

Social preferences and goal orientation: How proselfs and prosocials relate to goal orientation and the impact on team performance.

Track: HR

Keywords: Social Value Orientation, Goal Orientation, Team performance.

Abstract

This paper proposes and tests a model that examines how goal orientation (GO) and social value orientation (SVO) relate to each other and how this relationship influences team performance. While previous research has separately established a relationship between either GO or SVO and performance, this study suggests that the tendency to adopt either learning or performance goals and, prosocial and prosself orientations work jointly to either heighten or diminish performance. Results indicate that prosocials motivated by joint outcome maximization and proselves are more likely to be performance oriented.

1- Introduction

Employees tend to react differently in their approach to various tasks and challenges. In challenging achievement situations, like the ones we find in most organizations, employees tend to adopt certain meta-goals that lead to different interpretations and reactions to work related tasks. For example, when performing a task, a line employee may be interested in doing his/her job better than peers, learn a new skill, or demonstrate ability to supervisor. These meta-goals are called Goal Orientation (GO). That is, goal orientation represents the broad goals held by individuals they face a challenging task (Fisher and Ford 1998). Research has shown a relationship between an individual's GO and task performance (VandeWalle and Bandura 1997; Carver and Scheier 1990; Kanfer 1990; Locke and Latham 1990).

Another stream of research has related individual social value orientation (SVO) with increased performance. SVO is defined as a construct that theoretically extends the rational self-interest by stating that individuals tend to pursue broader goals beyond self-interest, such as the pursuit of joint outcomes or equality in outcomes (Van Lange 1999). SVO is a stable pattern of outcomes for oneself and for another (McClintock, 1978; Messick & McClintock, 1968). It emerged from interdependence theory, mostly from the analysis of decomposed games (Murphy & Ackermann, 2012; Pruitt, 1967). People with a prosocial orientation make decisions considering both their own outcomes and the outcome of others involved: More exactly, they are concern about differences with outcomes of others and with the equality of outcomes (Van Lange, 1999). Prosocial people exhibit greater cooperation than proselves do. People with a prosocial orientation tend to show higher reciprocity and higher social responsibility (De Cremer & Van Lange, 2001). They also build more constructive negotiations, they solve social problems using win-win strategies, and they exhibit increased citizenship behaviors in organizations (De Dreu & Boles, 1998; Nauta, Carsten, De Dreu & Van der Vaart, 2002; Van Lange, Joireman, Parks & Van Dijk, 2013).

Although the literature has established a relationship between SVO (Nauta et al., 2002) and performance and between GO and performance, (Roberson & Alsua, 2002), we still do not understand how these two constructs interact and what role does the interaction between learning orientation and a prosocial orientation play on performance. This is especially relevant for research and practitioners since most of the work in organizations occurs in the context of groups and teamwork.

This article proposes that both goal and social value orientations moderate individual performance in organizations. There are several reasons why examining this relationship is relevant for organizations: First, if firms are aware of the goal and social value orientation mix of their employees and how this mix interacts, they may develop enhanced management of incentives with the right stimuli and thus maximize performance (Cellar, Stuhlmacher, Young, Fisher, Adair, Haynes & Riester, 2011; Nauta et al, 2002). This is an especially relevant tool since, for example, goal orientation emerges not only as an individual disposition. It can also be cued by certain stimuli and managerial cues in the firm (Roberson & Alsua, 2002). Second, when firms the relationship between their workers' SVO and GO they can re-structure their work teams in order to improve learning capabilities. The understanding of the nature of this relation can help synergize interactions between prosocial and learning oriented workers, and thus eventually improve team outcomes. Third, we propose that prosocials might exhibit higher performance than proselves for certain tasks that require teamwork; even when prosel self individuals may also exhibit a learning orientation. Thus, if this relation is confirmed, an organization that spouses a learning orientation may prefer workers that are prosocial oriented. Firms with prosocial workers will help obtain a competitive advantage over other firms that do not take the relation between GO and SVO into account to build their teams. And fourth, prosocial motives can be derived by joint outcomes or equality, thus a learning-oriented firm may want to recruit workers that will have a higher number of that type of prosocial motivations, which can moderate performance and hence control for it.

