Doing Good, Feeling Good?
The Roles of Helping Motivation and Citizenship Pressure

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on self-determination theory, this research investigates whether the motivation behind employees' helping behaviors is associated with their positive affect and their subsequent help provision, and whether citizenship pressure moderates these relationships. A recall-based experiment and an experience-sampling study capturing helping episodes among fulltime employees found that when employees helped coworkers because of higher autonomous (controlled) motivation in a helping episode, they experienced higher (lower) positive affect, and they had stronger (weaker) helping intentions and helped coworkers more (less) subsequently. We further found that citizenship pressure enhanced the positive relationship between episodic autonomous motivation and positive affect. Overall, the results challenge the universality of the "doing good-feeling good" effect, and explicate the joint roles of citizenship pressure and helpers' episodic motivation in influencing employees' positive affect and their subsequent helping behaviors.

Keywords: organizational citizenship behaviors; helping motivation; self-determination theory; positive affect; citizenship pressure

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Helping behavior, or organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals (OCB-I, Organ, 1988), is one of the most prominent research topics in the field of organizational behavior. Scholars have argued that "few things leaders can do are more important than encouraging helping behavior within their organizations" (Amabile, Fisher, & Pillemer, 2014, p. 59) because helping among employees was found to predict higher team performance as well as organizational performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Recent developments in the literature on helping behavior have focused on understanding how helping others influences helpers, and thereby contributed to a more balanced understanding of the consequences of helping (Bolino & Grant, 2016). Although helping others may deplete self-regulatory resources (Lanaj, Johnson, & Wang, 2016), result in citizenship fatigue (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015), and impede work progress (Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016) and career advancement (Bergeron, Shipp, Rosen, & Furst, 2013), research has consistently demonstrated that helping can boost helpers' positive affect, which is well documented as the "doing good-feeling good" effect (e.g., Glomb, Bhave, Miner, & Wall, 2011; Koopman et al., 2016; Williamson & Clark, 1989).

In discussing the "doing good-feeling good" effect, Glomb and colleagues (2011) highlighted that different types of motivation for helping might have different implications for the mood enhancing effect. Indeed, recent research suggests that individuals with higher prosocial motivation are more likely to experience the "doing good-feeling good" effect (Bolino, Harvey, & Bachrach, 2012), because such individuals act consistently with their authentic interests and values when helping others, thereby providing help is psychologically satisfying (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Although earlier research on OCB-I focused on discretionary helping behavior (Organ, 1988), employees may also help coworkers as required by their jobs (Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004). Therefore, helping

coworkers might not always be voluntary, but could at times be compulsory. Research has shown that when helping is not voluntary or is pressured by external factors, helpers feel less good about their jobs after helping (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Therefore, to achieve a better understanding of the "doing good-feeling good" effect, it is critical to examine the reasons that guide individuals' decisions to help coworkers at work, especially to what extent helping is voluntary, and how these reasons influence helpers' positive affect[1].

Drawing on self-determination theory, which states that individuals have a basic desire to determine their own behaviors or a need for autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000b), the current research focuses on autonomous motivation and controlled motivation to understand the reasons why employees help their coworkers. Employees' helping behaviors might be voluntary or might be pressured. Helping behaviors that one enacts freely are described as being driven by autonomous motivation, whereas helping behaviors that one enacts because of internal or external pressure are described as being driven by controlled motivation (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Further, as help is mostly solicited (Burke, Weir, & Duncan, 1976) and is dynamic and dyadic in nature (Golan & Bamberger, 2015), why one helps varies from one helping episode to another (Flynn, 2006). Therefore, it is essential to focus on helping motivation at the episodic level or situational level (Vallerand, 1997), instead of examining helping motivation as a stable, long-term construct, as previous studies have done (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Although Bolino (1999) has theorized that the impact of helping behaviors is contingent on individuals' helping motivation, we know little about how helping driven by different helping motivation influences helpers' affect and behavior in the organizational context (for an exception, see Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017). Accordingly, the present study has two main purposes. First, we posit and test the idea that two types of helping

motivation (i.e., autonomous motivation and controlled motivation) in a helping episode have different implications for helpers' affect such that autonomous motivation is related to higher positive affect whereas controlled motivation is related to lower positive affect. We further argue that the reasons why individuals help their coworkers in one helping episode have distinct influences on their helping tendency at a later time, and that the positive affect employees experience during helping is the key factor influencing their desire to engage in subsequent helping behavior.

