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Why and when do motives matter? An integrative model of motives, role cognitions, and social support as predictors of OCB

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ABSTRACT

We extend prior thinking about citizenship behavior by integrating employee motives, social support, and role cognitions as predictors of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Drawing on trait activation and situated self theories, we provide insights into why and when motives predict OCB using multi-source data from two field samples. In Study 1, we demonstrate that the quality of social support functions as a boundary condition that qualifies relations of motives with OCB. In Study 2, we introduce role cognitions as a proximal motivational factor that mediates the motives by social support interactions with OCB. Our results support the hypothesized moderated mediated model and enhance understanding of OCB by integrating the OCB motive and role cognition literatures, which to date have developed separately. As our results demonstrate, role cognitions, which are domain-specific felt obligations to perform OCB, mediate relations of more distal predispositions to perform OCB with helping and voice citizenship behaviors.

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Introduction

For over 70 years, scholars have emphasized the importance of employees' extra-role behavior for cultivating organizational success (Barnard, 1938; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Today, organizations increasingly expect employees to go beyond their formal job descriptions in order to cope with challenges such as downsizing, the flattening of organizational hierarchies, and competitive pressures (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). A fitting example of such behavior is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which refers to actions aimed at improving organizational effectiveness despite being behaviors that fall outside contractual job requirements (Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Indeed, a large volume of research indicates that OCB contributes to organizational success (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). For these reasons, organizational scholars have sought to identify the antecedents of OCB.

One set of antecedents that contributes significantly to OCB is individual differences, such as personality traits (Borman & Penner, 2001; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002;

Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). More recently, motives have also emerged as significant person-based antecedents of OCB (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997). For example, Rioux and Penner (2001) identified three motives that are of special relevance to OCB: *prosocial values* (the motive to help others), *organizational concern* (the motive to maximize the interests of the organization), and *impression management* (the motive to create a favorable impression in order to obtain instrumental rewards). Their results demonstrated strong relationships for prosocial values motives with OCB directed at other people and for organizational concern motives with OCB directed at the organization. In contrast, impression management motives had weak relations with OCB. Building on this work, Grant and Mayer (2009) showed that prosocial values motives predicted affiliative OCBs (e.g., helping others) and change-oriented OCBs (e.g., voicing suggestions; see Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Although impression management motives were not related to either type of OCB, impression management motives strengthened the relationship between prosocial values motives and affiliative OCB.

In addition to motives, research also demonstrates that another person-based construct, role cognitions, predicts OCB. OCB role cognitions are people's felt obligation to perform OCB as part of a specific role or in a specific situation (Morrison, 1994). Providing empirical evidence in support of the importance of role cognitions, McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, and Turban (2007) demonstrated that role cognitions (e.g., perceived role breadth and efficacy) pre-

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dicted both affiliative and challenging forms of OCB. Extending this work, Van Dyne, Kamdar, and Joireman (2008) demonstrated relationships for role cognitions with affiliative and challenging OCBs directed at different targets (supervisors and organizations). In addition the studies of McAllister et al. and Van Dyne et al. demonstrated that role cognitions interact with situational characteristics (procedural justice and leader-member exchange) in predicting OCB.

To date, these streams of research on OCB motives and OCB role cognitions have developed independently. This is problematic because it results in fragmented research and prevents a more integrated understanding of how person-based characteristics influence OCB. Going beyond past research, we argue that OCB motives and role cognitions are complementary because both represent cognitive (vs. affective) phenomena and reflect the tendency to engage in OCB. The two person-based constructs, however, also differ in important ways. Motives reflect general dispositional tendencies to engage in OCB across a variety of situations (Penner et al., 1997; Rioux & Penner, 2001). In contrast, role cognitions are situated tendencies embedded in a particular domain (McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison, 1994). Thus, the key difference is their specificity and proximity to behavior. Motives are diffuse dispositions with distal effects on OCB whereas role cognitions are situation-specific tendencies with proximal effects.

Based on these differences in motives and role cognitions, we propose that the two streams of research can be integrated because motives and role cognitions can operate together to produce OCB. According to situated identity theory (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980), dispositional tendencies such as motives shape people's felt obligations to perform behaviors in specific domains (e.g., at work), which in turn have direct effects on behavior. This reasoning is consistent with distal-proximal theories of personality and motivation, which propose that broad individual differences exert indirect effects on behavior via more proximal, situated cognitions (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Kanfer & Heggstad, 1997; Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012).

One theory that clarifies how dispositional tendencies are translated into behavior in specific situations is trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003). According to trait activation theory, the likelihood that distal traits will manifest in behavior depends on the extent to which situations are trait-relevant. That is, personality traits are latent potentials inherent in individuals that are triggered into actions when situations provide cues for the expression of trait-relevant behavior (Tett & Guterman, 2000). For example, because OCB is discretionary, the influence of distal OCB motives on behavior should vary depending on whether situations provide cues that discretionary behavior will be viewed favorably (e.g., social support or trust).

While trait activation theory highlights the importance of considering interactions of distal traits with situational cues, it is unlikely that such traits have direct relations with behavior. Rather, relations of distal traits with behavior in specific situations should be mediated by situated cognitions (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Kanfer & Heggstad, 1997; Lanaj et al., 2012). Research on identity (e.g., Kivetz & Tyler, 2007; Markus & Wurf, 1987; Stryker, 1980) helps clarify how distal traits prime contextualized cognitions by distinguishing between the idealized self and the situated self. The idealized self is comprised of values and motives that are central to one's sense of self. The idealized self reflects global traits that are psychologically important across situations (McCall & Simmons, 1978; Strauman, 1996). The idealized self guides people's interpretation of specific situations and their role in those situations, resulting in a situated self (Stryker, 1987). The situated self is comprised of contextualized expectations and cognitions (Alexander & Wiley, 1981; Trope, 1989) and is a product of negotiating and reconciling

the idealized self to the demands of specific social roles (Stryker, 1980; Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009). People craft internalized expectations with regard to their own behavior in those roles (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and one basis for these expectations is the values and motives associated with the idealized self (Markus, 1977; Stryker, 1980). For example, those with strong prosocial values motives care deeply about the welfare of those around them and this influences the expectations they create for themselves when thinking about their roles in specific situations (e.g., felt obligation to help colleagues at work). This process is consistent with hierarchical conceptualizations of the self, where self-defining values and motives at the top of people's goal hierarchies constrain the situated identities and goals that emerge at lower levels (Cropanzano, James, & Citera, 1993; Lord & Brown, 2004).

Integrating the two previously separate streams of research on OCB motives and role cognitions, we identify two mechanisms that should impact relations of motives with OCB. First, according to trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), motives relate to OCB when situations provide cues for the expression of trait-relevant behavior. Given the discretionary nature of OCB, the quality of social support that employees perceive at work should function as a cue that signals discretionary behavior is appropriate. We therefore proposed and tested motive by social support interactions for predicting OCB. Second, drawing from situated identity theory (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980), we focus on situated expectations employees develop as they craft cognitions about their job roles. OCB role cognitions reflect the situated tendency to think of OCB as expected in a particular job role. Given that motives are dispositional and self-defining qualities (Penner et al., 1997; Rioux & Penner, 2001), OCB motives should influence the situated expectations that employees develop about their work roles and the behaviors coupled to those roles (Stryker, 1980; Swann et al., 2009). We therefore expected that role cognitions would mediate motive–OCB relations.

Our research offers four key contributions. First, existing research on OCB motives (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001) has ignored the role of the situation. Failure to consider relevant situation cues may explain why observed relations of particular motives (e.g., impression management) with OCB have been mixed. For example, some research demonstrates that impression management motives lead to OCB (Finkelstein, 2006; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007), but other studies demonstrate weak or no associations for impression management motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001). When the role of the situation is omitted, relations between person-based constructs and behavior may be misleading – either under-estimated or over-estimated (Johns, 2006). Additionally, omission of situational factors can lead to incomplete and misleading implications for managers. We redress this oversight by acknowledging the role of two types of social support as situational cues that should signal the extent to which expression of trait-relevant behavior such as OCB is appropriate. By incorporating social support as a boundary condition that qualifies motives–OCB relationships, we respond to Penner and Orom's (2010) call for research that explains *when* motives should relate to behavior. More specifically, our research expands the understanding about how perceptions of the context influence predictions of OCB by applying the general concept of situational strength (Tett & Burnett, 2003) and arguing that coworker support and organizational support differ in their capacity to stimulate or constrain motives–OCB relationships.

Second, we provide a theoretical explanation for *why* motives relate to OCB by integrating the previously separate streams of research on OCB motives and OCB role cognitions. Previous research that has considered relationships between motives and OCB has oversimplified motive–OCB relations because models have not

accounted for situated identity (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980) or distal–proximal theories of the self and motivation (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Lord & Brown, 2004). This omission is problematic because the field lacks an understanding of mechanisms that link motives with OCB. Drawing on differences in the idealized and situated selves, we propose that role cognitions are a conduit that should link dispositional motives with actions in specific situations. Thus, our approach should help to integrate the motive and role cognitions literatures by specifying situated role cognitions as mediators of motive–OCB relations.