This study posits the following questions:

- How are GO and SVO related?
- Are prosocials more likely to endorse a learning orientation?
- Do prosocials who are motivated by the maximization of joint outcomes perform better than prosocials who are motivated by inequality aversion?
- How the interaction between GO and SVO affect performance?

In order to address these questions, we first examine relationship between GO and SVO. Second, we describe the link between prosocial and learning orientation and third, we evaluate between prosocials' motivations (maximization of joint outcomes and inequality aversion), GO and performance. The following sections present the literature review, data, method and discussion.

Literature Review

Goal orientation and performance

Goals and objectives are well known to be the core in the understanding of motivational behavior. A large amount of research has examined the different levels and types of goals, as well as their consequences (Brett, 1999). Goal orientation depicts the underlying goals that individuals seek in achievement situations (Butler, 1993, Vandewalle & Cummings, 1997; Verkuyten, Thijs, Canatan, 2001). It is often expressed as the desire to develop or demonstrate competence at a task (Dweck, 1986; Seifriz, Duda & Chi, 1992), which forms a schema for future interpretation of task related events and outcomes (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996).

The literature often depicts goal orientation in terms of two dimensions that differ on whether the underlying goals focus on developing competence (Learning orientation) or demonstrating competence (Performance orientation) (Dweck, 1986, 1989; Vandewalle, Cron & Slocum, 2001). Although the names of these two approaches to GO vary across the literature the basic assumptions about each of them are fairly consistent. A learning orientation assumes a developmental view of intelligence and ability where ability is something controllable that can be improved through effort and experience (Vandewalle & Cummings, 1997). Aptitude is also viewed as a self-reference standard (Nicholls, 1983), thus, an employee will judge his level of ability in terms of how much he has developed and improved his skills and met new challenges (Dweck, 1989; Mangos and Steele-Johnson, 2001).

A learning orientation emphasizes effort as a way to improve ability. Since the focus is on the task rather than on the self, there is a positive relation between the amount of effort that is exercised in the task and task mastery (Vandewalle, 2001). As a result, more effort is expected to increase success in the task (Ames, 1992; Duda and Nicholls, 1992). Intrinsic motivation is also high when persons with learning goals are engaged in moderately difficult activities because individuals see the task as a way to understand something new and to develop and improve their Competence (Nichols, 1983). The task itself is Meaningful because it is viewed as a tool to increase mastery. Self-efficacy is also high (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002). Consequently, task related feedback is embraced because it is perceived as a resource to help with improvement (Tuckey, Brewer & Williamson, 2002).

On the other hand, a performance orientation supports an *entity* view of ability (Dweck, 1986) where ability is a fixed, uncontrollable personal trait (Vandewalle and Cummings, 1997). Consequently individuals continuously compare their ability and Competence to that of others in their reference group. Normative comparisons become the standards of reference to evaluate one's performance (Nicholls, 1983). Thus, success is achieved when ability is higher than that of others', rather than the result of extended effort (Duda and Nicholls, 1992). Effort is only perceived as a way to compensate

for lack of ability, rather than an instrument to increase ability (Vandewalle, 1999; Vandewalle, 2001). Since the focus is on the self, rather than on the task, individuals are less interested in the task itself. Their focus is on the outcomes of the task because their purpose is to demonstrate the ability they already have. Intrinsic motivation is thus reduced because motivation requires a focus on the task and an internal locus of control, and such goals are not part of a performance orientation (Deci & Ryan, 1987 in Seifriz, Duda & Chi, 1992). When performance goals are salient, an individual's self-efficacy is very unstable because the locus of control is external and it depends continuously on the performance of others (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). As a result, task feedback is often avoided because feedback (especially when negative) is perceived to be a threat to self-efficacy and to competence. In general, a learning orientation is considered an adaptive approach, whereas a performance orientation is often viewed as maladaptive, especially when the a priori perceived ability is low (Seifriz, Duda & Chi, 1992; Vandewalle, 2001).

