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HAUPTBEITRÄGE

Givers, takers and matchers – Reciprocity styles and their contribution to organizational behaviour

Eveline Mäthner[1] · **Ralf Lanwehr**[2]

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Abstract This article in the journal "Gruppe. Interaktion. Organisation (GIO)" bridges Adam Grant's popular concept of *givers, takers* and *matchers* to state-of-the-art theories and research of prosocial organizational behavior such as Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). By proposing a three-dimensional framework of social orientation, the authors provide an approach allowing the reconciliation of inter-individual differences of social motives and situational factors, enabling cooperative behavior in the workplace. The practical implications of encouraging cooperative behaviour and collegial support are indicated for individual (personnel selection and development), team (team design and values) and organizational (organizational culture development) levels.

Keywords Prosocial organizational behavior (POB) · Cooperation · Prosocial motives · Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) · Social Value Orientation (SVO) · Organizational effectiveness · Altruism · Reciprocity

Geber, Nehmer, Tauscher - Reziprozitätsstile und Organisationales Verhalten

Abstract Der Artikel für die Zeitschrift „Gruppe. Interaktion. Organisation. (GIO)" verbindet Adam Grant's anschauliches Konzept der Geber, Nehmer und Tauscher mit dem aktuellen Stand der Forschung zum prosozialen Verhalten in Organisationen, insbesondere Extrarollenverhalten (OCB). Die Autoren stellen ein dreidimensionales Modell sozialer Werteorientierung vor, welches kooperatives Verhalten am Arbeitsplatz als Zusammenspiel interindividueller Unterschiede sozialer Werteorientierungen und Situationsfaktoren versteht. Praktische Ansatzpunkte für die Förderung kooperativen Verhaltens und kollegialer Unterstützung werden auf den Ebenen des Individuums (Personalauswahl und -entwicklung), des Teams (Teamdesign und Werte) und der Organisation (Entwicklung einer Kooperationskultur) aufgezeigt.

Keywords Prosoziales Verhalten in Organisationen · Kooperation · Prosoziale Motive · Extrarollenverhalten · Soziale Werteorientierung · Organisationale Effizienz · Altruismus · Reziprozität

1 Introduction

Prosocial behaviour has been the subject of research for several decades. Under which circumstances do humans choose to cooperate with and support other individuals rather than following motives of rational self-interest and maximizing their own benefits? Research into prosocial behaviour in the workplace has been associated with individual and organizational effectiveness and has so far been a promising field for organizational psychologists.

✉ Eveline Mäthner
e.maethner@gmail.com

✉ Prof. Dr. Ralf Lanwehr
lanwehr.ralf@fh-swf.de

[1] Scientific Assistant, btk University of Art and Design, Dessauer Str. 3–5, 10963 Berlin, Germany

[2] Chair of International Management, South Westphalia University of Applied Sciences, Lindenstr. 53, 59872 Meschede, Germany

The topic reached a peak of popularity in 2013 with the publication of Wharton professor Adam Grant's bestselling book "Give and Take – Why Helping Others Drives Our Success" (Grant 2013). According to Grant, what makes people successful is not only hard work, talent and luck, but also their manner of interaction with other people. In brief, Grant challenges the common assumption that the most successful people are the self-focused and competitive who put their interests before others; according to Grant, it is rather people who exhibit smart helpful behaviour towards others who are ultimately successful.

Grant introduces three fundamental reciprocity styles of social interaction, which differentiate individuals into *givers, takers* and *matchers*. *Takers* try to maximise their own benefit and are thus satisfied if they can take more out of a situation than they invest. They will often interpret situations as a win-lose dilemma. Because they are cautious and try to protect themselves, they have a general mistrust of other people and base their actions on the principle of rational self-interest. They will offer collegial support only for impression management – if their contribution is clearly visible, boosts their reputation or promises other profits in return.

