of OCB did not vary as a function of varying levels of positive affect. In contrast, those who were less agreeable (one standard deviation below the mean on the trait) engaged in OCB, on average, less often than the highly agreeable counterparts, but this relationship was strongly positive such that their affective state was

a strong determinant of whether or not they would engage in OCB (i.e., the relationship between positive affect and OCB was strongly positive for this group). The study by Ilies et al. therefore shows that the strength of the relationship between daily affective and attitudinal states and daily OCB is moderated by individual traits, with ceiling effects for those high in agreeableness. The present study complements these findings by illustrating that those who are perceived as more prosocial and less impression managing already obtain high levels of trust from their coworkers. In contrast, employees who are viewed as having impression managing motives or low prosocial value motives might have greater potential to develop trust because they start from a lower baseline. Indeed, the findings suggest that it is those employees low on prosocial value motives and high on impression management motives that derive greater trust-building benefits of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors.

In summary, these findings suggest that perceived motives are an important predictor of how employees are viewed by their coworkers. As one might imagine, those who are viewed as being more prosocial are more favorably viewed by their counterparts at work. However, another important implication of this set of findings is that citizenship behaviors might provide a mechanism for repairing or enhancing coworker trust, especially for those employees who are viewed as less prosocial. This suggests that employees who might be afforded lower levels of trust by their peers, primarily due to the employee's disposition or coworker perceptions of the employee, might be able to use citizenship behaviors as an instrumental tool to establish higher levels of trust. Indeed, the discretionary nature of citizenship behaviors could make them well-suited to goal setting, with these goals being particularly important for those who would otherwise be

less trusted by their peers. That discretionary behaviors seem to provide a good application of goal-setting practices, suggests that training or goal-setting mechanisms might be used to enhance or develop trust among employees, specifically by encouraging employees who are perceived as less prosocially motivated to engage in citizenship behaviors.

Finally, this study contributes to research on organizational behavior, and particularly citizenship behaviors, by illustrating one potential reason why citizenship behaviors might enhance organizational performance. Because of the relationship-enhancing effects of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors, it is reasonable to expect that increasingly cohesive and trusting relationships would lead to smoother-running organizations, which could subsequently lead to enhanced organizational effectiveness. Indeed, this study illustrates that one reason why citizenship results in better exchange relationships is due to the trust and liking that are facilitated as a result of citizenship behaviors. Because this study did not address performance outcomes, future research should examine performance outcomes of citizenship behaviors, while addressing the mediating effects of coworker relationships. Such an approach would be consistent with research illustrating the beneficial effects of team cohesion on performance (e.g., Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon, 2003). A follow up research study could be designed to examine interactions among team members, including the discretionary behaviors in which they engage to help their teammates. By aggregating these measures of citizenship, and also examining the quality of relationships among coworkers, one could identify some of the mechanisms through which citizenship leads to greater organizational performance through its effects on coworker relationships.

A further variation on this approach could be taken by considering networks of relationships at work. Specifically, scholars could examine how citizenship behaviors act as a vehicle for establishing more central network positions in the workplace. In other words, this study could provide further support for the notion that employees use citizenship behaviors to bolster their standing in the social network by using these behaviors to develop favorable exchange relationships, thus becoming and integral part of the work processes of many coworkers. To the extent to which engaging in such behaviors influences an employee's centrality in the social network, the employee might experience increased personal benefits due to the greater access he or she has to resources such as mentoring, information or opportunity (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001).

Limitations and Future Research

The study presented in this paper has various limitations that are worth noting. First, the data for the study were cross-sectional in that they examined only a slice of employee-coworker interactions and reactions. Therefore, the study cannot addresses relationships as they develop and unfold across time. This shortcoming is important to note, especially given the likelihood that citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers are likely to elicit responses that would in turn influence the relationship. Indeed, the study examines the extent to which coworker exchange relationships are related to interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors. It could be expected, and in fact, is implicit in the model, that increasingly strong coworker exchange relationships would lead to subsequent citizenship behaviors directed toward the other party. In this sense, the model presented lends itself to a non-recursive examination in which citizenship behaviors lead to enhanced coworker exchange relationships, which in turn lead to

additional interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors. Such an approach is consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961), which argues that the exchange of goods or services, either tangible or intangible, serve to reinforce and foster social relationships. As Ilies et al. (2006) demonstrated, employees' citizenship behaviors fluctuate from day to day, in part as a function of affective and attitudinal states. Given these findings that citizenship behaviors fluctuate across time, and also given the fact that relationships develop over time, I suggest that future research examine the manner in which relationships develop as coworkers engage in citizenship behaviors, and how the quality of these relationships varies as employees engage in varying levels of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors.