Goal orientation has classically been conceptualized as a construct composed of two factors: orientation towards learning and orientation towards performance, which were Dweck (1989) and Nicholls (1984) defined under conditions of goal achievement. Goal orientation often conceptualizes as a mental framework of how people interpret and respond to situation of goal achievements. Heymann (1992) says that the orientation towards performance is defined by the desire of obtaining positive judgments from others and the desire of avoiding unfavorable judgments of people's own ability.

Several studies show that the orientation towards learning has a positive relationship with another implicit theory that states that personal attributes can be molded and may be developed through effort (Dweck & Legett, 1998), and positively related to being open to new experiences and optimism, to an internal control locus, to the desire of working hard and effort (Vandewalle, Brown & Cron, 1999). Orientation towards learning influences the effort that individuals exhibit because they believe that effort leads to success (Ames, 1992) and they see effort as a means to trigger their own abilities for the achievement of tasks and as a strategy for the development of needed abilities in order to master future tasks (Brett, 1999). People with orientation towards learning see tasks as learning experiences and as experiences of personal development, and they interpret their mistakes and negative feedback as information that helps them improve performance (Roberson and Alsua, 2002).

Learning orientation appears as a construct composed of three (four) factors: commitment to learning, shared vision, open-mindedness, and intra-organizational knowledge sharing. All of these factors might be considered capabilities given their potential impact to identify resources of sustainable competitive advantage and because the firm that owns them is more likely to adjust to market changes adaptively (Teece, 2012).

On the other hand it has been observed that people with orientation towards performance goals tend to have an implicit theory view of ability that states that individual abilities are fixed (they don't change much in time), and that they are uncontrollable personal attributes. These individuals have a response pattern that is not adaptive to others; it disconnects from the task and it reports lower interest in the task and thus elicits negative attributions about individuals' abilities. Individuals with an orientation towards performance goals react to difficulties in their performance with a maladaptive pattern of deep falls in their efficiency levels and with disarrays in their performance (Wood & Bandurra, 1989). Learning and Performance goal orientation are not orthogonal dimensions, neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory. An individual may experience both learning and performance goals when encountering a task, yet, the presence of strong learning goals may still elicit the adaptive patterns (Ames & Archer, 1988).

Social Value Orientation and performance

Social Value Orientation, which emerges from the criticism of the *homo economicus* and the rational self interest. (Luce & Raiffa, 1957; Von Neuman & Morgenstern, 1947; Roth, 1988) states that individuals systematically differ in the way they interact with each other and that these individual differences relate to the social orientation of values, which represent stable preferences towards certain result patterns for oneself and others. (McClintock, 1978; Messick & McClintock, 1968). Although research identifies a myriad of social orientations (Knight & Dubro, 1984), the literature works mostly with three: prosocial, individualists and competitive orientation. Prosocials tend to maximize the results obtained for themselves and others (cooperation) and minimize the difference between themselves and others (equality). Individualists tend to maximize their own results compared to results obtained by other people, searching for a relative advantage over others (Van Lange, et. al, 1999). SVO types are identified as prosocials and proselfs, where prosocials are the ones that consider their own results and others' results while facing certain decisions, while proselfs only consider their own results when facing a situation. This occurs in the context of the interdependence of individuals and on the influence that their decisions have over the results of others. Situations that are present in an individual's day by day work in most organizations.

A number of tools are available to measure pro-social preferences, Murphy et. al. (2012) show several of them, for example, the altruism scale, the dominance measure of 9 triple items, utility measures, the scale of social behavior, the ring measure, clusters and regressions, Shulz and May's (1989) spherical measure, and the sliding SVO measure. This former tool besides measuring SVO, it can also partition, measure and identify prosocial motivations such as inequity aversion and the preference of joint outcome maximization.