At the opposite end of the scale are the *givers*. Givers support others and focus their efforts on achieving positive outcomes for others; givers interpret interaction with others as potential win-win situations. Grant highlights the fact that the givers do not constitute a homogeneous group – in terms of their success, givers are classified on a scale of least/most successful performers. Thus Grant differentiates between them as self-sacrificing and successful givers. Whereas *self-sacrificing givers* act in a genuinely altruistic manner, often at their own expense when they are unable to reject a collegue's request for help, *successful givers* tend to invest their time and effort economically. *Successful givers* provide collegial support when the benefit to others is greater than the personal cost and when their effort leads to a positive impact for the team, the department and the organization.

Between the takers and the givers are the so-called *matchers*, who strive for balance or reciprocity. When engaging in an interaction with others, matchers evaluate whether their effort is likely to be reciprocated or not. When engaging in new relationships, they hesitate to invest effort and time unless they get a clear indication that they will get something in return. Matchers have a relatively strict understanding of reciprocity. They try to preserve an equal balance of giving and receiving, which results in a tit-for-tat strategy: if they support somebody, they expect to be supported in the future. Similarly, if they receive support from somebody, they attempt to pay it back as soon as they can.

So actual performed prosocial behaviour does not always stem from prosocial motives. It can indeed be driven by the genuine motive of striving for a positive impact but it might also be motivated by self-serving motives such as impression management (Bolino 1999) or for altruistic reasons. Grant points out that it is indeed the underlying motivation and mindset, which makes the difference. According to Grant, *givers* have the potential to be more successful than *takers* and *matchers* not *despite* but *because* of the fact that they are concerned with the interests of others. In a sample of engineers, the status and productivity of those who maintained a constant high level of collegial support was highest of all (Flynn 2003); similarly the most successful medical students from a sample in Belgium showed a high giver score (Lievens et al. 2009).

According to Grant, the vast majority of people develop a primary reciprocity style which reflects their usual approach to most people most of the time. Thus he considers the personal reciprocity style as a relatively stable personal disposition. The implications of this "new personality construct" on resource and information sharing have already been researched (Utz et al. 2014). Grant acknowledges though that context can lead to variations in the style of personal reciprocity.

Grant produces a variety of reliable studies to support his reasoning. His well-received book certainly struck a chord; praised and cited by leading financial and management publications, it has been so far translated into 27 languages. The following article discusses how practitioners can profit from the approach of three fundamental reciprocity styles and additionally how this approach can contribute to theories of organizational behaviour.

2 Prosocial organizational behaviour

The analysis of reciprocity styles has to be considered as prosocial behaviour in the organizational context. Whereas prosocial behaviour comprises acts that benefit others (Penner et al. 1995), Prosocial Organizational Behaviour (POB) is specifically performed by an employee, is directed toward an individual, group or organization, and is performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of those towards whom it is directed (Brief and Motowidlo 1986).

POB is a promising field of organizational research because, in addition to individual performance, it is commonly associated with having a positive effect on team and organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). Several similar concepts are extant, such as extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne et al. 1995), contextual performance (Motowidlo and Van Scotter 1994), organizational spontaneity (George 1991; George and Brief 1992), but organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB; Organ 1988), is prob-

ably considered as the most prototypical POB (Luthans and Youssef 2007).

Organizational citizenship behaviour refers to employee contributions which go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements, and which support the broader social and psychological environment in the organization (Organ 1988). The original concept of OCB developed by Smith et al. (1983), which comprised initially the factors altruism (supportive behaviour towards co-workers with job-related and personal matters) and generalized compliance (compliance with norms that define a good worker), has later been expanded by Organ (1988) into a taxonomy of five dimensions. The first factor, altruism, has been slightly redefined, whereas the second factor, generalized compliance, has been differentiated into courtesy (preventing work-related conflicts with others), conscientiousness (accepting the regulations of the organization), civic virtue (interest in the life of the organization) and sportsmanship (tolerating inconvenience in the workplace).