Second, to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the effects of episodic helping motivation on affective and behavioral outcomes, we examine helping episodes across employees who perceive varying levels of citizenship pressure to be prevalent in their workplace. Citizenship pressure is defined as individuals' perception of pressure from the workplace to perform citizenship behavior and stems from environmental forces, such as helping norms and role perception (Bolino et al., 2010). Therefore, citizenship pressure represents a trait-like individual difference that is somewhat stable across situations and over time. Our argument is that even employees who generally perceive high (or low) citizenship pressure at work, can occasionally experience high autonomous (or controlled) motivation for helping a coworker, due to the dyadic and dynamic nature of helping (Golan & Bamberger, 2015). As individuals do not live in a historical vacuum, a contrast-based theoretical lens suggests that one's pervious experiences or one's general experiences in the workplace might influence their reactions to the present experience (Frederick & Loewenstein, 1999; Markman & McMullen, 2003; Tversky & Griffin, 1991). Therefore, citizenship pressure, which represents a general perception of how much pressure from the work environment to help coworker, may influence how one reacts to the current helping experience.

In sum, we examine the results of episodic helping that is enacted for seemly paradoxical reasons; for example, we examine the association of episodic helping behavior

enacted by an employee who perceives high (or low) general citizenship pressure at work but experiences high autonomous motivation (or high controlled motivation) to help in the specific helping episode. In doing so, we investigate whether citizenship pressure influences the "doing good-feeling good" effect by moderating the relationship between episodic helping motivation and positive affect. Figure 1 depicts our hypothesized model.

Insert Figure 1 about here

We first present self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 1997) as the overarching theory that helps us derive our hypotheses. Second, we test our ideas using two studies, a recall-based experiment conducted with fulltime employees in the United States, and an experience-sampling study using fulltime employees in China. With the two-study examination of our theoretical model, we contribute to understanding *why* the "doing good-feeling good" effect manifests itself with respect to citizenship behaviors at work (Glomb et al., 2011). In doing so, we contribute to the broader literature on citizenship behavior by (a) proposing that motivation should be included into theorizing about the effects of helping on affect, and developing an episodic, dynamic model specifying how motivation and affect are interrelated within individuals, (b) specifically introducing the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation and theorizing different effects for these two constructs, and (c) integrating the concept of citizenship pressure in our theoretical model and proposing that autonomous motivation is especially important in bringing about the "doing good-feeling good" effect among individuals who perceive higher citizenship pressure.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An Episodic Perspective on Helping Motivation in Self-determination Theory

To understand the different types of helping motivation, we draw on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000b;

Sheldon & Elliot, 1998) which underscores the importance of the type of helping motivation (i.e, the "why") behind individuals' actions, beyond the importance of the nature of the activities (i.e., the "what"), in influencing their psychological well-being and optimal functioning. According to this theory, the reasons why people enact a behavior vary on a continuum of self-determination, from autonomous forms to more controlled forms. Applying this theory to the helping context, research has suggested that helping might be driven either by autonomous motivation or by controlled motivation (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). When individuals help because it is enjoyable and challenging (i.e., intrinsic reasons), because it reflects their true self (i.e., integrated reasons), or because it is personally meaningful (i.e., identified reasons), they are helping out of *autonomous motivation*. In contrast, when individuals help in order to demonstrate their ability, to maintain their sense of self-worth, or to avoid negative feelings (i.e., introjected reasons); or to comply with organizational pressure, or to gain external rewards (i.e., external reasons), they are helping from *controlled motivation*.

In his hierarchical model of motivation, Vallerand highlighted that motivation "exist[s] within the individual at three hierarchical levels of generality" (1997, p. 274), including the global/personality level, contextual/life domain level, and situational/event level. Take helping motivation as an example – helping motivation at the global level refers to why individuals help others in general across time, domain, and situations; at the contextual level, refers to why they help people in a specific domain (e.g., work domain or family domain) in general; and at the situational level, refers to why they help a specific person at a specific moment in time or within a specific helping episode. In reacting to a specific request for help, one may evaluate the worth of a helpful behavior based on the characteristics of the situation, for instance, whether help is requested by someone with a closed relationship, whether help request signals urgency, or whether help is requested in an

imposing manner (Flynn, 2006; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Thus, helping motivation might fluctuate from episode to episode, and such fluctuation is largely determined by situational factors (i.e., characteristics of the helping episode). As several researchers have advocated the importance of capturing discrete episodes of helping and examining the psychological states occurring within these episodes as well as their affective and behavioral consequences (Glomb et al., 2011; Organ & Ryan, 1995), we take an episodic perspective in this study to examine how episodic helping motivation influences helpers' affect and subsequent behavior.

Autonomous versus Controlled Helping Motivation and Positive Affect

Self-determination theory suggests that humans are naturally inclined to enhance their psychological well-being by pursuing goals that satisfy three basic psychological needs: the need for autonomy, the need for relatedness, and the need for competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). These basic needs are satisfied when individuals can initiate and regulate their actions based on free will, when they feel connected with other individuals or collectives, and when they can effectively influence the environment, respectively. Engaging in activities that satisfy these three basic needs enhances individuals' motivation and positive affect (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016).