One of these approaches would be to determine a baseline relationship level among coworkers by assessing, for example, their level of coworker exchange relationships at a point in time. Then researchers could assess the extent to which the coworkers engage in various citizenship behaviors and concurrently assess the extent to which the coworker exchange relationships vary across these time periods. With repeated assessment, the researchers could determine the strength with which citizenship and other behaviors influence or dictate the strength of the coworker exchange relationships. Not only would this design allow for an examination of the development of the coworker exchange relationship across time, but it would also allow for an examination of how fluctuations in citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange relationships covary over time. As has been shown in a growing body of literature, employee emotions, cognitions, and behaviors exhibit not only between-person differences, but also substantial within-person differences (e.g., Ilies & Judge, 2002; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). Therefore,

by taking *in situ* assessments of employee behaviors and coworker attitudes toward those employees, scholars can more clearly explain the relationship between employee behaviors and relational well-being outcomes. Such an approach provides an exciting area for future research.

Another, perhaps simpler, approach would be to assess groups of coworkers at the moment when they are introduced to, or begin working with, one another. This would allow the researchers to assume that no previous relationship exists, thereby allowing a study of what predicts the development of coworker exchange relationships. Indeed, Mehra, Kilduff, and Brass (2001) suggest that social networks derive in part from the extent to which individuals like one another or are similar to one another. Therefore, to the extent to which performing citizenship behaviors directed towards a coworker influences that coworker's liking of the employee, these behaviors are likely to lead to the employee obtaining a more central or influential position in the social network, resulting in enhanced coworker exchange relationships. I suggest that future research examine the way in which citizenship behaviors influence the development of broader social networks. Indeed, by studying groups beginning at the moment in which they are formed, this approach becomes eminently feasible.

In addition to measuring behaviors and states as they occur in the work place, it would be interesting to study how structural characteristics of the job or setting in which the coworkers interact might influence the nature of the relationships among citizenship behaviors and relational outcomes. For example, will citizenship behaviors have the same impact when performed in computer mediated teams? And with increasing globalization, what role could citizenship behaviors play in developing relationships among employees

when those employees are distributed across the globe? Moreover, what role will cultural differences play in this process? Certainly these questions offer plenty of opportunity for scholars to further our understanding of these discretionary and interpersonally-directed behaviors at work.

Given that many of the hypothesized relationships in the personal well-being portion of the model were not supported, the question arises as to whether these findings are due to the conceptual infeasibility that citizenship behaviors could be related to personal well-being, or to the inappropriate match between conceptualization of the relationships and the operationalization and timing of measurement of the relationships. I will first consider the possibility of poor conceptualization. A substantial amount of past research has connected citizenship behaviors to components of well-being (e.g., positive affect, Williams & Shiaw, 1999; job satisfaction, Organ, 1988). Furthermore, affective states and job attitudes have been shown to fluctuate across time (e.g., Ilies & Judge, 2002; Weiss et al., 1999). This presents the possibility that there might be a dynamic connection between citizenship behaviors and well-being across time. Moreover, the finding that the fulfillment of basic psychological needs was indeed related to well-being states (e.g., fulfillment of the need for autonomy was related to affective states) suggests that portions of the model are supported and are consistent with past research. On the other hand, given the unexpected moderation found in the relational well-being portion of the model, it appears that the interaction of citizenship behaviors and the motives to engage in them might be more complex than I originally anticipated. Therefore, I acknowledge that more conceptualization should be performed as to the relationships among citizenship, motives, and both personal and relational well-being.