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed differentiating OCB directed towards individuals (OCBI) from OCB aimed at the organization (OCBO). Behaviour that benefits other organizational members includes the dimensions of altruism and courtesy, whereas behaviour that aims at the organization includes the dimensions of conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. However, as the conceptualization of OCB stays quite diverse, the relationships between these constructs are generally high and their predictors do not differ significantly. Based on the results of a meta-analysis of 61 studies, LePine et al. (2002) draw the conclusion that OCB should be explicitly considered as one latent construct, implying the option of treating the above-mentioned dimensions merely as behaviour indicators of OCB. A comprehensive theory providing conceptual clarity in the OCB concept and offering an explicit definition of the relationship between the general concept of OCB with respect to its dimensions has yet to be developed (Organ 2015). So far, the two-factor structure of OCB-I and OCB-O remains the most recognized and applied concept in organizational research due to its reliability and robustness.

Furthermore, supporting behaviour such as mentoring (contribution to learning and development), knowledge sharing (providing information to facilitate creativity, innovation and change), brokering introductions (helping others to expand their network) and compassion (providing emotional and practical support) have largely been neglected in the traditional definition of OCB (Bolino and Grant 2016). Yet in complex and highly dynamic economic environments, these traditional supporting behaviours can be considered as important preconditions enabling a self-directed continuous learning process between organizational members. Global competition and pressure for innovation require collaboration in interdisciplinary teams, sometimes across temporal and cultural boundaries. Thus companies expect their employees to act proactively, show initiative and collaborate in a manner unrestrained by departmental boundaries. Additionally, providing social support by supporting colleagues emotionally and with hands-on assistance when needed is an acknowledged protective factor in moderating negative effects of work stress (Cohen and Wills 1985), which constitutes an increasing problem in western societies.

Thus Grant's prototypical description of a *successful giver* reproduces the above-mentioned characteristics of OCB and in fact completes them with important factors such that mentoring, knowledge sharing, brokering introductions and compassion are highlighted as distinctive behaviours of *successful givers*.

Increasingly, recent works consider not only the positive effects widely associated with OCB, but also attempt to explore its possible negative side effects (Bolino et al. 2013; Koopman et al. 2016). Especially worthy of consideration are the potential negative effects on organizational effectiveness when OCB is performed instead of task-related activities. Furthermore, individuals who engage with OCB may experience a higher risk of role ambiguity, role overload, job stress and work-family-conflicts, especially if employees feel obliged to perform such behaviour. Grant's focus on considering an employees' underlying motivation beyond his/her actual performed-OCB can provide additional value. The differentiation of *givers* into *successful* and *self-sacrificing givers* provides an explanation of this polarizing effects on individual performance and well-being. *Self-sacrificing givers* support others without any desire of receiving benefit in return – a motivation which is genuinely altruistic (Romer et al. 1986). *Self-sacrificing givers* spend time and effort making sacrifices for their collaborators at their own expense and may end up exhausted and unproductive as a result. *Successful givers* might spend the same amount of effort and time, but they are motivated by their positive impact on others and on the organization as a whole.

So although sometimes used synonymously, altruism should be considered as a differentiated form of prosocial behaviour (Bierhoff 2010). Although evolutionary theories such as kin selection (Hamilton 1964) and reciprocal altruism (Trivers 1971) deliver explanations for altruistic behaviour towards genetically-related individuals, they fail to explain altruistic behaviour in the workplace which is mostly directed towards genetically-unrelated individuals. Selfless giving without maintaining a healthy focus on one's own needs is even sometimes associated with personality disorders (Furnham et al. 2014).

Much research has been dedicated to the question of whether there is enough consistency in prosocial and altruistic behaviour across situations that support the idea of