The third contribution of our research is clarification of the relationships among OCB motives, social support, and role cognitions as predictors of OCB. Although prior research shows that social support moderates relations of role cognitions with OCB (McAllister et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2008), trait activation theory argues that situational cues such as social support should moderate the distal effects of traits, not the proximal effects of situated cognitions. Given that situated cognitions represent expression of traits in a specific context, the activating effects of situational cues must occur prior to the emergence of situated cognitions. It is possible that prior results showing situated cognition by social support interactions occurred because motives were omitted from previous studies. We address this omission by testing a more integrated moderated mediation model where relations of motive by support interactions with OCB are mediated by role cognitions. We compare this hypothesized model to an alternative model with second stage moderation where the indirect effects of motives via role cognitions on OCB were moderated by support.

A final contribution of our study is the simultaneous examination of three OCB motives (organizational concern, prosocial values, and impression management motives), which is important because each has unique relationships with OCB (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Considering the three motives is also consistent with recent theorizing of Bolino, Harvey, and Bachrach (2012) who differentiated collective, relational, and individual self-concepts as predictors of OCB, which parallel organizational concern, prosocial values, and impression management motives. Although all three motives should have implications for OCB, some studies have excluded one or more of these motives (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009, did not examine organizational concern motives; Yun et al., 2007, only examined impression management motives). In addition, by examining all three motives, our study provides a more complete test of the notion that OCB stems from both self-serving motives (impression management) and other-serving motives (prosocial values and organizational concern) (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

In the sections that follow we present theoretical arguments for our hypothesized relations of motives with OCB, and the moderating and mediating effects of social support and role cognitions, respectively, on these relations. We then present results from two multi-source field studies in which we tested our hypotheses. In Study 1 we investigated motive by support interactions for predicting OCB using a sample of engineers and their supervisors. In Study 2 we extend these findings by examining whether relations of these interactions with OCB are mediated by role cognitions using a sample of sales employees and their supervisors.

Motives and OCB

In our investigation of motives and OCB, we distinguish between two types of OCB: affiliative and challenging OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1995, 2008). Helping is an example of the former because it is a cooperative and noncontroversial type of OCB that strengthens relationships among employees. Voice, in contrast, is an example

of the latter because it represents change-oriented OCB that seeks to improve organizational policies and procedures, and may arouse disagreement and pushback from others. Because voice OCB is less common and more risky than helping OCB (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), we suspect that the nature of motive–OCB relations will differ depending on whether behavior is affiliative or challenging (cf. Van Dyne et al., 2008). In the paragraphs below we consider how prosocial values, impression management, and organizational concern motives are likely to relate to helping and voice OCB.

When employees have strong prosocial values motives, they feel a sense of connectedness to the people around them and they internalize the goals and values of significant others (Grant & Mayer, 2009). As a result, employees' own sense of self becomes intertwined with that of others and motivates them to enhance others' welfare. Engaging in behaviors like helping, which directly benefit others, is a common action when employees have other-oriented motives and identities (Johnson & Saboe, 2011; Rioux & Penner, 2001). We therefore expected that prosocial values motives would be positively related to helping OCB.

Employees with strong impression management motives are driven to create favorable impressions in the eyes of others. They perform OCB with the belief that this will bolster their reputation as helpful contributors, thus opening the door for personal rewards and recognition (Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010). Although some empirical findings suggest that impression management motives have weak or no direct relations with OCB (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001), other findings indicate that impression management is associated with OCB. For example, the use of impression management tactics by employees is positively related to OCB (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). As we explicate later, one reason for these inconsistent findings may be due to inattention to situational cues that facilitate OCB. Regardless, theoretical evidence suggests that impression management motives should predict OCB (Bolino, 1999; Penner et al., 1997). It is important to note, however, that employees with strong impression management motive may be selective in performing some types of OCB and not others. Given their goal to create favorable impressions and reputations, they should be more likely to perform cooperative and non-risky OCBs that are generally appreciated by others. Voice is more risky than helping because some will react negatively to ideas about changes to the status quo and this may damage employees' reputations (Van Dyne et al., 2008). We therefore hypothesized that impression management motives would predict employees helping OCB, but we did not expect a relationship between impression management motives and voice OCB.

Lastly, employees with strong organizational concern motives identify with the organization they belong to and internalize the norms and goals of the larger social entity. These employees are motivated to act as good citizens by fulfilling their organizational responsibilities and engaging in extra-role behaviors that promote the well-being and success of the overall organization, more so than the welfare of specific members (Rioux & Penner, 2001). For this reason, we expected organizational concern motives would be positively related to voice OCB, which is intended to enhance organizational functioning by proposing policy and procedural improvements (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).¹ When employees iden-

¹ Although voice behavior may be directed at other individuals, such as peers and supervisors, the behavior aims to improve organizational policies and procedures (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 2008). We therefore expected that organization-referenced motives and support would be especially salient predictors of voice behavior. We acknowledge that leader-referenced constructs (e.g., transformational behavior) may also be associated with voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007), which is consistent with the idea that leaders are the embodiment of the organization for most subordinates (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

tify with their organization (Johnson & Saboe, 2011), they should be less concerned that their behavior might upset others.

Hypothesis 1 (a). *Prosocial values motives and (b) impression management motives will be positively related to helping OCB, whereas (c) organizational concern motives will be positively related to voice OCB.*

Motives by support interactions predicting OCB

Researchers (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Penner & Orom, 2010) have bemoaned the lack of attention to situational factors when examining the effects of OCB motives. In fact, Penner and Orom (2010) argued that “a full understanding of the causes of prosocial actions requires considering how person and situation interact” (p. 56). This logic is consistent with trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), which suggests that motives are more likely to translate into behavior in situations that provide cues that the behavior is appropriate. We examined two such cues in the current study, social support from coworkers and from the organization, which align with helping that targets coworkers and voice that targets the organization. A large amount of research demonstrates that the quality of social relations and support trigger discretionary behaviors such as OCB (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Lavelle, Rupp, and Brockner’s (2007) target similarity model argued that relationships are stronger when constructs are matched, such as when they have similar targets and foci. Their model thus provides a conceptual rationale for why prosocial values motives and impression management motives should interact with coworker support to predictor helping OCB and why organizational concern motives and organizational support should interact to predict voice OCB because these are matched constructs. For example, prosocial values, impression management, coworker support and helping are interpersonal constructs that focus on other individuals. In contrast, organizational concern, organizational support, and voice focus on the more distal target of the organization.

Prosocial values motives represent the employee’s need to be helpful and impression management motives represent the employee’s desire to have positive relationships with other individuals to form favorable impressions. Thus, they both focus on other individuals. Organizational concern motives represent the employee’s need to contribute to the organization. Thus, they focus on the organization. We propose that coworker support, which focuses on interpersonal relationships with coworkers, has special relevance to prosocial values motives and impression management motives because the three constructs focus on interpersonal relationships. In contrast, organizational support focuses on the quality of the employee’s relationship with the organization and should have special relevance to organizational concern motives because both focus on the organization. Helping OCB is interpersonal, cooperative, and usually directed at specific proximal individuals rather than at the organization (McAllister et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 1995). In comparison, voice represents constructive challenges directed at the organization. Voice aims to change organizational policies or procedures – it does not target changes in individuals. Based on the target similarity model (Lavelle et al., 2007), we expected that coworker support would moderate relations of prosocial values motives and impression management motives with helping OCB, whereas relations of organizational concern motives with voice OCB would be moderated by organizational support.

The nature of these interactions, however, should not be uniform, given fundamental theoretical distinctions between affiliative and challenging OCBs (Van Dyne et al., 1995, 2008). As mentioned above, performing helping OCB entails little risk and

is generally appreciated by others at work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) because most people are socialized in early childhood to value cooperation (Murnighan & Saxon, 1998). Given that helping is noncontroversial and generally valued, the expression of prosocial values motives and impression management motives in the form of helping OCB should be less reliant on situational pressures. According to trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), the relationship between traits and expression of trait-relevant behavior should be stronger in weak situations where external rewards and pressures are minimal. When coworker support is low, this is a weak situation that makes individual motives such as prosocial values motives and impression management motives more relevant to performance of helping. Thus, individual traits should be more strongly related to helping when support is low. In contrast, when coworker support is high, this creates a strong situation where employees feel obligated to reciprocate the support by helping others (Gouldner, 1960), regardless of their own prosocial values motives or impression management motives (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2000; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Thus, we expected that prosocial values motives and impression management motives would have stronger positive relations with helping OCB in weak situations (i.e., when coworker support is low vs. high).