Whereas the "doing good-feeling good" effect states that helping generally leads to positive affect, self-determination theory suggests that whether or not helping leads to positive affect would be determined by the motivation underlying helping and the resulting need satisfaction. In general, providing help satisfies the helpers' need for relatedness and need for competence. Helping is an interpersonal process in which individuals expend personal resources to maintain social relationships (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007), and to ensure future reciprocity (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015), the process of which satisfies helpers' need for relatedness. Additionally, helping others satisfies individuals' need for competence, as by providing help, individuals signal their competence (e.g., because they

knew how to solve a problem whereas others did not), and thus gain social status and prestige (Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006), which is likely to increase positive affect.

The importance of the need for relatedness and competence notwithstanding, the most important basic psychological need for the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation, is the need for autonomy. Furthermore, autonomy plays a major role in other motivational models as well (e.g., the job demands-resource model, Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; the job characteristics model, Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Thus, in our theorizing we specifically consider the interrelationships between the two types of motivation for helping and positive affect that employees experience as a result of the satisfaction of their need for autonomy. Specifically, when helping behaviors are driven by higher autonomous motivation (compared to lower autonomous motivation), individuals' need for autonomy is more likely to be satisfied, and higher positive affect should ensue. However, when individuals perceive their help as driven by higher controlled motivation (compared to lower controlled motivation), their need for autonomy is thwarted, the process of which may result in lower positive affect and lower vitality (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, Bosch, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Helping behavior resulting from higher autonomous motivation would likely result in the *doing good- feeling good* effect, whereas the very same behavior resulting from higher controlled motivation might instead result in a *doing good- feeling less good* effect. Thus, we hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1a: In helping episodes, autonomous motivation will be positively associated with positive affect.

Hypothesis 1b: In helping episodes, controlled motivation will be negatively associated with positive affect.

Helping Motivation and Subsequent Helping: The Role of Positive Affect

We further examine whether autonomous and controlled motivations that employees

experience in a helping episode are related to their subsequent helping. Theory and research findings on the link between a helping episode and subsequent helping have been divergent. First, people have a tendency to act consistently; thus, an earlier prosocial act is likely to result in further prosocial behaviors (Freedman & Fraser, 1966). However, other research has found that individuals reduce their helping tendency after recalling a time when they helped others (Jordan, Mullen, & Murnighan, 2011), which suggests that employees would have lower helping intentions and behavior following a helping episode (perhaps because helping others uses up the helper's resources, including time and energy; Bolino et al., 2015). This second possibility is also consistent with the observation that employees often view helping as an unwanted interruption (Perlow & Weeks, 2002), perceive the work progress being negatively impacted (Koopman et al., 2016), and report being exhausted after providing help (Bolino et al., 2015). We believe these contradictory perspectives and findings on the consequences of a helping episode for future helping can be reconciled by examining the motivation behind the helping episode (autonomous vs. controlled). Furthermore, we theorize that positive affect during a helping episode serves as a mechanism linking helping motivation to subsequent helping, as we explain below.

First, when employees are feeling positive, they are more likely to be attentive to those in need. George and Brief (1992) theorized that positive affect is a pivotal precursor of helping behaviors at work because when individuals experience higher positive affect, they are more likely to perceive others' need for help in a positive light, are more attracted to others, and therefore, more likely to approach them with offers to help. The broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) also suggests that positive affect broadens individuals' scope of attention and thus helps them detect distressed others at work. Second, the mood maintenance model argues that people in a positive mood continue engaging in behaviors that have been instrumental in generating their current positive mood (Wegener & Petty, 1994).

Thus, if a prior helping episode has engendered positive affect, continuing to help coworkers would help to maintain the helpers' positive mood. Third, positive affective experiences play an important role in individuals' behavioral regulation, such that when individuals experience positive affect, they are more likely to maintain a prior chosen action over time and continue what they have been doing (Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004). In other words, the positive affect that people experience in a given helping episode serves as a positive reinforcement that increases the person's likelihood of repeating the same behavior subsequently. Similarly, Bolino and colleagues (2012) noted that such a behavioral regulation process might be influenced by affective systems - when helping is congruent with one's self-concept, which may indicate a high autonomous motivation, the positive experiences accompanying the helping process will motivate the helpers to engage in such behavior in the future. Thus, we propose,

Hypothesis 2: When individuals experience higher positive affect during a helping episode, they are more likely to engage in subsequent helping behaviors.

Hypothesis 3a: Episodic autonomous motivation has a positive indirect effect on subsequent helping behaviors via positive affect.

Hypothesis 3b: Episodic controlled motivation has a negative indirect effect on subsequent helping behaviors via positive affect.