Methodological shortcomings of this study also suggest that the lack of observed relationships, particularly with regard to the personal well-being half of the model, might be due to inappropriate timing and frequency of measurement. Research suggests that there are many factors that determine employee well-being. Therefore, designing a study to capture changes in well-being at two points in time, over a two week span, with citizenship as the only predictor may have been too coarse of an approach. Indeed, it is quite possible that the well-being benefits derived from the performance of such behaviors may have dissipated by the time of the second measurement. Perhaps a more appropriate design would utilize ecological momentary assessment (EMA; Beal & Weiss, 2003) in which employees provide ratings of their well-being states at several points throughout a work week, or even a work day, and predict these states with coworker reports of employee citizenship behaviors. This approach would have allowed for a study of the fluctuations in well-being as a function of fluctuations in behaviors across time. Indeed, contemporary research on well-being in the workplace has provided evidence that employee well-being states can vary from day to day and even from hour to hour (Ilies et al., 2007; Wagner et al., 2008; Watson, 2000). Because of the difficulties of obtaining matched coworker reports of employee citizenship behaviors at multiple points on multiple days, it might be feasible to study employees in a setting where employee behaviors are naturally tracked by the job. For example, perhaps employees working in a call center could be studied, with the performance of their own calls as in-role performance, and assistance to other employees marked as citizenship behaviors. Or perhaps a design similar to that used by Trougakos, Beal, Dalal, Sundie, and Weiss (2008) would be useful. These researchers had restaurant customers rate various

behaviors by their server, and servers answer various questions regarding their attitudes about the job and their affective states at particular moments in time. By utilizing such a design researchers can examine fluctuations in behaviors and well-being states across time, while also avoiding the problems associated with same-source responses. I encourage further study of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors and their well-being outcomes using these types of rigorous methods.

Another question for future research would be to identify determinants of coworker perceptions of employee motives. Indeed, despite the positive connection between perceived prosocial value motives, and the negative relationship between perceived impression management motives and coworker exchange relationships, the interactions of perceived motives and citizenship as predictors of trust and liking are somewhat puzzling. For instance, why would coworkers experience a stronger relationship between citizenship behaviors and trust for those whom they view as less prosocially motivated, or more impression management motivated? One could imagine that trust would go hand in hand with coworker exchange relationships, and would thus demonstrate a similar relationship to predictors and moderators, yet this was not the case. Future research should further explore the reasons for which motives and citizenship behaviors enhance coworker exchange, even though they exert opposite effects on coworker trust and liking of the employee.

Finally, the discussion of the instrumental utility of citizenship behaviors brings up another point for consideration. If employees are encouraged to engage in citizenship behaviors, to what extent are these behaviors discretionary? This consideration builds upon the debate among scholars as to the differences between in-role and extra-role

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behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995) or task performance and contextual

performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). If citizenship behaviors are encouraged by

management, do these behaviors cease to be defined as citizenship or extra-role, and

instead come to be considered part of one's job or in-role behavior? Likewise, how does

creating an environment that might facilitate employee interaction and helping behaviors

influence the relationships among citizenship, trust, liking, and coworker exchange

relationships?

Moreover, even if citizenship behaviors are not formally required by employees'

jobs, they still might be faced with pressure from their environment to perform

citizenship behaviors. I would expect that performing discretionary behaviors motivated

by such factors would yield lower levels of well-being, due in part to the harmful effect

that such pressure could have on one's sense of autonomy. Of course, in this study I

failed to find a connection between citizenship behaviors and autonomy, so perhaps this

connection is not warranted. However, I suggest that future research consider the impact

that the pressure to perform citizenship behaviors has on the relationships among these

behaviors and well-being outcomes.

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to extend research on organizational citizenship

behavior by examining the outcomes of interpersonally-directed citizenship behaviors.

Specifically, by drawing upon self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) the study

examined how employee citizenship behaviors fulfill employees' basic psychological

needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence, and how the fulfillment of these needs

in turn relates to employee personal well-being. The study also examined the influence of

citizenship behaviors on relational well-being, or the quality of the exchange relationship that exists between employees and coworkers.

Through a two-stage data collection procedure, I found mixed support for the hypothesized relationships, with the majority of support establishing the connection between citizenship behaviors and relational well-being. The findings also indicate the importance of considering experienced and perceived motives as moderators of the hypothesized relationships. Furthermore, these interactions presented some unexpected findings, thereby providing several lines of inquiry for future research. I therefore encourage researchers to further extend our understanding of the interplay between motives and behaviors as predictors of employee personal and relational well-being at work.