It is well known that prosocial people exhibit higher cooperation than those that who are proself (De Cremer et al., 2001). Social responsibility and reciprocity measures are characteristics influencing prosocial people, for example, De Cremer at, al, (2001) showed that prosocials felt more responsible for promoting the interest of the group than proselfs did. Their study also revealed that prosocials have a tendency towards reciprocity on the actions performed by peers.

Many social dilemmas are affected by the interaction of people, and mostly, by the interaction of groups. Many organizations that server the public good, such as community centers and charities depend on the willingness of people to donate time, effort and money to increase the welfare of the group. From a personal interest perspective (*homo economicus*) the achievement of personal welfare without making contributions of personal resources to a public good is perfectly rational. Research has shown, as well, that prosocial individuals tend to build social dilemmas as moral issues, while proselfs tend to build these situations in terms of power. Prosocial individuals associate cooperation with intelligence while proselfs associate cooperation with the lack of intelligence. In fact prosocials expect more cooperation from people that they consider intelligent than from people that they consider not intelligent (Van Lange, 1991; De Cremer, 2001).

It is also well researched that within the company, when the objectives between departments are incompatible and the members of a department confront the dilemma of whether to address the department's or the institutional goals, constructive negotiation is the method that allows the development of a win-win solution (Alper, Tjosvold & Law, 1988; Blake & Mouton, 1970; Lax 1986; Nauta et al 2002). Hence, those individuals within an organization who are aware of the results that not only they but other colleagues must achieve; they, will have an increased capacity to solve organizational problems (Blake, Tjosvold, & Law, 1970; Rubin et al, 1994; Thomas, 1976; Nauta et al, 2002). Social Value Orientation addresses these issues because it influences how people think and behave under certain social situations (Van Lange et. al, 1991). For example, research has shown that prosocial individuals show more care for helping others achieve their goals and objectives. This gives them the ability to solve social problems by using win-win strategies (Nauta et al, 2002). This is a very valuable resource and a capability for companies that depend on internal coordination in order to maximize goals and achieve better financial and organizational synergies.

Goal orientation, social value orientation and performance

Prosocials have a tendency to adopt learning goals and to increase the adaptive patters that organizations need to maximize team performance. Moreover, social value orientation provides insights about how prosocial people interact with others and thus how they make decisions. Furthermore, there are two defined motives that prosocials take into account when making decisions, inequity aversion and joint outcomes maximization (Van Lange, 1999). These two motives bring

information about the decision making process. When individuals make the right choices for their teams within their firms, these right choices aggregate thus impacting over performance. On the other hand, previous research that has investigated GO found that GO it's related with several variables such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reaction. All of them are variables that moderate the impact of GO over performance (Cellar et al. 2001). Previous research has also related GO with different types of effort (Fisher and Ford 1998), to being open to new experiences and optimism (VandeWalle et al., 1999), higher innovation capabilities and the creation of competitive advantages (Mone, McKinley & Barker, 1998). Specifically, Brett and VandeWalle (1999) found that a learning orientation was strongly related to performance enhancing goals, such as skill improvement in training programs. Those studies suggest that there is a latent relationship between GO and performance which must be developed further. This includes assessing other constructs related to performance in order to understand how they interact and what tools may organizations consider to use those interrelationships to maximize performance. This is why SVO (and their motives) and Goal Orientations must be studied jointly. Firms might be losing important information about their workers and what to expect from them, after knowing their orientations and motivations.

Given the relationship between SVO and performance and between GO and performance we propose that prosocial people are more likely to engage in a learning goal orientation, thus,

Hypothesis 1: Learning Orientation is positively related to a prosocial orientation.

Likewise, proself individuals tend to endorse performance-oriented goals, thus:

Hypothesis 2: A performance goal orientation is positively related to a proself orientation.