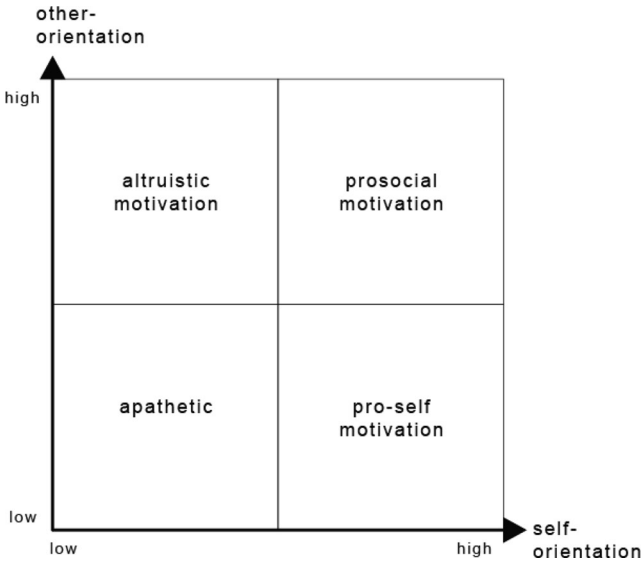

Fig. 1 Four resulting reciprocity types based on the two-dimensional model of self- and other orientation according to De Dreu and Nauta (2009)

a broad base of behavioural traits. Self-reporting questionnaires of the Altruistic Personality (Rushton et al. 1981) and the Prosocial Personality (Penner et al. 1995) may show that a person's score constitutes a significant predictor for future behaviour in test situations. In addition, the concept of Social Values Orientation (Van Lange 1999), which measures preferences for particular patterns of outcomes for the self and others, is considered as a relatively stable personal disposition. On the other hand, it has also been recognized that prosocial motivation can be influenced by the situational context. This is also in accordance to Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action (1975) which assumes that behavioural intentions (the immediate antecedents to behaviour) are influenced by both behavioural and normative beliefs.

In the following, we will first review the current state of research of inter-individual differences in prosocial motives before we develop our proposition of how the analysis of reciprocity styles can potentially contribute to the understanding and facilitation of prosocial behaviour in organizations.

3 Prosocial motives: the role of self- and other orientation

The prevailing assumption in western cultures is that the pursuit of self-interest constitutes one of the most powerful determinants of individual behaviour (Miller 1999). The assumption that individuals engage in rational cognitive processing in order to maximize their own outcome can also be found in classic psychological and motivational theories.

Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) challenged the implicit assumption that people are equally motivated to maximize their own outcome. They propose that individual differences in rational self-interest account for a broader variability of observed behaviour. Furthermore, with the introduction of the concept of *other orientation,* which they refer to as an "dispositional tendency to be concerned with and helpful to other persons" (pg. 948), they provide an alternative approach of explaining prosocial and altruistic behaviour. They argue that individuals differ in their orientation for *self-concern* or *other interest*, proposing that those two motivations are at opposing ends of the same continuum. Thus high concern for *other interest* is associated with low *self-interested rational processing* and vice versa. In other words, some people have largely egoistic preferences while others show primarily altruistic preferences (Simpson and Willer 2008).

De Dreu (2006) reinforces the importance of individual differences in *self-interest* and *other orientation* motives but argues that rational processing is not exclusively related to self-interest. As rational processing can also be related to other orientations, it does not provide any additional explanation for the understanding of prosocial motivation. Additionally, De Dreu challenges the notion that *self-concern* necessarily conflicts with *other concern*. Following his argumentation, *self-concern* and *other orientation* should be distinguished and understood as two independent factors. As Fig. 1 shows, individuals can simultaneously be highly *self-interested*, show high *concern for others* or can be driven by both self-interest and other orientation. The independence of these two dimensions has already been applied before in the measurement of Social Value Orientation (SVO, Liebrand and McClintock 1988; Van Lange 1999), which associates prosocial orientation with a greater tendency to enhance and seek equality in own and others outcomes.

As Fig. 1 illustrates, prosocial motivation is the result of the combination of high self-concern and high other orientation, whereas high self-concern with low other-orientation is referred to as pro-self motivation. Although not explicitly mentioned, the combination of high *other orientation* with low *self-interests* would result in altruistic motivation. The introduction of *self* and *other interest* as two independent and orthogonal dimensions seems a promising approach to a much more complex understanding of social motives in work-settings (De Dreu and Nauta 2009).