APPENDICES

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Appendix A: Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors will be related to employee personal well-being, demonstrating a positive relationship with (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and a negative relationship with (c) negative affect.

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and positive affect will be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction will be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and negative affect will be mediated by fulfillment of the employee's needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence.

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (c) negative affect, will be moderated by the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger relationships than employees with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and (a) positive affect and (b) job satisfaction, and the negative relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behavior and (c) negative affect, will be moderated by the employee's impression management motives, such that employees with higher impression management motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower impression management motives.

Hypothesis 7: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, will be moderated by the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the fulfillment of the needs for (a) relatedness, (b) autonomy, and (c) competence, will be moderated by the employee's impression management motives, such that employees with higher impression management

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motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees with lower impression management motives.

Hypothesis 9: Employee interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors will be positively related to coworker exchange (CWX).

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be mediated by (a) coworker trust in the employee and (b) coworker liking of the employee.

Hypothesis 11: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees attributed with higher prosocial value motives will have a stronger positive relationship than employees attributed with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and coworker exchange will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees attributed with impression management motives will have a weaker positive relationship than employees attributed with lower impression management motives.

Hypothesis 13: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's prosocial value motives, such that employees attributed with higher prosocial value motives will have stronger positive relationships than employees attributed with lower prosocial value motives.

Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between interpersonally-directed organizational citizenship behaviors and the mediators (a) trust in the employee and (b) liking of the employee will be moderated by coworker attributions of the employee's impression management motives, such that employees attributed with higher impression management motives will have weaker positive relationships than employees attributed with lower impression management motives.

Appendix B: Survey Measures Used in Field Study

Employee-Rated Time 1
Opportunities for interaction
On average, how often do you have opportunities to interact with other employees, or help/receive help from other employees?
1 = once per year or less
2 = more than once per year
3 = more than once per month
4 = more than once per week
5 = about once a day
6 = several times per day
7 = hourly or more often

Motives for OCB
During the course of the workday people often engage in prosocial or helpful behaviors. These behaviors are not a required part of the job and they are not formally rewarded (e.g., more money). Yet these behaviors are very important and help the organization function smoothly. Examples of such behavior include:
- helping co-workers with a heavy workload
- Getting involved to benefit others
- Helping new employees "learn the ropes"

People are motivated to engage in these kinds of behaviors by many different things. Below is a list of motives that may influence people to engage in these behaviors. For each motive listed, please indicate **HOW IMPORTANT** that motive is for **YOU** to engage in these kinds of behaviors at work.
1 = not at all important, 7 = extremely important

Prosocial value motives
Because I feel it is important to help those in need.
Because I am concerned about other people's feelings.
To have fun with my co-workers.
Because I like interacting with my co-workers.
Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can.
Because I can put myself in other people's shoes.
Because I believe in being courteous to others.
Because it is easy for me to be helpful.
To get to know my co-workers better.
To be friendly with others.

Impression management motives
To stay out of trouble.
To look better than my co-workers.
Because I want a raise.

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To avoid a reprimand from my boss.
To look like I am busy.
Because rewards are important to me.
To impress my co-workers.
Because I fear appearing irresponsible.
To avoid looking lazy.
To avoid looking bad in front of others.

Fulfillment of Need for Relatedness
Think of times over the **past two months** when you have assisted a coworker, listened to a coworker's problems, helped with a heavy workload, or done some other behavior to benefit a coworker that was not explicitly required by your job.
1 = not at all, 7 = extremely

After doing these things, I...
felt close and connected with my coworkers.
felt understood and appreciated by my coworkers.
felt a sense of relatedness with my coworkers.

Fulfillment of Need for Competence
Think of times over the **past two months** when you have assisted a coworker, listened to a coworker's problems, helped with a heavy workload, or done some other behavior to benefit a coworker that was not explicitly required by your job.
1 = not at all, 7 = extremely

After doing these things, I...
felt successful at work.
felt I was working effectively.
felt capable as an employee.