As prosocial people perform better in organizations and exhibit a more adaptive development of organizational behavior (De Dreu & Boles, 1998; Nauta et al, 2002; Van Lange et al., 2013) we propose that:

Hypothesis 3: A prosocial orientation is positively related to team related performance.

Regarding goal orientation, learning oriented people are more likely to attain increased team performance given that these individuals interpret their mistakes and any possible negative feedback as information that helps them improve performance, therefore they are less likely to reject feedback or engage in self-esteem protective mechanism when they encounter difficulty (Roberson and Alsua, 2002), thus:

Hypothesis 4: A learning orientation positive relates to their performance in teams.

Likewise:

Hypothesis 5: A performance orientation negatively relates to performance in teams.

Prosocial people are motivated by inequity aversion and therefore they are more likely to engage in learning oriented goals. This occurs because equality in outcomes is the primary concern among prosocials and normative comparisons (Nicholls, 1983) are less relevant (Eek and Garling, 2006; Van Lange et al., 2013), thus:

Hypothesis 6: A learning orientation positively relates to inequity aversion motivation.

Likewise, prosocial people who are motivated by inequity aversion are more likely to engage in performance-oriented goals because of their concern for normative comparisons, thus:

Hypothesis 7: A performance orientation positively relates to Joint Outcomes motivation.

Finally, there is a positive relationship between prosocials motivated by joint outcome maximization and performance, thus:

Hypothesis 8: Joint outcomes motivation positively relate to performance in teams.

Method

Participants and design

The sample involved university students at 15 different universities from several regions of Chile. Participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire composed of five sections. The first section asked about demographic variables: The second, assessed participant's SVO with the Murphy and Ackermann (2011) slider measure that determines both social preferences and the prosocial motivation of individuals. The third part of the questionnaire asked about goal orientation. We used Vandewalle's (1996) scale that measures learning orientation and two subsets of performance orientation: prove orientation and avoidance orientation.

Measures

Measures included the following scales. First, VandeWalle (1996)' s scale examined GO. Fourteen items asked about the learning, prove (performance), and avoid (performance) goal orientation of respondents. The first six items measure learning orientation, the following two constructs measure performance orientation asking for prove orientation and avoidance orientation. Cronbach's α for learning orientation was 0.822, while Cronbach's α for performance orientation using both prove and avoidance orientation was 0.731.

The SVO Slider Measure developed by Murphy and Ackermann (2011) assessed social value orientation. This measure includes a fifteen-item questionnaire. The first six items assess the social value pattern of preferences, the next nine items establish the motivations of prosocial individuals: joint outcome maximization and inequity aversion. This scale is an optimum measure of SVO it allows to determine transitivity and to rank ordering SVOs of individuals. SVO, is then a range that indicates the outcomes patterns of the individual preferences, thus, it is a continuous variable. As SVO is measured in degrees, a $SVO^\circ > 22.45$ indicates that the individual is prosocial, while if SVO° is less than 22.45, the individual is labeled as proself. The Inequity Averse Index is as well a continuous variable that range between 0 and 1 and that assesses the degree to which the individual is motivated by joint outcome maximization as the index approaches to 1, and the degree to which the individual is motivated by inequity aversion as the index get close to 0.

The Role Based Performance Scale by Welbourne, Johnson and Erez (1997) measured team related performance. The RBPS identifies five dimensions of work performance, where one of them is teamwork performance. This construct is measured by a five item scale. The Cronbach's α of team performance was 0.750. This variable is the dependant variable for SVO and for GO.