Hypothesis 2. *Coworker support will moderate the relationship between prosocial values motives and helping OCB, such that the relationship will be stronger when coworker support is low (vs. high).*

Hypothesis 3. *Coworker support will moderate the relationship between impression management motives and helping OCB, such that the relationship will be stronger when coworker support is low (vs. high).*

In contrast to H2 and H3, we expect the nature of the motive by social support interaction that predicts voice OCB will differ from that for helping OCB. This is for two reasons. First, the types of social support that contribute to voice and helping (viz., organizational support and coworker support, respectively) are different. Coworker support is a more proximal and salient form of support because employee–coworker relations represent the immediate social context of daily work and thus exert a powerful influence on employees’ experiences (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). In contrast, organizational support derives from a more abstract and distal entity (i.e., the organization), lessening the role of this type of support in employees’ daily experiences as compared to more proximal coworker support (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007). From the perspective of trait activation theory, the situational strength created by more distal organizational support should be weaker than the situational strength created by coworker support which is more proximal. This suggests the possibility that situations involving high organizational support may not be sufficiently strong to override the expression of employees’ traits (in this case, organizational concern motives).

A second reason why the motive by situation interaction may differ for voice vs. helping is due to the greater riskiness of voice. As mentioned earlier, although both voice and helping aim to improve organizational functioning, voice does so by challenging the status quo and pushing for change, which often sparks disagreement and resistance from others (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The threshold for engaging in voice behavior is therefore higher than the threshold for less risky helping behavior (Parker et al., 2010; Van Dyne et al., 2008). Given the risky nature of voice (Detert & Burris, 2007), the relatively weaker situation created by organizational support (as opposed to coworker support) may not by itself be sufficient to overcome employees’ fears that others may react negatively to their ideas (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). These fears

stem from, among other things, pressures to conform (Kiesler & Kiesler, 1969), to keep silent (Morrison & Milliken, 2000), and to avoid upsetting powerful players who benefit from the status quo (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Although organization support may not be sufficient for overcoming these fears, it may still be necessary for the expression of voice-relevant traits. That is, employees with strong organizational concern motives should be more likely to act on those motives when they perceive their organizational cares about their well-being and provides a sense of psychological safety. From the perspective of trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), high levels of organizational support function as a facilitator that stimulates the expression of trait-relevant behaviors. These contrasting predictions for helping and voice are consistent with Van Dyne et al.'s (2008) finding that the form of person by support interactions differs when predicting helping OCB (i.e., person-based effects are stronger when support is low) compared to voice OCB (i.e., person-based effects are stronger when support is high). Thus, we predicted:

Hypothesis 4. *Organizational support will moderate the relationship between organizational concern motives and voice, such that the relationship will be stronger when organizational support is high (vs. low).*

Mediating effect of OCB role cognitions on motive–OCB relations

According to trait activation theory, the relationship between distal traits and trait relevant behavior depends on the situation, as reflected in Hypotheses 2–4. Distal traits, however, typically do not have direct relationships with behavior; instead, these relations are mediated by how people view their role in specific situations (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Kanfer, 1990; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Lannaj et al., 2012). Situated identity theory (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980) suggests that the content of people's ideal selves – which includes distal traits, motives, and values – shapes the role responsibilities that they take on in a given situation. These conceptualizations of role responsibilities reflect the situated self (Stryker, 1987). For example, employees with prosocial values motives emphasize helping others (their *ideal self*), and this increases the likelihood that they will view helping as a personal obligation in specific social roles (their *situated self*), regardless of whether helping is a formal part of the role (Grant, 2007, 2008). Having strong prosocial values motives causes people to broaden their definition of “my job” such that helping behaviors become part of this situated role (Stryker, 1980; Swann et al., 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus, self-defining values and motives exert a top-down influence on how people construe their roles and responsibilities in specific situations (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Lord & Brown, 2004).

Applying these situated self arguments to motives and OCB role cognitions, suggests that motives are distal antecedents of behavior because they reflect general dispositions to engage in OCB across situations (Penner et al., 1997; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Role cognitions, however, are more proximal antecedents of OCB because they reflect personal beliefs about role responsibilities in a specific context (McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 2008). Motives, as diffuse dispositional traits, influence behavior because they influence situated cognitions about responsibilities in a specific role. In our study, we examined helping and voice role cognitions as situated cognitions, which reflect employees' sense of personal responsibility to engage in helping and voice OCBs, respectively, as part of the work role (Van Dyne et al., 2008). As indicated earlier, this notion is also supported by distal-proximal theories of personality and motivation, which propose that distal individual differences exert indirect effects on behavior via more proximal, situated cognitions (Barrick & Mount, 2005).

According to situated identity theory (e.g., Stryker, 1980) and distal-proximal theories of motivation (e.g., Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997), role cognitions are felt obligations that derive primarily from the values and motives that comprise people's self-concepts (as opposed to organizationally-defined obligations communicated by supervisors). Consistent with this idea, preliminary evidence shows that situated cognitions (e.g., role breadth) mediate relations of distal traits (e.g., prosocial personality) with extra-role behavior (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Thus, we predicted that OCB role cognitions would function as mediating mechanisms which translate distal motives into helping and voice OCB.

Hypothesis 5. *Role cognitions will mediate the relations of motives with OCB, such that (a) helping role cognitions will mediate the relation of prosocial values motives with helping OCB, (b) helping role cognitions will mediate the relation of impression management motives with helping OCB, and (c) voice role cognitions will mediate the relation of organizational concern motives with voice OCB.*

Thus far, we have proposed that the relations of distal OCB motives with trait-consistent behaviors are bounded by situational cues (Hypotheses 2–4) and mediated by situated role cognitions (Hypothesis 5). Our final hypothesis integrates these ideas into a single moderated mediation model, in which motive by support interactions relate to OCB via the mediating effect of role cognitions. Social support, whether it comes from coworkers or the organization, functions as a first stage moderator that alters the relation of motives with OCB role cognitions, which in turn predict OCB. This view is consistent with trait activation theory, which proposes that situational cues moderate the expression of distal traits. An alternative to our hypotheses is that social support might function as a second stage moderator that impacts the relations of role cognitions with OCB. Although the idea that social support interacts with motives is consistent with existing theory (e.g., Schwartz, 2010), Van Dyne et al. (2008) found that social support from the supervisor interacted with role cognitions to predict OCB, suggesting the possibility of second stage moderation (motives were not examined in their study). Thus, we tested for both first stage and second stage moderation to provide a more complete test of possible interactive effects and to compare alternative explanations. By proposing and testing moderated mediation that integrates OCB motives, social support, and role cognitions, we answer the call of Penner and Orom (2010) for research that sheds light on the joint effects of *why* (i.e., mediating effects of role cognitions) and *when* (i.e., moderating effects of social support) motives predict OCB. Thus, for our last hypothesis, we predicted:

Hypothesis 6. *Social support will moderate the strength of the mediated relations between motives and OCB via role cognitions, such that (a) prosocial values motives will have stronger relations with helping via helping role cognitions when coworker support is low (vs. high), (b) impression management motives will have stronger relations with helping via helping role cognitions when coworker support is low (vs. high), and (c) organizational concern motives will have stronger relations with voice via voice role cognitions when organizational support is high (vs. low).*

Study 1: Method

Participants and procedure

We collected field data from 247 engineers and their supervisors working for a division of a Fortune 500 oil refinery in India (78% response rate). The employee sample was 85% male, average age was 33 years (range: 21–47), average job tenure was 6.6 years, and 74% held at least a Bachelor's degree. Employees completed

surveys in group meetings at company facilities. Participants could withdraw at any time and were assured of response confidentiality. Employee questionnaires included measures of OCB motives, support, and the control variables. Supervisors provided data on employee helping and voice at the same time in a separate room.

Measures

Motives

We assessed *prosocial values motives*, *impression management motives*, and *organizational concern motives* using Rioux and Penner's (2001) scale. Participants were first presented with definitions and examples of OCBs (e.g., helping: "I volunteer to do things that help coworkers with their work;" voice: "I speak up and encourage others to get involved in issues that affect the organization") and were instructed to think of instances when they exhibited those behaviors. Participants then rated the extent to which their behavior was due to *prosocial values motives* (10 items; e.g., "I engage in the above behaviors because I feel it is important to help those in need;" $\alpha = .76$), *impression management motives* (10 items; e.g., "I engage in the above behaviors to avoid looking bad in front of others;" $\alpha = .78$), and *organization concern motives* (10 items; e.g., "I engage in the above behaviors because I care what happens to the company;" $\alpha = .78$).

Support

We assessed *coworker support* with a 5-item scale developed by Seers (1989; e.g., "Other group members understand my problems;" $\alpha = .85$). *Organizational support* was measured with Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch's (1997) 8-item scale (e.g., "My organization really cares about my well-being;" $\alpha = .90$).