Moderating Effects of Citizenship Pressure

We have thus far focused on how different types of helping motivation relate to positive affect and subsequent helping at the episodic level. However, self-determination theory highlights that to better understand how momentary need satisfaction influences individuals' psychological well-being, we need to consider individuals' past or general experiences of need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In the domain of helping behaviors, a key factor that is likely to influence individuals' longer-term need satisfaction with respect to

autonomy is *citizenship pressure*.

Citizenship pressure is experienced by employees when the organization or the work environment formally or informally rewards helping behaviors, such as giving more approval, more positive evaluations, or faster promotions to employees who help their coworkers more (Bolino et al., 2015). In a workplace with high citizenship pressure, employees may perceive a threat to these valuable resources and opportunities if they do not constantly help their coworkers. Therefore, in such workplaces, employees lack full autonomy about whether or not to go beyond the call of duty to help coworkers, and instead they feel pressured to help others because they "should" or they "must" (Bolino et al., 2010) due to the associated rewards or punishments. Thus, high citizenship pressure would hinder employees' autonomy need satisfaction in general in the helping domain.

From a contrast-based theoretical lens, individuals actively compare their current experiences with related experiences in the past or in general (Schwarz & Strack, 1991). When individuals typically have negative experiences, they are more appreciative of current positive experiences compared to when they typically have less negative experiences; in contrast, when individuals typically have positive experiences, they react more aversely to current negative experiences compared to when they typically have less positive experiences (Frederick & Loewenstein, 1999; Tversky & Griffin, 1991). We extend this rationale to the domain of helping at work. Research has shown that perceiving citizenship pressure is a negative experience as it is related to higher job stress, higher work-family conflict, and higher turnover intention (Bolino et al., 2010). For employees who experience higher citizenship pressure in the workplace, i.e., whose need for autonomy is generally less satisfied by helping behaviors, a helping episode in which their need for autonomy is temporarily satisfied (i.e., when they help because of higher autonomous motivation) would stand out and is likely to be perceived as particularly positive. Similarly, for employees who

experience lower citizenship pressure in the workplace, i.e., whose need for autonomy is generally satisfied by their helping behaviors, a helping episode in which their need for autonomy is temporarily not satisfied (i.e., when they help because of higher controlled motivation) might be especially salient, thus, resulting in a stronger negative relationship between episodic controlled motivation and positive affect. Thus, we propose,

Hypothesis 4a: Citizenship pressure moderates the positive relationship between episodic autonomous motivation and positive affect, such that this positive relationship is stronger when citizenship pressure is higher.

Hypothesis 4b: Citizenship pressure moderates the negative relationship between episodic controlled motivation and positive affect, such that this negative relationship is stronger when citizenship pressure is lower.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We conducted two studies to test these hypotheses. In Study 1, we used an experimental design to test the causal effects of employees' two types of helping motivation on their positive affect during the helping episode (Hypotheses 1a & 1b), the relationship between positive affect and future helping intention (Hypothesis 2), the indirect effects of two types of helping motivation on helping intention via positive affect (Hypotheses 3a & 3b), as well as the moderating effects of citizenship pressure on the relationships between autonomous and controlled helping motivation and positive affect (Hypotheses 4a & 4b). Seeking to replicate Study 1's findings using an ecologically valid design, Study 2 used an experience sampling design to capture employees' helping episodes (one in the morning and one in the afternoon, if any) over a period of 10 workdays and again tested all of our hypotheses simultaneously. This research was approved by the National University of Singapore Institutional Review Board (#A-16-309: Work experiences, self-concept, and well-being; #14-083: Attitudes, decision making, and performance).

STUDY 1

Participants and Procedure

We recruited 400 fulltime employees (51% women, 49% men; mean age 35.5 years; current organizational tenure 5.88 years) who had worked for their current organizations for at least 6 months from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Results from employees recruited through MTurk are similar to those from employees recruited using traditional methods that are commonly used in organizational behavior research (Adam & Shirako, 2013; Kouchaki & Desai, 2015; Lee, Gino, & Staats, 2014).

Participants first completed a measure of the citizenship pressure that they experienced in general in their current organizations. They were then randomly assigned to the autonomous motivation condition, the controlled motivation condition, or the unspecified motivation condition. To manipulate helping motivation, we asked participants to recall a helping incident in which they either *helped a coworker* in their current organization (unspecified motivation condition) or *helped a coworker out of their own choice* (autonomous motivation condition) or *helped a coworker because they had to* (controlled motivation condition). They were asked to type 3-5 sentences to describe the helping incident. Thereafter, we measured participants' positive affect during this helping incident and their intention to help this coworker in the future, and conducted a manipulation check.

Measures

Citizenship pressure was measured before the experimental manipulation. Following the procedure used by Bolino and colleagues (2010), we presented participants with six items describing task-focused interpersonal citizenship behaviors (sample item: "Help coworkers with difficult assignments, even when assistance is not directly requested"; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Participants were asked to rate how often they felt pressured to engage in each helping behavior in their current organizations, on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "never

feel pressured to"; 7 = "always feel pressured to"). The scale had high internal consistency, $\alpha = 0.93$.