Results

Descriptive Results

We received 509 questionnaires, out of which 342 were answered completely. We included these 342 in the analysis. The mean age of participants was 22.28 (SD = 3.11) and 53.5% were male. Respondents had on average 2 (SD = 1.289) brothers or sisters and 281 were studying in the capital Santiago.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	22.28	3.11	1	.054	.057	.046	,157**	-.045	-,143**	.041
2. Gender			.054	1	.014	-.042	.105	.072	-.078	.075
3. Number of Brothers	2.04	1.29	.057	.014	1	.034	.009	.060	.001	-.019
4. Team Performance	0	1	.046	-.042	.034	1	,205**	.026	-,202**	.047
5. Learning Orientation	0	1	,157**	.105	.009	,205**	1	,183**	-,177**	.041
6. Prove Orientation	0	1	-.045	.072	.060	.026	,183**	1	,251**	-,107*
7. Avoidance Orientation	0	1	-,143**	-.078	.001	-,202**	-,177**	,251**	1	-,127*
8. SVO°	29.49	12.28	.041	.075	-.019	.047	.041	-,107*	-,127*	1

** . $p < 0,01$

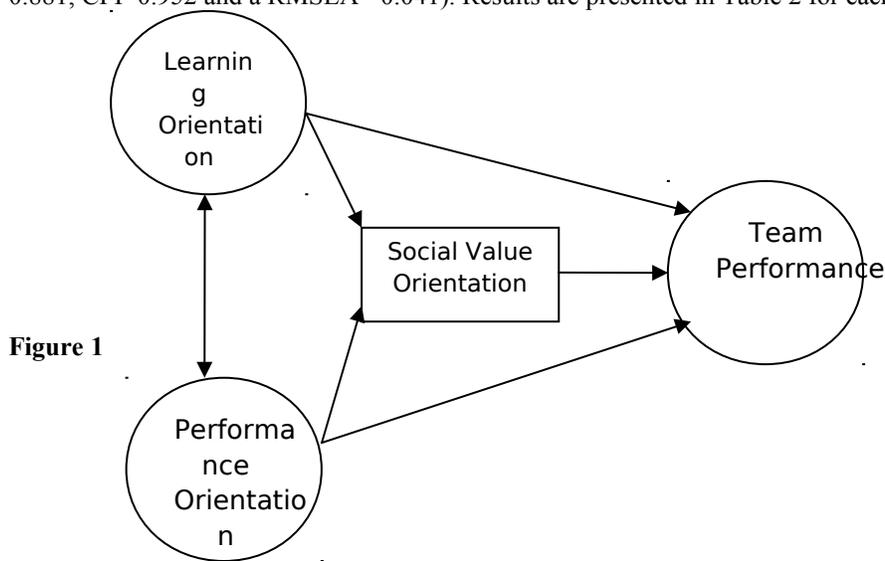
* . $p < 0,05$

Table 1 displays all correlations. Table 1 shows a positive significant relation between age and learning orientation, and a negative significant correlation between age and avoidance orientation. The table also indicates a positive significant correlation between team performance and learning orientation, and a negative significant relation between team performance and avoidance orientation. SVO is negatively and significantly related to both performance orientation constructs. A low SVO suggests that the individual is more likely to be prosocial.

GO, SVO and team performance: Model 1

In order to measure the formulated hypotheses we model GO, SVO and how do they affect over performance. A SEM model was estimated to assess the nature of the relationships. Model 1 is presented in Figure 1.

Model 1 shows a good model fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.719$, NFI = 0.781, CFI=0.847 and a RMSEA= 0.071) with all 342 observations: Nevertheless, the modification indices between the covariance of some unobservable errors were too high and thus, they were set as free parameters. Consequently, the model showed a little improvement on its fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.570$, NFI = 0.881, CFI=0.952 and a RMSEA= 0.041). Results are presented in Table 2 for each formulated hypothesis.