OCB

Supervisors ($n = 43$) rated employee *helping* and *voice* (average ratings per supervisor = 5.7, min = 3, max = 10) using Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 7-item scales. Consistent with Van Dyne et al. (2008) and Whiting, Podsakoff, and Pierce (2008), items specified coworkers as the target of helping (e.g., "This particular employee helps coworkers in the group with their work responsibilities;" $\alpha = .93$) and organizations as the target of voice (e.g., "This particular employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this organization;" $\alpha = .92$). Unless stated otherwise, participants responded to these and all other items using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = "Strongly disagree" to 7 = "Strongly agree").

Control variables

We controlled for gender (0 = female, 1 = male), organizational tenure (in years), and job satisfaction because each relates to OCB (Organ, 1988; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). We measured *job satisfaction* using Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) 6-item scale (e.g., "I feel fairly satisfied with my present job;" $\alpha = .91$). We included all three OCB motives to rule out possible confounding effects of the non-focal motives. For example, we controlled for impression management and organizational concern when examining relations of prosocial values motives with helping OCB.

Analytical strategy

We conceptualized all variables and hypotheses at the individual level of analysis. Supervisors, however, provided OCB data for multiple employees. This raises questions about independence and possible clustering effects due to a common supervisor (Bliese, 2000; Bliese & Hanges, 2004). One-way analysis of variance demonstrated no significant between-cluster differences in helping ($F = 1.24, p > .10$) or voice ($F = 1.03, p > .10$), and ICC1/ICC2 scores

for helping (.04/.19 and voice (.00/.03) support analysis at the individual level (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Additionally, only 3% of the total variance in helping and 2% of total variance in voice were between-clusters, with no significant between-cluster variances. Thus, given the absence of clustering effects due to a common supervisor, we report hierarchical regression results (similar results were obtained using random coefficient modeling).

Study 1: Results and discussion

Preliminary analyses

We assessed discriminant validity with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The hypothesized 7-factor model (prosocial values motives, impression management motives, organizational concern motives, coworker support, organizational support, helping, and voice) had good fit: $\chi^2 = 202.92, df = 162$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .99, Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = .98, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .03, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .05, and all factor loadings were significant. We compared the fit of this 7-factor model to a series of theoretically plausible alternate models. Comparison with a 4-factor model (OCB motives, social support, helping, and voice) produced significantly worse fit to the data ($\Delta\chi^2 = 680.44, \Delta df = 15, p < .01$). Comparison with a 3-factor model (OCB motives, social support, and OCB) also demonstrated significantly worse fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1257.45, \Delta df = 18, p < .01$) as did comparisons with a 2-factor model (self vs. supervisor ratings: $\Delta\chi^2 = 1467.25, \Delta df = 20, p < .01$) and a 1-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1574.47, \Delta df = 21, p < .01$).

Tests of the hypotheses

The upper half of Table 1 reports descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for Study 1. We tested H1 predictions for supervisor-rated OCB using hierarchical regression with controls in step 1, centered main effects for the three motives in step 2, and the centered main effect for the social support in step 3. We tested H3 and H4 by adding focal interaction terms in step 4. We illustrate significant interactions by plotting simple slopes at +1 SD and –1 SD (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

Our results supported H1a, H1b, and H1c. As shown in step 2 of Table 2, prosocial values motives ($\beta = .22, p < .01$) and impression management motives ($\beta = .14, p < .05$) were each positively related to helping, even after controlling for gender, tenure, job satisfaction, and the non-focal motive. Likewise, step 2 of Table 3 shows organizational concern motives were positively related to voice ($\beta = .32, p < .01$).

Step 4 of Tables 2 and 3 reports the motive by support interactions for helping and voice, respectively. The prosocial values motives by coworker support interaction (see Fig. 1) was significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.15, p < .01$). Consistent with H2, simple slope analysis shows a positive relationship between prosocial values motives and helping when coworker support is low ($\beta = .55, p < .01$), but not when coworker support is high ($\beta = .08, ns$). The impression management motives by coworker support interaction (see Fig. 2) was also significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.19, p < .01$). Consistent with H3, simple slope analysis revealed a positive relation of impression management motives with helping when coworker support is low ($\beta = .57, p < p < .01$), but not when support is high ($\beta = -.03, ns$). Lastly, the organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction (see Fig. 3) was significantly related to voice ($\beta = .28, p < .01$). Consistent with H4, simple slope analysis shows a positive relationship between organizational concern motives and voice when organizational support

is high ($\beta = .52, p < .01$), but not when organizational support is low ($\beta = -.02, ns$).²

To bolster the strength of these findings, we ran supplementary analyses to test non-hypothesized interactions.³ None of these interactions emerged as significant: the prosocial values motives by organizational support interaction did not relate to helping ($\beta = -.02, ns$), the impression management motives by organizational support interaction did not relate to helping ($\beta = -.11, ns$), and the organizational concern motives by coworker support interaction did not relate to voice ($\beta = -.09, ns$). Taken together, these findings extend the research of Van Dyne et al. (2008) by showing that the form of OCB motive by coworker support interactions (i.e., effects are stronger when support is low) differs from the form of OCB motive by organizational support interactions (i.e., effects are stronger when support is high). Importantly, these analyses include controls for the non-focal OCB motives as well as job satisfaction, key predictors of OCB. The extent to which employees receive support at work therefore functions as a boundary condition that qualifies motive–OCB relations and sheds light on when motives predict OCB. To address one reason why motives predict OCB, we examined an expanded set of hypotheses in Study 2 that considers OCB role cognitions as a mediator.

² In addition to testing the motive by support interactions in separate models, we also tested all three interactions simultaneously in a single model. Because the interactions with prosocial values motives and impression management motives shared the same main effect (i.e., coworker support), multicollinearity exists among these two interactions. In general, there are two ways to detect multicollinearity (Gordon, 1968; Schroeder, 1990). First, large bivariate correlations ($>.70$) between variables indicate a multicollinearity problem. Second, the Variable Inflation Factors (VIFs) can be used to diagnose whether multicollinearity is a concern. If VIF exceeds 10, then the corresponding variable should be removed from the analysis (O'Brien, 2007). In Study 1, the correlation between the prosocial values motives by coworker support interaction and the impression management motives by coworker support interaction was .74 and VIF was 47.38, which indicates problematic multicollinearity when both interactions are modeled simultaneously. In this case, coefficients have to be substantially large in order to reach statistical significance (Cohen et al., 2003), which places a prohibitive constraint on detecting interactions in non-experimental samples (McClelland & Judd, 1993). When all three interactions were modeled simultaneously in Study 1, the impression management motives by coworker support interaction remained a significant predictor of helping ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$) and, consistent with H4, there was a positive relation between impression management motives and helping when coworker support was low ($\beta = .49, p < .01$) but not when support was high ($\beta = .03, ns$). The organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction also remained a significant predictor of voice ($\beta = .25, p < .01$). Consistent with H5, there is a positive relationship between organizational concern motives and voice when organizational support was high ($\beta = .57, p < .01$), but not when support was low ($\beta = .06, ns$). However, the prosocial values motives by coworker support interaction was no longer significant ($\beta = -.10, ns$) in predicting helping. The high multicollinearity between this interaction and the impression management motives interaction is likely responsible for this non-significant result.

³ In addition to the interactions described in the results section, we also tested all other potential combinations of interactions in predicting helping and voice. The organizational concern motives by coworker support interaction was significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$). There was a positive relationship between organizational concern motives and helping when coworker support was high ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), but a negative relationship between organizational concern motives and helping when coworker support was low ($\beta = -.25, p < .01$). The organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction was significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$). There was a negative relationship between organizational concern motives and helping when organizational support was high ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$), but no relationship between organizational concern motives and helping when coworker support was low ($\beta = .09, ns$). For voice, the prosocial values motives by coworker support and the prosocial values motives by organizational support interaction were not significant ($\beta = -.02, ns; \beta = .08, ns$). The impression management motives by organizational support interaction was significant in predicting voice ($\beta = .14, p < .05$). There was a positive relationship between impression management motives and voice when organizational support was high ($\beta = .37, p < .01$), but not when it was low ($\beta = .03, ns$). However, the impression management motives by organizational support interaction was not significant in predicting voice ($\beta = .08, ns$).

Study 2: Method

Participants and procedure

We tested hypotheses with field data from 281 sales employees and their supervisors who worked for a large multinational conglomerate headquartered in Malaysia (72% response rate). The employee sample was 57% male ($n = 159$), average age was 35 years (range: 22–47), average tenure was 6.5 years, and 74% held at least a Bachelor's degree. Employees provided data on motives, support, and role cognitions; and supervisors provided data on employee OCB.

Measures

Motives and support

We measured prosocial values motives ($\alpha = .92$), impression management motives ($\alpha = .89$), organizational concern motives ($\alpha = .92$), coworker support ($\alpha = .89$), and organizational support ($\alpha = .89$) using the same measures as in Study 1.