After the experimental manipulation, we measured participants' *positive affect* during the helping incident using a mood scale adapted from Tellegen, Watson, and Clark (1999). Participants were asked to rate their agreement with three items: "I felt *happy* in this helping incident," "I felt *comfortable* in this helping incident," and "I felt *pleasant* in this helping incident" ($\alpha = .91$). Participants responded using 7-point Likert scales ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree.* To measure participants' *future helping intention*, we asked them to rate how willing they would be to help this coworker again in the future on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *completely unwilling* to *completely willing*. Finally, as a manipulation check, we measured perceived free will by asking participants to rate their agreement on a single item – "In this helping incident, I had free will to choose whether to help or not" on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Analyses

As our independent variable is multi-categorical (autonomous motivation vs. controlled motivation vs. unspecified motivation), we first conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the manipulation check item. To test our hypotheses simultaneously in a full moderated-mediation model, we used the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2017). Following Hayes' suggestions, we used the indicator coding approach to code the three conditions into two dummy variables, one indicating the autonomous motivation condition and the other indicating the controlled motivation condition. Participants randomly assigned to the autonomous motivation condition were coded as 1 for autonomous motivation and 0 for controlled motivation, and vice versa if they were assigned to the controlled motivation condition. Participants assigned to the unspecified motivation condition were coded 0 for both autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. We modeled these two

dummy variables as the independent variables, citizenship pressure as the first-stage moderator, positive affect as the mediator, and future helping intention as the dependent variable. Using PROCESS (Model 7 with the setting of the independent variable as a multi-categorical variable using the indicator coding approach), we could estimate the relative indirect effects of both the autonomous motivation and the controlled motivation conditions relative to the unspecified motivation condition (Hayes & Preacher, 2014), as well as the conditional relative indirect effects based on the levels of citizenship pressure, with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) created by 10,000 bootstrapped samples. Effects are considered significant if their respective 95% CIs do not include 0.

Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables. We conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the distinctiveness of the study variables. As our independent variables are experimental manipulations, we conducted CFA using Mplus 7 with the three items indicating positive affect, the single item indicating helping intention, and the six items indicating citizenship pressure. Because helping intention was measured by a single item, we fixed its factor loading to its latent factor as one and its error variance as zero. Results indicated that the three-factor model fit the data well: $\chi^2 = 83.67$, $df = 33$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .98, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .98, standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .02, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06. Additionally, this model fit the data better than any alternative models except the one in which the items for positive affect and the single item of helping intention were specified to indicate a common factor, which fit the data equally well (but not better; $\chi^2 = 83.70$, $df = 34$, CFI = .98, TLI = .98, SRMR = .02, RMSEA = .06). We will revisit this issue in the section where we explain how Study 2 was designed to address several limitations associated with Study 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

In addition, we conducted a series of one-way ANOVA with experimental condition as the predictor and perceived free will (manipulation check), positive affect, and future helping intention as outcomes, followed by post-hoc analyses. The results are presented in Table 2. First, findings from the manipulation check ANOVA indicated that participants in different conditions experienced different levels of free will (F (2,397) = 77.96, $p < .01$), with those in the autonomous motivation condition experiencing the highest level of free will ($M_{autonomous}$ = 6.12, $SD_{autonomous}$ = 1.12), followed by those in the unspecified motivation condition ($M_{unspecified}$ = 5.22, $SD_{unspecified}$ = 1.93), and finally, by those in the controlled motivation condition ($M_{controlled}$ = 3.60, $SD_{controlled}$ = 1.80). Thus, the results confirmed that the experimental manipulation successfully altered helping motivation.

Insert Table 2 about here

Second, a one-way ANOVA with positive affect as the outcome found that participants in different helping motivation conditions experienced different levels of positive affect (F (2,397) = 53.73, $p < .01$) and reported different levels of future helping intention (F (2,397) = 24.52, $p < .01$). Specifically, participants in the autonomous motivation condition reported higher positive affect ($M_{autonomous}$ = 5.63, $SD_{autonomous}$ = 1.06) and higher helping intention ($M_{autonomous}$ = 6.31, $SD_{autonomous}$ = 1.00), compared to those in the unspecified motivation condition (positive affect: $M_{unspecified}$ = 5.11, $SD_{unspecified}$ = 1.53; future helping intention: $M_{unspecified}$ = 5.98, $SD_{unspecified}$ = 1.56), and those in the controlled motivation condition (positive affect: $M_{controlled}$ = 3.85, $SD_{controlled}$ = 1.62; future helping intention: $M_{controlled}$ = 5.06, $SD_{controlled}$ = 1.83)[2]. These results provided preliminary support for our hypotheses that individuals' helping motivation would shape their affect and future helping

intentions.