In fact, Grant (2013, pg. 182) uses this model to explain the interplay of self-interest and other concern motives of the takers, successful and self-sacrificing givers. Thus pro-self-motivation equates to the position of takers, altruistic motivation to self-sacrificing givers and prosocial motiva-

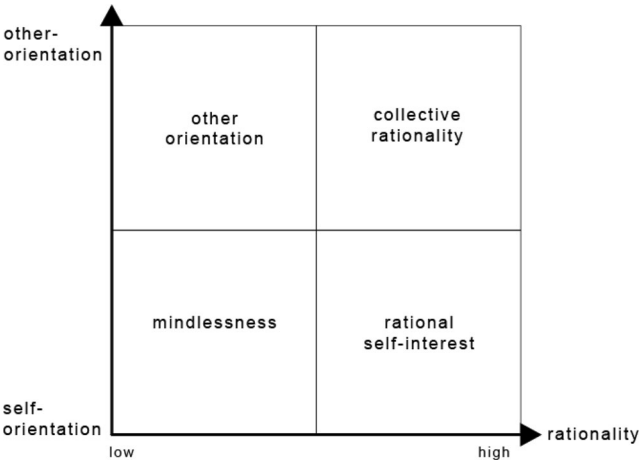

Fig. 2 Four resulting reciprocity types based on the two-dimensional model of rationality (high vs. low) and aim of concern (self- vs. others) according to Meglino and Korsgaard (2006)

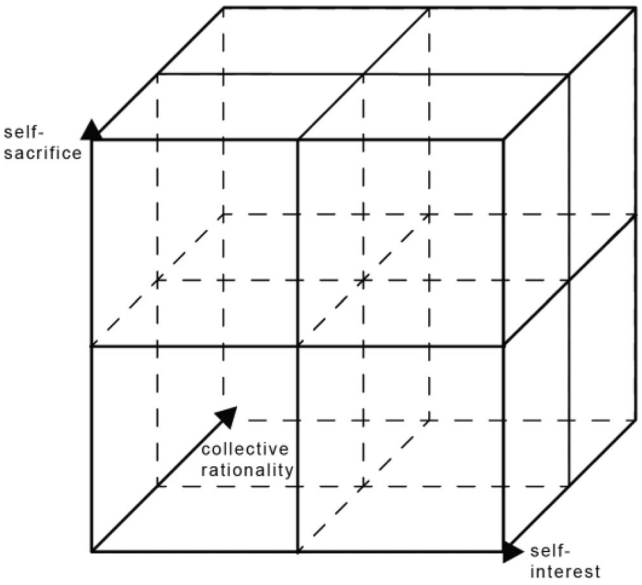

Fig. 3 Three-dimensional model of self-interest, self-sacrificing and collective rationality as behaviour repertoire as proposed by the authors

tion to successful givers. It should be noted though that this model fails to explain the genesis of the matchers' social motives.

Meglino and Korsgaard (2006) insist that *other orientation* (indicative of an altruistic motive) stands in direct contrast to rational self-interest and that these two motivational states that cannot readily coexist. They provide clarification in that rational processing and self-interest are not identical concepts but are strongly interconnected. As a result the authors propose an integrated framework of the two distinct dimensions goals of action (varying from self to other orientation) and rationality (varying from low to high). The joint consideration produces four different motives as illustrated in Fig. 2.

Thus individuals apply *collective rationality*, when they pursue other-oriented goals while engaging in rational judgement processes. Following the authors' argumentation that self-interest and rational processing are positively related, *collective rationality* implies the integration of self- and other-interest and thus is consistent to the concept of *prosocial motivation* proposed by De Dreu (2006). *Other orientation* results when individuals are focused on other-oriented goals without rationally weighing the personal costs. In those circumstances, the authors presume that individuals are more sensitively responding to norms.

The norm of reciprocity, which aims to explain exchange processes between individuals, can be considered such a societal norm. It describes the principle whereby individuals aim for equality in input and outcome of social relationships – that an individual should help those who have helped him/her. The mechanism of expected reciprocity can be considered as a strategic and self-serving motivation, though people differ in the extent to which they internalize the three aspects of reciprocity (positive reciprocity, negative reciprocity and beliefs in reciprocity) as well as in the degree to they would reciprocate in certain circumstances (Perugini et al. 2003).