Role cognitions

We measured *helping role cognitions* and *voice role cognitions* similar to prior research (Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2008; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Employees rated the extent to which they viewed helping and voice as part of their role responsibilities using the same helping items (e.g., "I perceive helping coworkers in the group with their work responsibilities as part of my job;" $\alpha = .90$) and voice items (e.g., "I perceive making recommendations concerning issues that affect this organization as part of my job;" $\alpha = .91$) that supervisors completed (1 = "Strongly disagree" to 7 = "Strongly agree"). Higher scores reflect employees' felt obligation to perform helping and voice behaviors at work.

OCB

Supervisors ($n = 47$) rated *helping* ($\alpha = .88$) and *voice* ($\alpha = .92$) using the same measures as in Study 1 (average ratings per supervisor = 5.98, min = 5, max = 9).

Control variables

We controlled for employee gender and tenure (in years). As in Study 1, we included all three OCB motives in each analysis to rule out possible confounding effects of the non-focal motives, but we were unable to collect data on job satisfaction in Study 2.

Analytical strategy

As before, we examined whether there were clustering effects due to a common supervisor for multiple employees. One-way analysis of variance demonstrated no significant between-cluster differences in helping ($F = .56, p > .10$) or voice ($F = .45, p > .10$) and ICC1/ICC2 scores for helping and voice (less than .01) support individual level analyses. Null model analysis revealed that .01% and .10% of the total variance in helping and voice, respectively, were between-clusters, with no significant between-cluster variances. Thus, we report tests of H1–H4 using hierarchical regression (random coefficient modeling revealed the same pattern of results).

We tested mediation (H5) using Edwards and Lambert's (2007) unconditional indirect effects approach and we tested H6a by examining indirect effects of prosocial values motives on helping via helping role cognitions at different levels of coworker support using bootstrapping-based path analysis. We used the same approach to test the conditional indirect effects of impression

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities.

Study 1 variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1. Gender ^a	.86	.35	–										
2. Organizational tenure	6.65	5.03	.13*	–									
3. Job satisfaction	4.00	1.80	–.09	–.06	(.91)								
4. Prosocial values motives	4.12	1.05	–.11	–.04	.15*	(.78)							
5. Organization concern motives	4.06	1.04	–.05	–.03	.50**	.24*	(.93)						
6. Impression management motives	4.03	1.06	–.04	–.07	.17**	.38**	.12	(.78)					
7. Coworker support	4.54	1.25	–.05	–.17**	.15*	.28**	.13*	.23**	(.89)				
8. Organizational support	4.47	1.47	–.15*	–.10	.26**	.33**	.28**	.29**	.08	(.90)			
9. Helping ^b	4.49	1.59	–.09	–.16*	.40**	.32**	.22**	.28**	.33**	.24**	(.93)		
10. Voice ^b	3.72	1.44	–.10	.02	.30**	.28**	.45**	.29**	.11	.56**	.18**	(.92)	
Study 2 variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender ^a	.57	.50	–										
2. Organizational tenure	6.50	4.26	.02	–									
3. Prosocial values motives	4.18	1.12	–.01	.02	(.92)								
4. Organization concern motives	4.49	1.04	–.07	.03	.49**	(.92)							
5. Impression management motives	4.53	.91	.01	.04	.56**	.39*	(.89)						
6. Coworker support	4.48	1.20	–.05	.11	.41**	.34**	.38**	(.89)					
7. Organizational support	4.37	1.06	–.04	–.05	.46**	.54**	.53**	.34**	(.89)				
8. Helping role cognitions	4.66	1.15	–.02	.02	.44**	.24**	.37**	.39**	.29**	(.90)			
9. Voice role cognitions	3.97	1.29	–.07	–.03	.35**	.37**	.16**	.03	.20**	.12	(.91)		
10. Helping ^b	4.51	1.16	–.07	.03	.33**	.24**	.30**	.29**	.18**	.50**	.09	(.88)	
11. Voice ^b	4.19	1.17	–.02	–.02	.31**	.34**	.23**	.02	.25**	.11	.53**	.15*	(.92)

Note: N = 247 (Study 1), N = 281 (Study 2); Cronbach's alphas are presented in parentheses along the diagonal.

^a Gender is coded female = 0 and male = 1.

^b Helping and Voice were rated by supervisors.

* p < .05.

** p < .01.

Table 2
Interactive Effects on Helping.

Predictors	Helping (Study 1)					Helping (Study 2)				
	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 3 (β)	Step 4 (β)	Step 4 (β)	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 3 (β)	Step 4 (β)	Step 4 (β)
Gender ^a	–.04	–.01	–.01	–.02	–.02	–.08	–.06	–.06	–.06	–.06
Organizational tenure	–.13*	–.12*	–.09	–.08	–.08	.03	.03	.01	.01	.01
Job satisfaction	.39**	.35**	.34**	.34**	.33**	–	–	–	–	–
Impression management motives (IM)		.14*	.11	.12	.18**		.15*	.13	.13	.15*
Organizational concern motives (OC)		–.03	–.03	–.05	–.04		.08	.05	.04	.03
Prosocial values motives (PV)		.22**	.18**	.21**	.27**		.20**	.16*	.13	.14
Coworker support (CS)			.19**	.19**	.18**			.15*	.15*	.16*
PV × CS				–.15**	–				–.17**	–
IM × CS				–	–.19**				–	–.13*
R ²	.18	.26	.30	.32	.33	.01	.14	.15	.18	.17
ΔR ²		.08	.03	.02	.03		.02	.01	.03	.02
F	17.98**	14.34**	14.30**	13.82**	14.41**	.90	8.55**	8.24**	8.64**	7.96**
ΔF		8.93**	10.61**	7.70**	11.00**		13.57**	5.92*	9.52**	5.48**

^a Gender is coded female = 0 and male = 1.

* p < .05.

** p < .01.

Table 3
Interactive effects on voice.

Predictors	Voice (Study 1)				Voice (Study 2)			
	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 3 (β)	Step 4 (β)	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 3 (β)	Step 4 (β)
Gender ^a	–.07	–.04	.01	.01	.01	.02	.03	.02
Organizational tenure	.05	–.01	.02	.03	–.07	–.04	–.04	–.03
Job satisfaction	.30**	.14*	.08	.07	–	–	–	–
Impression management motives (IM)		.21**	.11*	.12**		.04	.02	.04
Prosocial values motives (PV)		.10	.01	–.01		.14	.14	.14
Organizational concern motives (OC)		.32**	.52**	.27**		.22**	.20**	.24**
Organizational support (OS)			.24**	.56**			.07	.10
OC × OS				.28**				.19**
R ²	.10	.37	.59	.67	.01	.12	.12	.15
ΔR ²		.07	.22	.08		.03	.00	.03
F	8.87**	22.43**	46.63**	56.67**	.59	7.05**	5.98**	6.53**
ΔF		19.63**	121.36**	52.93**		11.31**	.68	8.70**

^a Gender is coded female = 0 and male = 1.

* p < .05.

** p < .01.

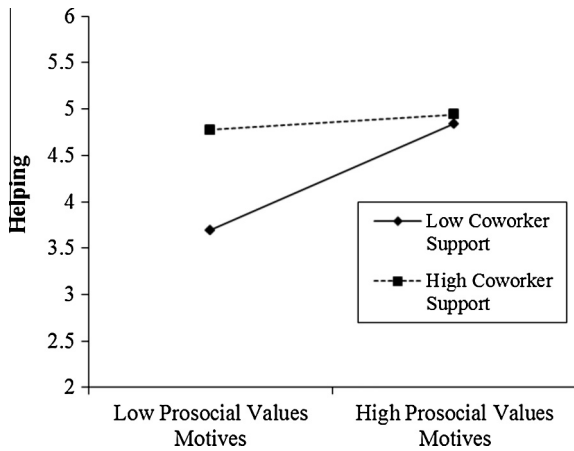


Fig. 1. Interactive effects of coworker support with prosocial values motives on helping (Study 1).

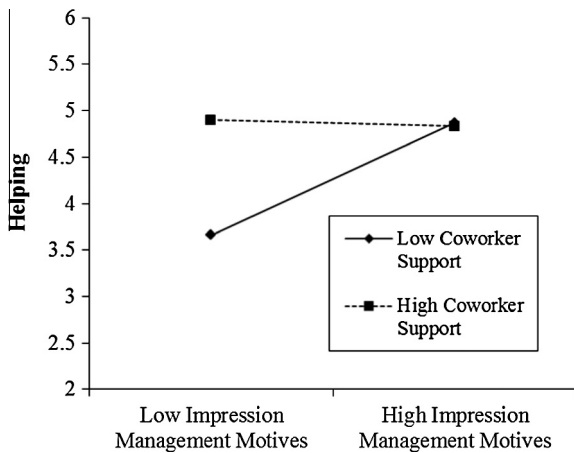


Fig. 2. Interactive effects of coworker support with impression management motives on helping (Study 1).