Table 3 presents the results of the hypothesis tests using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2017). First, Hypothesis 1a and 1b posited that autonomous motivation would be positively related to positive affect, and controlled motivation would be negatively related to positive affect. Results showed that the autonomous motivation condition, compared to unspecified motivation condition, resulted in higher positive affect (B = .62, p < .01), whereas the controlled motivation condition, compared to unspecified motivation condition, resulted in lower positive affect (B = -1.13, p < .01). Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported, with 29% of the variance in positive affect being explained by our experimental manipulation, citizenship pressure, and their product terms. Second, we found a positive relationship between positive affect and future helping intention (B = .73, p < .01), in support of Hypothesis 2. Third, we also found a positive indirect effect of the autonomous motivation condition on higher future helping intention via enhanced positive affect (indirect effect = 0.45, SE = 0.12, 95% CI [0.22, 0.70]), and a negative indirect effect of the controlled motivation condition on lower future helping intention via decreased positive affect (indirect effect = -0.82, SE = 0.15, 95% CI [-1.12, -0.53]). Therefore, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were both supported. Overall, this model explained 54% of the variance in future helping intention.

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypothesis 4a proposed that citizenship pressure would enhance the positive relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect. We found that citizenship pressure moderated the positive relationship between the autonomous motivation condition and positive affect (B = .33, p < .01). Simple slope analyses from PROCESS showed that, when citizenship pressure was high (one standard deviation above the mean), the effect of the autonomous motivation condition on positive affect was stronger (simple slope = 1.07, SE =

0.24, p <.01), compared to when citizenship pressure was low (one standard deviation below the mean; simple slope = 0.17, *SE* = 0.24, *n.s.*). Thus, Hypothesis 4a was supported. We also tested the conditional indirect effects. When citizenship pressure was high, the indirect effect of the autonomous motivation condition on future helping intention via positive affect was stronger (indirect effect = 0.78, *SE* = 0.20, 95% CI [0.40, 1.20]) than that when citizenship pressure was low (indirect effect = 0.12, *SE* = 0.14, 95% CI [-0.15, 0.40]; difference = 0.66, *SE* =0.25, 95% CI [0.20, 1.16]).

Hypothesis 4b posited the moderating effect of citizenship pressure on the negative relationship between controlled motivation and positive affect. Our finding did not support this hypothesis (*B* = .05, *n.s.*), such that the negative relationship between the controlled motivation condition and positive affect when citizenship pressure is high (simple slope = -1.05, *SE* = 0.24, p <.01) did not differ from that when citizenship pressure is low (simple slope = -1.20, *SE* = 0.23, p <.01).

To illustrate the differences in positive affect across the three helping conditions at the two levels of citizenship pressure, we plotted the interaction effects simultaneously in Figure 2. The point differences matched with the simple slope results reported above. For example, the difference in simple slopes (high vs. low citizenship pressure) for the relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect as indicated above was driven by the difference of positive affect between autonomous motivation condition and unspecified motivation condition when citizenship pressure was high (5.535 vs. 4.464), as values of positive affect for autonomous motivation and unspecified motivation were almost the same when citizenship pressure was low (5.730 vs. 5.535). This suggests that effect of autonomous motivation on positive affect in fact neutralizes the negative effect of citizenship pressure that can be observed for both controlled motivation and unspecified motivation (see Figure 2).

Insert Figure 2 about here

Discussion

Study 1 demonstrated that different types of helping motivation exerted causal effects on employees' positive affect when they helped their coworkers: participants reported that they experienced higher positive affect when they helped because of autonomous motivation compared to an unspecified motivation, and that they experienced lower positive affect when they helped because of controlled motivation compared to an unspecified motivation. Additionally, positive affect was related to higher intention to help the same coworker in the future. We also found that positive affect served as a mechanism explaining the causal effect of differential helping motivation on future helping intention. Although we did not find a moderating effect of citizenship pressure on the relationship between controlled motivation and positive affect, we did find a moderating effect of citizenship pressure on the relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect, such that the autonomous motivation condition led to a greater increase (from the unspecified motivation condition) in positive affect, under high citizenship pressure, compared to low citizenship pressure. Thus, Study 1 provided support for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2, 3a, 3b, and 4a.