H1 H4

 H5

H2 H4

Table 2

Dependant Variable		Independent Variable	Estimate	S.E.	p
SVO°	H1	Learning orientation Performance	,729	,767	,342
SVO°	H2	orientation	-4,738	2,17	*
Team performance	H3	Learning orientation Performance	,214	,056	**
Team performance	H4	orientation	-,129	,135	,339
Team performance	H5	SVO°	,002	,004	,618

** . p < 0,01

* . p < 0,05

As hypothesized, the results show that performance orientation is negatively related to SVO ($\beta=-4.738$, $p=0.029$). Therefore Hypothesis 2 is supported, indicating that the more individuals assume performance oriented goals, the more likely they are to have a prosocial orientation. Hypothesis 3 is also supported. Results indicate that the more an individual is oriented to learning, the higher the team related performance of these individuals ($\beta=0.214$, $p=0,000$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Contrary to our expectations, Hypotheses 1, 4 and 5 are not supported. Results indicate that learning orientation is not related to a prosocial orientation ($\beta=0.729$, $p=0,342$). Performance orientation is not significantly related to team performance ($\beta=-0.129$, $p=0,339$). Prosocial orientation is not significantly related to team performance ($\beta=0.002$, $p=0,618$).

GO, Prosocial motives and team performance: Model 2

In order to measure the relationship between GO and prosocial motivations of people, we develop a second model. The model is explained in Figure 2. This model includes an inequity averse index. This variable indicates if an individual is motivated by joint outcome maximization or motivated by inequity aversion. Figure 2 shows a Therefore, this second SEM model that only takes into account prosocial individuals (N= 260). in order to measure the relationship between GO and motivations of people, we develop a model that indicate if the individual is motivated by joint outcome maximization or motivated by inequity aversion. Those motivations are presented with t The inequity averse index, which indicates a joint outcomes maximization motivation as it gets closer to 1 and an inequity averse motivation as it gets closer to 0.

Figure 2

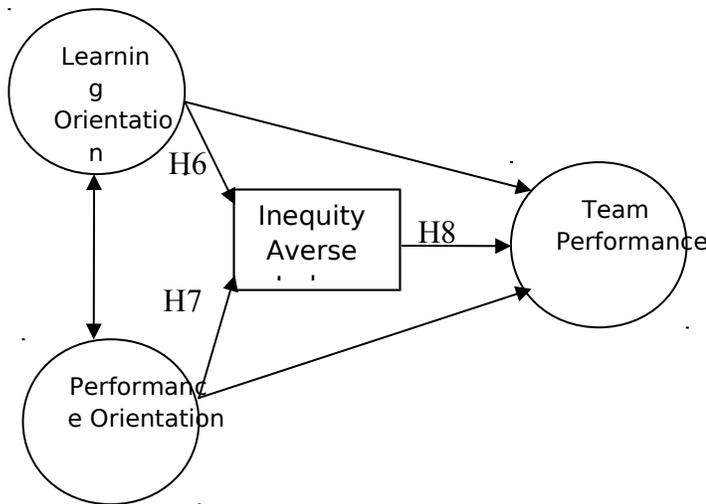


Table 3

Dependant Variable		Independant Variable	Estimate	S.E.	P
Inequity averse index	H6	Learning orientation	,020	,019	,303
Inequity averse index	H7	Performance orientation	,072	,024	**
Team performance	H8	Inequity averse index	-,108	,208	,603
Team performance		Performance orientation	-,114	,076	,131
Team performance		Learning orientation	,202	,064	**

** . p < 0,01

*. p < 0,05

Model 2 shows a good fit ($X^2/df = 2.201$, $NFI = 0.769$, $CFI=0.856$ and a $RMSEA= 0.068$). Model 2 used 260 observations, from which 180 were motivated by inequity aversion and 80 where motivated by joint outcomes maximization. As in Model 1, the covariances of a set of unobservable errors were set as a free parameter in order to

improve the goodness of fit. After this, Model 2 ~~also~~ showed an improvement on its fit ($X^2/df = 1.465$, NFI = 0.852, CFI=0.947 and a RMSEA= 0.042). See Table 3 for results.

For Hypothesis 7, results indicate that the higher the performance orientation, the higher the inequity averse index ($\beta=0.072$, $p=.003$). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is supported, ~~this means that~~ those prosocial individuals that are more oriented to adopt performance goals ~~a prosocial individual is~~, the more likely he or she is motivated by joint outcome maximization.