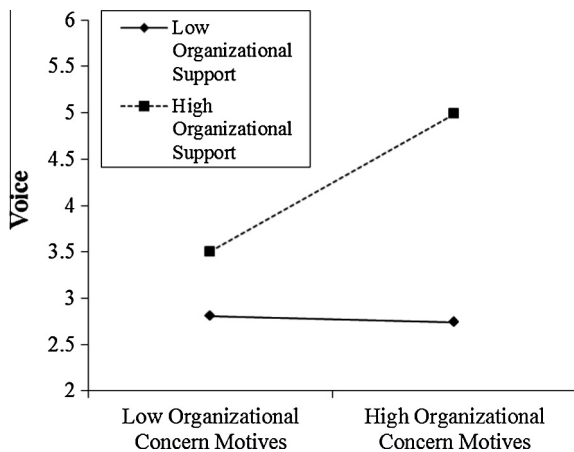


Fig. 3. Interactive effects of organizational support with organizational concern motives on voice (Study 1).

management motives on helping (H6b) and the conditional indirect effects of organizational concern motives on voice (H6c). We also assessed non-hypothesized second stage moderated media-

tion by examining the indirect effect of motives on OCB via role cognitions at different levels of social support.

Study 2: Results and discussion

Preliminary analyses

CFA demonstrated good fit for the hypothesized 9-factor model (prosocial values motives, impression management motives, organizational concern motives, coworker support, organizational support, helping role cognitions, voice role cognitions, helping, and voice): $\chi^2 = 378.67$, $df = 288$; CFI = .98, TLI = .98; RMSEA = .04; and SRMR = .03, and all factor loadings were significant. The 9-factor model had better fit than a 7-factor model (composites of helping role cognitions with helping, and of voice role cognitions with voice; $\Delta\chi^2 = 575.85$, $\Delta df = 15$, $p < .01$), a 4-factor model (motives, support, composites of helping role cognitions with helping, and of voice role cognitions with voice; $\Delta\chi^2 = 1794.17$, $\Delta df = 30$, $p < .01$), a 3-factor model (motives, social support, and role cognitions combined with OCB; $\Delta\chi^2 = 2496.65$, $\Delta df = 33$, $p < .01$), a 2-factor model (self vs. supervisor ratings; $\Delta\chi^2 = 2763.70$, $\Delta df = 35$, $p < .01$); and a 1-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3183.40$, $\Delta df = 36$, $p < .01$).

Test of the hypotheses

The bottom half of Table 1 reports descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for Study 2. Our results supported H1a, H1b, and H1c. As shown in column 2 of the right side of Tables 2 and 3, prosocial values motives ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$) and impression management motives ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) were each positively related to helping, and organizational concern motives was positively related to voice ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$), after controlling for demographics and the non-focal motives.

Step 4 of Tables 2 and 3 reports the motive by support interactions (H2, H3, and H4). The prosocial values motives by coworker support interaction (see Fig. 4) was significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$). Consistent with H2, simple slope analysis shows a positive relation between prosocial values motives and helping when coworker support is low ($\beta = .34$, $p < .01$), but not it is high ($\beta = -.05$, *ns*). Similarly, the impression management motives by coworker support interaction (see Fig. 5) was also significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$). Consistent with H3, simple slope analysis revealed a positive relation between impression management motives and helping when coworker support is low ($\beta = .38$, $p < .01$), but not when it is high ($\beta = -.03$, *ns*). Finally, the organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction (see Fig. 6) was significantly related to voice ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$). Consistent with H4, simple slope analysis shows a positive relation of organizational concern motives with voice when organizational support is high ($\beta = .49$, $p < .01$), but not when it is low ($\beta = .03$, *ns*).⁴

⁴ As we did in Study 1, we also tested all three interactions simultaneously in a single model. As before, multicollinearity was a problem when the prosocial values and impression management motives interactions were modeled together because the correlation between them was .85 and VIF was 53.66. When all three interactions were modeled simultaneously, the prosocial values motives by coworker support interaction remained a significant predictor of helping ($\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$). Consistent with H3, there was a positive relationship between prosocial values motives and helping when coworker support was low ($\beta = .33$, $p < .01$), but not when support was high ($\beta = .01$, *ns*). The organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction remained a significant predictor of voice ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$), and, consistent with H5, there was a positive relationship between organizational concern motives and voice when organizational support was high ($\beta = .51$, $p < .01$), but not when support was low ($\beta = .10$, *ns*). The impression management motives by coworker support interaction, however, was no longer a significant predictor of helping ($\beta = -.02$, *ns*). The high multicollinearity between this interaction and the prosocial values motives interaction is likely responsible for this non-significant result.

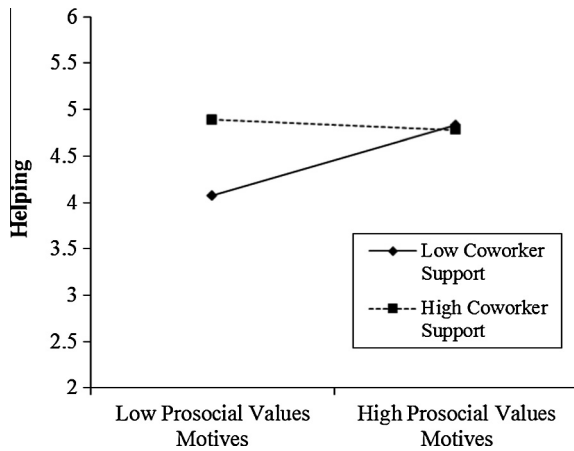


Fig. 4. Interactive effects of coworker support with prosocial values motives on helping (Study 2).

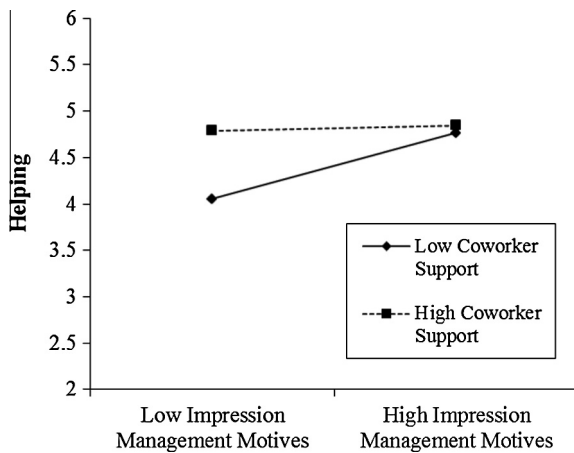


Fig. 5. Interactive effects of coworker support with impression management motives on helping (Study 2).

As in Study 1, we tested non-hypothesized interactions; none were significant.⁵ The prosocial values motives by organizational support interaction did not predict helping ($\beta = -.10$, *ns*), the impression management motives by organizational support interaction did not predict helping ($\beta = .01$, *ns*), and the organizational concern motives by coworker support interaction did not predict voice ($\beta = .03$, *ns*).

Next, we used bootstrapping to examine whether these motive–OCB relations were mediated by role cognitions (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; see Table 4). Our results demonstrate that helping role cognitions mediated the relationship between prosocial values motives and helping. Consistent with H5a, prosocial values motives had a significant unconditional indirect effect on helping via

⁵ As in Study1, we also tested all other potential combinations of interactions in predicting helping and voice in addition to the interactions described in the results. The organizational concern motives by coworker support interaction was significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$). There was a positive relationship between organizational concern motives and helping when coworker support was high ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$), but not when coworker support was low ($\beta = -.13$, *ns*). The organizational concern motives by organizational support interaction was not significant in predicting helping ($\beta = -.09$, *ns*). For voice, the prosocial values motives by coworker support and the prosocial values motives by organizational support interactions were not significant ($\beta = .09$, *ns*; $\beta = -.03$, *ns*). The impression management motives by organizational support interaction was significant in predicting voice ($\beta = -.09$, *ns*). In addition, the impression management motives by organizational support interaction was not significant in predicting voice ($\beta = .10$, *ns*).