STUDY 2

As Study 1 was an experiment, it helped provide causal evidence for the influence of helping motivation on positive affect. However, Study 1 has a number of limitations. First, we asked employees to recall helping incidents and their affective experiences during that helping incident, instead of measuring their responses to naturally occurring helping episodes at work. Thus, the ecological validity of these findings might be questioned. Second, in order to manipulate helping motivation, we asked participants to recall helping incidents in which they helped out of their own choices *or* in which they helped because they had to. However, in real life, multiple types of motivation can drive the same behavior (Grant & Mayer, 2009),

and individuals might have more ambivalent attributions of why they helped. Therefore, it would be more appropriate to measure both autonomous motivation and controlled motivation in a given helping episode. Finally, the outcome variable in Study 1 was helping intention, which served as a proxy for subsequent helping behaviors. As people do not always act on their intentions, this might also weaken the ecological validity of our results. In addition, our CFA results did not fully support the distinctiveness of positive affect and helping intention, as the fit of a model where the items of these two constructs were specified to indicate a single construct was as good as (but not better than) the fit of a two-factor model where these constructs were distinct. We speculate that this is due to the single-item measure of helping intention and the lack of a time lag between the measurements of these two variables.

To address these limitations, we conducted a second study using an experience-sampling methodology that captured naturally occurring helping episodes at work. We examined how employees' helping motivation in each helping episode was associated with their positive affect and their subsequent helping behavior. We further tested whether citizenship pressure moderated the relationships between episodic helping motivation and positive affect. The data of Study 2 were collected as part of a research project on employees' work and family life. With the exception of helping behavior at work, which was aggregated to the day level and used as an independent variable in another article (see Lin, Ilies, Pluut, & Pan, 2017, for details), none of the variables used herein have been used in prior work. That is, in this study, we treat helping behavior at work as an episodic outcome and not as a daily predictor.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited from alumni of a university located in a major city in southern China. A total of 106 full-time employees registered to participate. Of these, twenty-six participants were not included in the analyses. Among them, four participants did not proceed to complete the daily surveys, five participants did not report any helping incidents, and seventeen reported no more than 2 helping incidents throughout the study period. Therefore, our final sample consists of 80 fulltime employees (41 women, 39 men; mean age 30.2 years) who reported at least three helping incidents throughout the period of our study. On average, the participants had been working in their current organizations for an average of 3.8 years, with 31 percent of them holding a leadership position. They were employed in a wide range of occupations – 30 percent of the participants worked as product or electronic engineers, 16 percent worked as business analysts/consultants, 13 percent worked as personal or relationship managers, 11 percent held administrative jobs, 8 percent were sales representatives, 6 percent were researchers in research institutes, 6 percent were teachers, another 6 percent were public servants, and 4 percent had other jobs.

Procedure

This study consisted of two phases. In the first phase, participants were asked to complete a one-time online survey in which we measured their demographic information and citizenship pressure. In the second phase, which occurred one week after the first phase, we captured helping incidents and participants' motivation for helping, as well as their positive affect when they were helping with two daily surveys: a noon lunch-break survey, and an afternoon end-of-work survey[3]. Participants were asked to complete these surveys every workday for a period of 10 workdays (2 weeks). On each workday, we sent out a lunch-break survey at 12:00 p.m. to measure participants' helping frequency in the morning and their helping motivation and positive affect during a specific helping incident. We asked participants to recall the most recent incident within the past 2 hours, in which they helped

coworkers at work, and to answer questions about their helping motivation and positive affect during this helping episode. We sent out the end-of-work survey at 4:30 p.m. and used the same questions to measure participants' helping frequency in the afternoon and their helping motivation and positive affect during the most recent helping episode within the past 2 hours. We captured 344 helping episodes in the morning and 333 helping episodes in the afternoon[4]. Overall, we received data on helping motivation and positive affect for 677 helping episodes from 80 individuals (average number of helping episodes = 8.5 per participant across two weeks).

Measures

Citizenship pressure was measured using the same scale as in Study 1. Participants were asked to rate how often they felt pressured in their current organizations to engage in each of six task-focused helping behaviors on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "never feel pressured to"; 7 = "always feel pressured to"). The scale had high internal consistency reliability of 0.92.

Helping behavior was measured with daily surveys administered in the lunch break and the end of work. We used a shorter version of the task-focused interpersonal citizenship scale (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002), which was validated in a previous experience-sampling study (Lanaj et al., 2016). Participants were asked to indicate how many times they helped their coworkers that morning/afternoon at work on a six-point scale (0 = "never"; 5 = "five or more times"). An example is "This morning/afternoon at work, I went out of my way to help colleagues with work-related problems." The average internal consistency reliability across measures was 0.92.

After participants indicated their helping behavior in the morning/afternoon, we asked them to indicate whether they helped their coworkers in the past two hours (response options: *yes* or *no*). If participants answered *yes*, they were prompted to further recall the most recent

incident in which they helped coworkers at work in the past two hours. For that particular helping episode, we measured participants' *autonomous motivation* and *controlled motivation* using a shorter version of the helping motivation scale developed by Weinstein and Ryan (2010). Four items were used to measure autonomous motivation (sample item: "I helped this colleague because I valued doing so"). Three items were used to measure controlled motivation (sample item: "I helped because I'd feel like a bad person if I didn't"). Participants responded on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree"; 7 = "strongly agree"). The average internal consistency reliability across helping episodes 0.75 for autonomous motivation and 0.76 for controlled motivation.