Bolino and Grant (2016) propose a reconciliation of these two approaches by integrating the dimension of rationality (Meglino and Korsgaard 2006) with three social orientations *self-, other-* or *both-orientedness*. Thus rational *self-interest* results from high rationality and self-interest. *Collective rationality* applies when rationality is high and goals are *both* self-interested and other interested. Behaviour is *self-sacrificing* when rationality is high and goals are solely *other-oriented*. This approach clarifies that the social motives *self-interest, self-sacrificing* and *collective rationality* can all be considered as a result of rational processing.

By contrast, low rationality can be considered as a state of mindlessness, where individuals act impulsively or spontaneously in accordance with a temporarily-adopted state of mind (Bolino and Grant 2016). This is supported by the findings of George and Brief (1992) indicating that being in a good mood is a precondition which can also lead to cooperative and mindful behaviour, such as helping co-workers, protecting the organization and making constructive suggestions. Thus prosocial behaviour may be the result of rational processes reflecting a trait or stable tendency of an individual's orientation in prosocial values, as well as being motivated by a more situational temporary state of absent rationality intended to benefit specific groups of people.

The development of an integrated theory of the nature of prosocial motives, taking into consideration the antecedents, consequences and the interplay of prosocial motives resulting from stable traits and temporary states, would provide a significant contribution to future research.

Table 1 Decontextualized example item of the SVO

	A	B	C
You get	480	540	480
Other gets	80	280	480

Table 2 Contextualized example item of Grant's reciprocity test

You're applying for a job as a manager, and a former boss writes you a glowing recommendation letter. What would you be most likely to do?
a) Look for ways to help my former boss, so I can pay it back
b) Offer to write a recommendation letter for one of my own former employees, so can pay it forward
c) Go out of my way to make a good impression on my new boss, so I can line up another strong recommendation for the future

Towards that effort, we would like to introduce our concept of a repertoire of personal cooperation behaviour, which considers inter-individual differences of social orientation under rationally-driven circumstances and which provides a viable framework for integrating future considerations of absent rationality.

4 Social orientations as basis for cooperation behaviour repertoire

According to Grant (2013), most people develop a primary interaction style in professional contexts. We argue that the assumption that individuals are *either* self-interested, self-sacrificing *or* collectively rational neglects the possibility that individuals' personalities might contain these various dimensions in various degrees. People are rarely exclusively *takers* or *givers*, they are rather self-interested, self-sacrificing *and* collectively rational at the same time.

Thus we would like to introduce *self-interest, self-sacrifice* and *collective rationality* as three distinct variables that should be considered simultaneously. This implies that an individual can be characterized by the sum presence of these three dimensions as demonstrated in Fig. 3, resulting in a highly individual profile. This profile can be understood as this individual's cooperation behaviour repertoire. It indicates whether an individual embraces *self-interest, self-sacrifice* and *collective rationality* in a balanced way, or whether one of these orientations might relatively dominate the others. This would allow predictions of the likelihood of whether, in a certain situation, an individual will engage in prosocial behaviour, enforce self-interest or self-sacrifice.

Where one of these dimensions dominates in comparison to others, individuals are more likely to be restricted in potential decisions about which mindset to activate. If self-interest is high, whereas self-sacrifice and collective rationality are low, it is less likely that individuals will take the opportunity to consider others' interest, even if the situation would rationally allow such consideration. If, on the contrary, self-sacrifice is high while self-interest and collective rationality are rather low, individuals are more likely to interpret a situation from an altruistic perspective. If collective rationality is the prevailing characteristic, most likely the individual will show intentions to maximize the outcome for all parties involved. Individuals with a relatively balanced profile are likely to show most flexibility in their interpretation of situations.