Contrary to expectations, Hypothesis 6 and 8 do not yield significant results. For Hypothesis 6, results indicate that learning orientation is not related with the inequity averse index ($\beta=0.020$, $p=0,303$). For Hypothesis 8, the table shows that the inequity averse index is not related significantly to team performance of a prosocial individual ($\beta=-0.108$, $p=0,603$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is not supported

As in Model 1, results show that for prosocial people, performance orientation is not significantly related to team performance ($\beta=-0.114$, $p=0,131$) and. ~~Finally,~~ learning orientation is significantly related to team performance ~~on prosocial individuals~~ ($\beta=0.202$, $p=0,002$).

Discussion

The following section summarizes main findings, implications and limitations and directions for future research.

Main findings

Several findings emerge from this study. First, there seems to be an indirect relationship among team performance, SVO and GO. While learning orientation positively relates to team performance, performance orientation relates negatively to SVO. This means that proself people are more likely adopt a performance orientation, but without a positive impact over their performance in teams. Second, prosocial people that are more likely to be motivated by joint outcome maximization tend to be performance oriented and again, without any positive impact over team performance. Nevertheless, the effect over prosocial people of adopting a learning orientation has a positive influence over team performance. Third, consistent with the literature, teams with people who endorse learning goals are more likely to succeed with an increased intra team performance of these individuals over those teams composed by members who engage in a performance orientation. Fourth, teams composed by people oriented to performance are not willing to obtain a better performance than those teams composed by people oriented to learning. Also, teams composed by performance-oriented people are more likely to be proself oriented as well.

The findings in this study demonstrate that employee SVO is as important as knowing cueing an adaptive goal orientation since teamwork is influenced by these two constructs. Firms that can identify and foster the adaptive SVO and GO's of their employees are better equipped to maximize employee team performance. As equality in outcomes is a prosocial motivation that relates negatively to performance, then people motivated by equality in outcomes are more inclined to use an equal split as a fair rule in negotiation settings (De Dreu and Boles, 1998) and therefore more supportive and emphasize egalitarianism (Van Lange et al., 2012).

Implications

Each of these findings has important implications for team performance in organizations. The relationship between SVO and GO allows firms to be aware and to manage several issues. First, firms who are aware about their worker's goals and social values orientations may manage incentives for them in a more accurate way and thus, expect higher levels of individual and team performance (Cellar et al., 2011; Nauta et al, 2002). Second, firms can re-structure their work teams in order to improve their learning capabilities now that they know how their SVO and GO are related. They can also implement practices that enhance the adaptive orientations while minimizing the maladaptive orientations that diminish team related performance. Managers can address the optimal interactions between prosocial and learning oriented workers to help them improve their outcomes, especially in teamwork. And finally, as this study found a significant relationship between team performance and learning orientation, firms who are in need to improve their teamwork performance should integrate prosocial learning oriented workers who are motivated by joint outcomes.

Limitations and direction for future research

Several limitations of this study merit discussion. First, we measured individual performance in teams through RBPS with its considerable limitations. This set of questions not fully capturing the *real* team performance. In other words, more accurate scales or methods should measure team performance. Second, we did not determined overall team performance along with individual performance in order to seek for differences, something that could be very insightful given that the relationship between GO and SVO may vary in an individual and at a team level. Nevertheless, we believe that findings in this research contribute to understand how different human orientations play a decisive role in performance and in decision-making styles. As organizations increasingly use teams as their basic work units, the understanding of what influences performance in teams becomes ever more relevant. The present research extends and develops this emerging literature by showing the influence of both goal and social value orientation over team performance. Further research should to measure this relationship with an experimental approach in order to obtain more clean effects over team performance.

Future studies should include different team compositions depending on what orientations their individuals have. This could deliver more insights about the relationship between goal and social value orientations and how they influencing team performance in particular and, in general, how they impact firm performance over time.

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