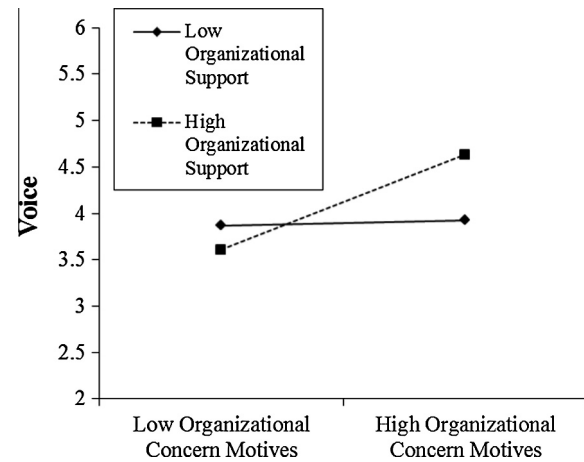


Fig. 6. Interactive effects of organizational support with organizational concern motives on voice (Study 2).

helping role cognitions ($.20$; $p < .01$). Our results also demonstrate that helping role cognitions mediated the relationship between impression management motives and helping. Consistent with H5b, impression management motives had a significant unconditional indirect effect on helping via helping role cognitions ($.49$; $p < .01$). Lastly, voice role cognitions mediated the relationship between organizational concern motives and voice. Consistent with H5c, organizational concern motives had a significant unconditional indirect effect on voice via voice role cognitions ($.20$; $p < .01$).

To rule out the possibility that motives might mediate the relations of role cognitions with OCB, we also tested the non-hypothesized mediated relations. Prosocial values motives did not mediate the relation of helping role cognitions with helping because prosocial values motives had a non-significant unconditional indirect effect on helping via helping role cognitions ($-.03$; *ns*). Impression management motives did not mediate the relation of helping role cognitions with helping because impression management motives had a non-significant unconditional indirect effect on helping via helping role cognitions ($-.04$; *ns*). Finally, organizational concern motives did not mediate the relation of voice role cognitions with voice because organizational concern motives had a non-significant unconditional indirect effect on helping via helping role cognitions ($-.13$; *ns*). These results are consistent with our reasoning that situation-specific role cognitions are more proximal to OCB than dispositional traits such as motives that apply across situations.

Our final set of analyses tested the moderated mediation effects proposed by H6. Table 4 summarizes the results for first-stage moderated mediation via 1000 data draws using linear regression with maximum likelihood estimates (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). In support of H6a, which focused on prosocial values motives, the first stage indirect effect differed significantly as a function of coworker support ($p < .01$) and this indirect effect was stronger when coworker support was low ($.63$; $p < .01$; -1 SD) vs. high ($-.09$; $p > .05$; $+1$ SD). In line with H6b, which focused on impression management motives, the first stage indirect effect differed significantly as a function of coworker support ($p < .01$) and this indirect effect was stronger when coworker support was low ($.76$; $p < .01$; -1 SD) vs. high ($-.07$; $p > .05$; $+1$ SD). As predicted by H6c, which focused on organizational concern, the first stage indirect effect differed significantly as a function of organizational support ($p < .05$) and this indirect effect was stronger when organizational support was high (1.06 ; $p < .01$; $+1$ SD) vs. low ($.10$; $p > .05$; -1 SD).

In addition to testing the hypothesized first stage moderated mediation, we also tested alternative models in which support functioned as a second stage moderator (i.e., between role

Table 4
Indirect effects of motives and social support on helping and voice via role cognitions.

		Mean bootstrapped statistics	
		95% CI	Significance
Indirect effects of prosocial values motives on helping			
Unconditional indirect effect	.20	[.10, .29]	$p < .01$
Indirect effect at low coworker support (–1 SD)	.63	[.40, .72]	$p < .01$
Indirect effect at high coworker support (+1 SD)	–.09	[–.42, .02]	<i>ns</i>
Difference in indirect effects at high vs. low coworker support	–.72	[–1.04, –.47]	$p < .01$
Indirect effects of impression management motives on helping			
Unconditional indirect effect	.49	[.39, .60]	$p < .01$
Indirect effect at low coworker support (–1 SD)	.76	[.57, .94]	$p < .01$
Indirect effect at high coworker support (+1 SD)	–.07	[–.25, .12]	<i>ns</i>
Difference in indirect effects at high vs. low coworker support	–.82	[–1.05, –.60]	$p < .01$
Indirect effects of organizational concern motives on voice			
Unconditional indirect effect	.20	[.10, .30]	$p < .01$
Indirect effect at low organizational support (–1 SD)	.10	[–.12, .32]	<i>ns</i>
Indirect effect at high organizational support (+1 SD)	1.06	[.85, 1.29]	$p < .01$
Difference in indirect effects at high vs. low organizational support	.96	[.68, 1.3]	$p < .01$

cognitions and OCB). However, the second stage indirect effect did not differ significantly as a function of coworker support in the model with prosocial values motives, helping role cognitions, and helping (.33; $p > .05$) nor in the model with impression management motives, helping role cognitions, and helping (.36; $p > .05$). Similarly, the second stage indirect effect of organizational concern motives on voice via voice role cognitions did not differ as a function of organizational support (.44, $p > .05$). These results verify that the moderating effects of support target the first stage relationship between motives and role cognitions.

General discussion

Previous research on OCB motives has neglected a critical question: Why do motives relate to OCB? According to situated identity theory (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980), answering this question requires merging the OCB motives and role cognitions literatures because distal self-concept constructs like dispositional motives constrain the personal obligations that people define for themselves in specific roles (e.g., employees in their work roles). Our prediction that OCB motives would relate to OCB indirectly via OCB role cognitions was supported. Importantly, our results do not support the alternative: OCB motives did not mediate relations of OCB role cognitions with OCB.

The relations of OCB motives with OCB, however, are more complex. Whether or not OCB motives translate into specific role cognitions depends on situational cues (Tett & Burnett, 2003), and the effect of these cues differs depending on the type of OCB. We examined helping and voice, which reflect affiliative and challenging citizenship behavior, respectively (Van Dyne et al., 1995). There is little risk in exhibiting helping OCB because such behavior is generally valued. Consistent with trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), prosocial values and impression management motives predicted helping role cognitions in weak situations where coworker support was low and external incentives and pressures were minimal. In contrast, voice OCB is risky behavior because challenging the status quo elicits resistance from others (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Accordingly, motives alone were not sufficient to trigger voice role cognitions (Van Dyne et al., 2008). Instead, situation specific cues such as provided by organizational support which suggest that it is psychologically safe to express change-oriented ideas (Parker et al., 2010) activated more distal traits such as organization support motives and facilitated voice role cognitions.

Theoretical implications

Our findings offer important theoretical implications for the OCB literature. First, we identified coworker and organizational support as important situation-specific boundary conditions that qualify relations of motives with OCB. Consistent with trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), these findings confirm that motives do not operate independently from the context. Thus, going beyond prior research, our approach highlights the importance of accounting for contextual factors and contextual influences when considering links between motives and citizenship. Importantly, this attention to boundary conditions that qualify the relationships between motives and OCB helps to resolve the controversy about impression management motives and OCB. Our analyses provide convergent support across two samples that the impression management motives–helping OCB relationship is contingent on coworker support, such that impression management motives are more strongly related to OCB when coworker support is low than high. Thus, our results help to clarify prior mixed findings for impression management motives–OCB relationships (Finkelstein, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Yun et al., 2007).

Perhaps more interesting is our finding that social support has unique effects on motive–OCB relations depending on the type of OCB in question. This provides two insights. First, whether or not social support exhibited a moderating effect depended on the correspondence between the source of support and the target of OCB motives. Relations of interpersonally-oriented motives (i.e., prosocial values and impression management motives) with helping OCB were moderated by interpersonal support (i.e., support from coworkers) but not by support from the organization. Similarly, organizational support (but not interpersonal support) moderated the relation between organizational concern motives and voice directed at the organization. This finding shows that the social context matters (dyadic and interpersonal vs. organizational) and the target of OCB motives is also important. This idea is consistent with dual concern theory (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986), which postulates that motives translate into behavior in specific contexts (e.g., strong interpersonal motives are expressed in interpersonal contexts).

Second, our results suggest that coworker support represents a psychologically stronger situational factor than organizational support because coworkers are more proximal and visible to employees than the organization. Accordingly, while high coworker support can serve as a replacement for motives and trigger helping,

organizational support facilitates organizational concern motives, but is not a replacement on its own. Thus, coworker support and organizational support vary in their capacity to abet or constrain trait-relevant behavior. These findings extend our understanding of how contextual factors differentially change relationships between distal dispositional factors and OCB. To further our knowledge of contextual boundary conditions that qualify motives–OCB relations, future research should consider other sources of social support (e.g., supervisors and customers). While some evidence indicates that supervisor support (as captured by leader-member exchange) is one such boundary condition (Van Dyne et al., 2008), other sources of support have not yet been investigated. For example, it would be useful to know whether support from outside the workplace (e.g., family members) can serve as cues that moderate the expression of OCB motives. Perhaps employees are more willing to engage in challenging OCB like voice and whistleblowing if they perceive high levels of support from external sources in addition to (or in place of) support from within the organization. In addition to perceived support, other resources (e.g., trust, psychological ownership, and organizational identification) may also function as boundary conditions to motive–OCB relations. For example, some of these resources may help explain why social support is an important situational cue (e.g., because social support elicits greater trust in recipients; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

A third implication concerns the resources needed for engaging in different types of OCB. As our findings reveal, helping is less influenced by social support when employees have strong prosocial values motives, but social support is required for strong organizational concern motives to translate into voice behavior. Although we posit that more resources – both motivational and support-based – are needed in the case of change-oriented OCB like voice, other researchers have argued that a lack of resources is needed to motivate change-oriented behavior (Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker et al., 2010). This apparent paradox can be resolved, however, by distinguishing between proactive goal generation and goal striving. That is, a perceived lack of resources may serve as an impetus for identifying the need for change and for generating goals to bring about change (e.g., role overload may motivate employees to ask for modifications to work processes; e.g., Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). In contrast, however, initiating change-oriented goal striving behaviors such as engaging in voice behavior requires adequate resources (Aspinwall, 2005; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), especially when change targets other entities such as the organization (Parker et al., 2010). Thus, while inadequate resources may trigger a desire for change, the impetus to act on organizational concern motives and engage in change-oriented behavior requires the perception of sufficient resources such as organization support. This highlights the value of future research that considers differential implications of social support for goal generation and goal striving.