The integration of social orientations in the described three-dimensional model additionally allows a differentiated understanding of the interplay between personal traits and situational factors. As De Dreu & Nauta (2009) could show, prosocial organizational behaviour interacts with an individual's social orientation and specific situational factors such as job characteristics and justice climate in the organization. Certain types of leadership such as self-sacrificing leadership also seem to motivate employees' prosocial behaviour (De Cremer et al. 2009). According to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975), an individual's decision to perform prosocial behaviour, or not, can be understood as a result of a rational process regarding the likelihood that this behaviour will lead to a desired outcome and upon his/her normative beliefs.

Our three-dimensional model can make some contribution for the individual's importance in regards to the three motives *self-interest, self-sacrifice* and *collective rationality* – in other words, whether an individual evaluates an outcome as desirable or otherwise, is a function of the individual's social motive profile. For example, an employee is more likely to find it important to support a colleague finishing a presentation on a Friday evening if he/she scores high on collective rationality and self-sacrifice, simply because contributing to the team (collective rationality) and helping others when they need support (self-sacrifice) are values which are in accordance to his/her social motives. On the other hand, scoring low on the above-mentioned dimensions and scoring high on self-interest would imply that helping a colleague is not desirable behaviour if it does not contribute anything to the individual's own benefit in return.

Thus, we propose that a behaviour repertoire approach allows a much more differentiated understanding of the possible behaviours that might be attractive for an individual to undertake. We propose that prosocial behaviour is more likely to be performed when its results are in accordance to the person's individual profile of social motives. At the same time, it allows a deeper understanding why the performed behaviour of an individual does not always show high consistency.

5 Measuring prosocial motives

A variety of scales exists to measure prosocial motives, such as the four-item-scale of prosocial motivation (Grant 2008), the altruistic personality scale (Rushton et al. 1981), the prosocial personality battery (Penner et al. 1995) the six-items scale of self- and other orientation (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), the nine-item measure of social value orientation (SVO, Van Lange 1999) and the G&T test of reciprocity styles (Grant, www.adamgrant.net). These scales are partly based on ipsative and partly on normative assessments.

A prototypical example of an ipsative measure is the SVO. The SVO contains nine minimalistic dominance measures where in each item the participant can choose one out of three presented distributions of points between him/herself and an unknown counterpart. Table 1 illustrates a typical item. According to the total choices, an individual can be classified as prosocial, egoistic or competitive.

As opposed to the decontextualized items of the SVO, Grants G&T measure of an individual's own primary reciprocity style consists of 15 scenarios in which the participant has to decide how he/she would act in certain work situations. An example item is shown in Table 2. Depending on the decisions of the three available options, individuals can be classified as givers, takers or matchers.

Contextualized items seem to allow a better prediction of organizational behaviour such as information and knowledge sharing than decontextualized items (Utz et al. 2014). However, the SVO only measures cooperative, individualistic and competitive orientation and fails to measure altruistic behaviour. The reciprocity test measures motives which correspond to taking, matching and cooperating but not to selfless giving.

Furthermore, the results of ipsative assessments highlight the preference of the person assessed but do not allow direct inter-individual comparisons. In contrast, normative assessments measure quantifiable attributes on individual scales. Thus the normative assessment allows the comparison of an individual's result to an actual population (Chan 2003).

Normative scales such as De Dreu and Nautas (2009) measure of self- and other orientation measure an individual's agreement in regards to statements such as "I am concerned about my own needs and interests" (indicating self-orientation) or "I am concerned about the needs and interest of others, such as my colleagues" (indicating other orientation). Correlation of these statements is usually measured on a five-point Likert scale.

To test the assumption that the joint consideration of *self-interest, self-sacrifice* and *collective rationality* provides a more differentiated approach to the understanding of the interplay of social motives and of what drives cooperative behaviour, we would encourage the development of a normative measurement which incorporates these three factors.

6 Conclusion

Prosocial dispositions such as social motives are relatively stable across a person's life (Penner et al. 2005) and they play an important role as a precedent for the actual performance of prosocial behaviour. They may also influence decision making, judgement, and reactions to feedback, job design and job attitudes (Korsgaard et al. 1996).