Fulfillment of Need for Autonomy
Think of times over the **past two months** when you have assisted a coworker, listened to a coworker's problems, helped with a heavy workload, or done some other behavior to benefit a coworker that was not explicitly required by your job.
1 = not at all, to 7 = completely

I engaged in these behaviors over the past two months because...
something about my situation forced me to do it.
I made myself do it, to avoid anxiety or guilt.
interesting or not, I felt that it expressed my true values.
I did it purely for the interest and enjoyment in doing it.

Interpersonally directed organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI)
Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements regarding behavior of the employee you are rating over the past two months.
1 = strongly disagree, to *7 = strongly agree*

Over the past two months this employee has...

Helped others who have been absent.
Helped others who have had heavy workloads.
Assisted supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
Taken time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.
Gone out of his/her way to help new employees.
Taken a personal interest in other employees.
Passed along information to coworkers.

Motives for OCB
During the course of the workday people often engage in prosocial or helpful behaviors. These behaviors are not a required part of the job and they are not formally rewarded (e.g., more money). Yet these behaviors are very important and help the organization function smoothly. Examples of such behavior include:
- helping co-workers with a heavy workload
- Getting involved to benefit others
- Helping new employees "learn the ropes"

People are motivated to engage in these kinds of behaviors by many different things. Below is a list of motives that may influence people to engage in these behaviors. For each motive listed, please indicate **HOW IMPORTANT** you believe that motive is for **the employee you are rating**, when he or she engages in these kinds of behaviors at work (focusing on the last two months).

Prosocial value motives
Because s/he feels it is important to help those in need.
Because s/he is concerned about other people's feelings.
To have fun with her/his co-workers.
Because s/he likes interacting with her/his co-workers.
Because s/he wants to help her/his co-workers in any way s/he can.
Because s/he can put her/himself in other people's shoes.
Because s/he believes in being courteous to others.
Because it is easy for her/him to be helpful.
To get to know her/his co-workers better.
To be friendly with others.

Impression management motives
To stay out of trouble.

To look better than her/his co-workers.
Because s/he wants a raise.
To avoid a reprimand from her/his boss.
To look like s/he is busy.
Because rewards are important to her/him.
To impress her/his co-workers.
Because s/he fears appearing irresponsible.
To avoid looking lazy.
To avoid looking bad in front of others.

Trust
Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your relationship with the employee you are rating.
1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

Cognition-based trust
This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication.
Given this person's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.
Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker.
Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy.
I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work.
If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely.

Liking
Please respond to each of the following questions related to how you view the employee you are rating.
How much do you like this coworker?
1 = I don't like this coworker at all, 7 = I like this coworker very much

I get along well with this coworker.
Working with this person is a pleasure.
I think this coworker would make a good friend.
1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

Positive Affect and Negative Affect

Please indicate the extent to which you have felt each of the following adjectives over the past two months.

1 = slightly or not at all, to *7 = very much*

Active
Afraid
Alert
Ashamed
Attentive
Determined
Distressed
Enthusiastic
Excited
Guilty
Hostile
Inspired
Interested
Irritable
Jittery
Nervous
Proud
Scared
Strong
Upset

Job Satisfaction

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements regarding your job.

1 = strongly disagree, to *7 = strongly agree*

Over the past two months I have found real enjoyment in my work.

Most days over the past two months I have felt enthusiastic about my work.

During the past two months I have felt fairly satisfied with my present job.

Each day of work over the past two months has seemed like it would never end. (reverse-coded)

During the last two months I have considered my job rather unpleasant. (reverse-coded)

Coworker Exchange
Please answer each question below related to your interactions with the employee you are rating.

Do you know where you stand with this co-worker?
1 = rarely, 7 = very often

How well does this co-worker understand your job problems and needs?
1 = not a bit, 7 = a great deal

What are the chances that this co-worker would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?
1 = none, 7 = very high

What are the chances that this co-worker would "bail you out," at his or her expense?
1 = none, 7 = very high

I have enough confidence in this co-worker that I would defend or justify his/her decision (to a superior) if he/she were not present to do so.
1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

How would you characterize your working relationship with this co-worker?
1 = extremely ineffective, 7 = extremely effective

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