In line with situated identity theory (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010; Stryker, 1980), our results supported the prediction that situated role cognitions would mediate relations of motives with OCB. Although previous research has focused on direct relations, the idea of direct effects is inconsistent with distal–proximal theories of motivation (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 2005; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Lanaj et al., 2012). Demonstrating that OCB role cognitions function as a mediating mechanism that links more distal motives with OCB provides insights into one process that explains how OCB motives influence OCB behaviors. In addition, this finding complements prior research that delineates ways that helping others fulfills people's functional needs (Clary & Snyder, 1991) and suggests the value of future research on functional motives and role cognitions. For example, our findings for role cognitions suggest new directions for the volunteer literature because role cognitions

may serve as mechanisms that connect volunteer motives with volunteer behaviors.

In examining the indirect effects of motives on OCB through role cognitions, our study contributes to the role cognition literature in organizational behavior because we argue and demonstrate that individual differences such as motives help to explain why role cognitions differ across people even when formal roles are similarly defined. Previous research on role cognitions has demonstrated that role cognitions can differ because employees pay attention to different social and environmental cues (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Going beyond this past research, our results for motives extend the understanding of predictors of role cognitions. Although Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) noted that job crafting arises from individual needs, little research examines the possibility that individual differences shape role cognitions in specific contexts. Thus, our research shows the value of including employee motives in addition to social and environment cues as predictors of role cognitions. This provides a new platform for thinking about role cognitions at work.

Finally, our research deepens knowledge about OCB motives in two ways. First, our findings expand the understanding of underlying reasons why employees engage in OCB. Even though Rioux and Penner identified three OCB motives in 2001, to the best of our knowledge, our research is the first since their research that includes all three OCB motives as predictors of OCB. Our results demonstrate that all three motives contribute uniquely to prediction of OCB. This is important because it shows that both other-serving and self-serving motives predict citizenship behavior (Bolino et al., 2004; Grant & Mayer, 2009). For example, prosocial values motives, which tend to be other-oriented, and impression management motives, which tend to be self-oriented, both predicted helping. This shows that helping is driven by multiple motives and suggests the value of more complex models that account for both motivational processes. It also reinforces the value of avoiding debates about whether self-serving or other-serving motives predict OCB.

Second, we classified the three OCB motives into two broad categories and contrasted interpersonally-directed motives (prosocial values and impression management) with organizationally-directed motives (organizational concern). Our results confirm the value of this approach because prosocial values motives (i.e., a concern for other's well-being and needs) and impression management motives (i.e., a concern for making favorable impressions on others) both reference other individuals and both predicted helping targeted at coworkers. In contrast, organizational concern motives reference a more abstract entity – the organization and thus, predicted voice aimed at improving organizational policies and procedures. In addition, no results demonstrated cross-over relations (e.g., organizational concern motives did not predict helping). This suggests the value of future research that examines similarities and differences among the motives. Given the higher threshold for engaging in voice behavior, it would be useful to identify situations where motives that reference other people facilitate voice behavior. For example, other-referenced motives focusing on the supervisor may contribute to voice behavior because supervisors are often viewed as the face of the organization (Gerstner & Day, 1997) and a concern for the supervisor may spill over and elicit behaviors that improve overall organizational functioning. Additionally, when prosocial values motives and organizational concern motives are aligned, this may increase more challenging forms of OCB despite the inherent risks of suggesting changes.

Practical implications

In addition to theoretical implications, our findings have important practical implications. The interaction results suggest that

managers can cultivate helping by emphasizing either interpersonally-oriented motives (e.g., selecting or rewarding employees based on high prosocial values motives) or by emphasizing high-quality coworker support (e.g., encouraging employees to treat their peers with respect and dignity). As our results indicate, helping is likely if either interpersonal motives or coworker support is high. This finding is useful because it indicates that managers can enhance helping within their work group by taking actions that increase perceived coworker support (e.g., emphasizing a procedurally fair climate), which should be effective even when employees do not have the dispositional motive to help. However, managers who want to enhance employee voice behavior face more challenges because motives or support alone is not sufficient to overcome the risks of speaking up with suggestions for change. Thus, encouraging voice behavior requires that managers emphasize organizationally-oriented motives (e.g., employees who have personal inclinations to engage in voice) and also create a supportive organizational context that minimizes risks of discretionary, change-oriented behavior. Creating a supportive organizational context could include emphasizing learning (rather than performance) goals, encouraging participation and diverse viewpoints, and reducing role conflict (Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008), which should not only increase voice but should have other beneficial effects as well (e.g., increased organizational commitment and task performance; see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The mediation results provide another set of practical implications. In line with situated identity theory (Stryker, 1980), our results demonstrate that distal aspects of the self-concept such as motives (and their interactions with situational characteristics such as support) are related to OCB in specific contexts via situated cognitions. Thus, given that situated cognitions are more proximal to behavior than more distal dispositional characteristics, it may be possible to elicit helping and voice by priming situated identities in employees. There is evidence that work-specific identities can be primed in employees (Johnson, Selenta, & Lord, 2006) and that these situated identities predict OCB (Johnson & Saboe, 2011). For example, leader language and behavior are potent primes of employees' work-related identities (Lord & Brown, 2004) and put managers in an advantageous position for encouraging subordinate helping and voice behaviors. It may be possible, then, to supersede the effects of employee motives and perceived support on OCB by priming situated identities directly. This would be especially helpful in the case of voice because it would provide another facilitating mechanism and intervention tool for managers that goes beyond organizational concern motives and organizational support.

Limitations

Although the research reported in this paper has theoretical and design strengths – a moderated mediation model that integrates the OCB motive and role cognition literatures and consistent results across two field samples using multiple sources of data – it is important to acknowledge limitations. First, cross-sectional designs do not allow inferences about causality. Although prior theory positions motives as predictors of behavior (Rioux & Penner, 2001; Schwartz, 2010), it is possible that performing high levels of OCB may activate strong OCB motives. Thus, longitudinal research or laboratory experiments are needed to tease apart the causal direction of these relations. For example, participants could be randomly assigned to OCB vs. control conditions where motives are assessed both before and after they perform a specific task requiring citizenship behavior. This would provide insights into the effects of motives on OCB and vice versa. Also, participants could be randomly assigned to conditions in which OCB motives

are manipulated, followed by measurement of their citizenship behavior.

Second, we collected data in two different cultural contexts – India and Malaysia. Although replicating the general pattern of relationships across two settings is a strength, we do not know if our results would generalize to Northern European or North American cultures that are more individualistic and lower in power distance. Future studies that aim to replicate our findings in other cultures would be useful. Finally, we explicitly proposed individual-level, between-person relationships. Given that OCB can be conceptualized as episodic behavior (Bolino et al., 2012; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006), it would be interesting to test whether our observed relations replicate within individuals. Perhaps perceptions of social support vary over time, based on discrete events and interactions, and trigger within-individual changes in situated cognitions, which have implications for momentary OCB. Examining the interplay of OCB motives, situated cognitions, and social support at within-person levels may uncover unique relations that were overlooked in our between-person study. A within-person design would also help establish the extent to which OCB motives and situated cognitions are stable, which we were unable to examine in the present study. For example, coworker relations are likely more dynamic than interactions with the organization. If so, there may be greater within-person variance in helping (vs. voice) behavior based on fluctuations in employees' perceptions of coworker support.

In conclusion, our results support the proposed moderated mediation model and provide important insights into why and when motives matter as predictors of OCB. The moderation results are consistent with trait activation theory and suggest that expression of motive-relevant behavior is bounded by situational cues of social support. The mediation results are consistent with situated identity theory and integrate research on OCB motives and role cognitions, helping to reduce theoretical redundancies and providing a more nuanced understanding of OCB. We hope that our research stimulates future theorizing and empirical studies that continue to advance our understanding of the complex interrelationships between dispositional and situation-specific predictors of OCB.

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