Further research is needed to examine the interplay between dispositional prosocial motivation and situational/normative factors that encourage prosocial behaviour at the workplace. However, we suggest that the simultaneous consideration of the three underlying social motives of *self-interest, self-sacrifice* and *collective rationality,* which constitute a persons' cooperation behaviour repertoire, provide a differentiated basis for the understanding of processes which lead to organizational behaviour.

Assuming that people perform prosocial behaviour regardless of which of these motives is the strongest, we would still expect that the effects and consequences of such behaviour might be different. Indeed, there are indications that the potential costs can outweigh the benefits when the quality of such behaviour is low or when extra-role behaviours are performed instead of in-role-behaviour (Bolino et al. 2004). Thus we would expect a more differentiated view of behavioural antecedents to contribute to the understanding of the potential downsides of OCB on the individual (such as role ambiguity or work stress) or organizational level (such as low-quality performance or neglecting in-role tasks).

As a consequence and practical implication, we recommend looking beyond the actual performed OCB in order to explore the actual underlying motives about *why* an employee exhibits it, as prosocial behaviour may have negative consequences when resulting from mainly self-serving or altruistic motives.

This implies new challenges for personnel selection and development. Although social orientation is a relatively stable personal disposition and thus is hard to change, psychometric assessment of personal social motivation profile can be a basis for reflection in coaching and training. This is especially valid as prosocial behaviour is a behavioural construct and is thus more easily adaptable than personality dimensions.

Such an assessment and its integration into organizational reward structures would have the additional positive effect of systematically encouraging cooperative behaviour, thereby fostering entrepreneurial potential. As a consequence, supervisors need to be sensitised to the importance

of encouraging cooperation and support when it is genuinely intended for the benefit of all parties involved.

Implications for team design should also be considered. Personality characteristics such as agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability are known to be predictive of showing higher levels of dedication to the work and the organization, and to help cooperative behaviour in a team setting, and are associated with higher levels of team effectiveness (LePine et al. 2011). We would thus assume a similar influence between social motivation of the team members and team effectiveness. Additionally, strong heterogeneity on those characteristics between the team members could potentially lead to interpersonal conflicts and thus to a negative impact on team performance (Kichuk and Wiesner 1997). By establishing social orientation as a higher-order goal, especially in highly diverse teams, we might have identified a key to unlocking the black box of work group diversity, conflict, and performance (Pelled et al. 1999).

Lastly, the concept of givers and takers can be applied to organizational culture. Organizations differ in their collective values, beliefs and principles and, according to Grant (2013), each organization is characterized by a prevailing norm of reciprocity. Whereas in a giver culture, the prevailing basic assumptions are that employees operate by helping others, sharing knowledge, offering mentoring, and making connections without expecting anything in return – because this is what ensures the company's success – the prevailing assumption in a taker culture is that employees will strive if they can deliver the highest individual performance in competition with their colleagues. Thus changing an organization's culture from taker to giver is a promising field for organizational change processes. This requires the integration of cooperation into the core value system of the organization which is essentially fostered by the consideration of cooperative and supportive behaviour in the company's reward structure.

With the aid of a psychometric assessment tool we would also be able to track longitudinal developments as well as visualizing strategic interconnections of existing relationships across different aggregate levels, namely person, work group/department and organization.

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Eveline Mäthner business psychologist, is in research and consulting specialized in organizational development processes with focus on holistic leadership, cooperation culture and occupational health. Following the recent finalisation of the BMBF funded interdisciplinary research project "Kinetic Change – Kinetic Communication in Change Processes", she now continues research and consulting as a partner at Cavorit GmbH, Berlin.

Prof. Dr. Ralf Lanwehr is professor of International Management at the South Westphalia University of Applied Sciences. Beforehand, he acted as scientific prorector of the Business & Information Technology School and as professor of HRM and international management at the International University of Applied Sciences Bad Honnef-Bonn (IUBH). Ralfs interests consist of charismatic leadership theory, talent diagnostics in professional soccer, theory and management of dilemmata, and item-response theory. He has won research grants encompassing more than 3 million € in these areas.