Participants' *positive affect* when they helped their coworkers was measured using the same scale as in Study 1. They were asked to rate to what extent they felt "happy", "comfortable", and "pleasant" during this helping episode on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "very slightly or not at all"; 7 = "extremely"). The average internal consistency reliability across helping episodes was 0.96.

As research has shown that the time spent on helping influences individuals' subsequent help and support provision (Lin et al., 2017), we controlled for the *duration* of the helping episode recalled. We asked participants how long (in minutes) they spent helping their coworkers in the helping incident they recalled.

Analyses

In this study, the episodic data were nested within individuals. We used Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) to conduct multilevel path analyses in the unconflated multilevel modeling framework (Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). We tested how helping motivation and positive affect during a helping episode (either in the morning or in the afternoon) related to helping behavior during the next period (in the afternoon or next morning, respectively), and how citizenship pressure influenced the relationships between

episodic helping motivation and positive affect. We centered episodic predictors (i.e., autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and positive affect) and control variables (i.e., helping behavior in the current measurement period and duration of the current helping episode) relative to each participant's mean scores on these variables. Random intercept–random slopes models were used to test the main within-individual relationships (Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 2), and the effects of the control variables were modeled using fixed slopes. Indirect effects (Hypotheses 3a and 3b) were estimated and a Monte Carlo simulation with 20,000 replications used to generate confidence intervals around the effects (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010). To test the cross-level moderation effects of citizenship pressure (Hypotheses 4a and 4b) on the relationships between helping motivation and positive affect, we grand-mean centered citizenship pressure and regressed the within-individual level intercepts and slopes on citizenship pressure. To conduct simple slope analyses and to plot the moderation effects, we used the tool developed by Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006). To estimate the effect sizes, we computed pseudo-R^2 values, which indicate the amount of within-individual variance in the outcome variables explained by our study variables, following the suggestions by Hofmann and colleagues (2000).

Results

Table 4 shows the means, standard deviations, percentage of within-individual variance, and correlations among the study variables. We found substantial within-individual variance for each variable (i.e., all above 45%). We also conducted multilevel CFA to demonstrate that our study variables were distinct (Dyer, Hanges, & Hall, 2005). Autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, positive affect, and subsequent helping behavior were included at both the within-individual and the between-individual level, whereas citizenship pressure was included at the between-individual level. Results indicated acceptable model fit: $\chi^2 = 378.03$, $df = 201$, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, $SRMR_{within} = .05$,

$SRMR_{between}$ = .10, RMSEA = .04. This model fit the data better than any alternative models when we loaded any pair of the multilevel variables on one factor. The best fitting alternative model was the one when we specified the items for controlled motivation and positive affect to indicate one single factor (χ^2 = 639.24, *df* = 208, CFI = .87, TLI = .84, $SRMR_{within}$ = .08, $SRMR_{between}$ = .14, RMSEA = .06; Satorra-Bentler χ^2 = 106.91, *df* = 7, $p < .01$).

Insert Tables 4 about here

Table 5 presents the results of the hypothesis tests. First, supporting Hypotheses 1a and 1b, we found that higher autonomous motivation within a helping episode was related to higher positive affect (γ = .31, $p < .01$), whereas higher controlled motivation was related to lower positive affect (γ = -.13, $p < .05$). Overall, 32% of the within-individual variance in positive affect was explained by helping motivation.

Insert Tables 5 about here

Second, positive affect during a helping episode was related to more helping behaviors during a later period of time (γ = .09, $p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported. Hypotheses 3a and 3b posited opposite indirect effects of two types of helping motivation on subsequent helping through positive affect. Results from Monte Carlo simulations found a positive indirect effect of autonomous motivation on subsequent helping via higher positive affect (indirect effect = 0.027, *SE* = 0.012, 95% CI [0.005, 0.054]) and a negative indirect effect of controlled motivation on subsequent helping via lower positive affect (indirect effect = -0.011, *SE* = 0.006, 95% CI [-0.025, -0.002]). Therefore, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were both supported. This model explained 3% of the within-individual variance in subsequent helping.

Finally, Hypotheses 4a and 4b specified the cross-level moderating effects of citizenship pressure on the within-individual relationships between autonomous and

controlled motivation and positive affect. Results showed that citizenship pressure moderated the positive relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect (γ = .06, p < .05), with 5% of the slope variance being explained by citizenship pressure. However, citizenship pressure did not moderate the negative relationship between controlled motivation and positive affect (γ = .02, *n.s.*). Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

We plotted the interaction between autonomous motivation and citizenship pressure at their two conditional values (at one standard deviation above and below the mean) in Figure 3. Results from simple slope analyses showed that, among individuals experiencing higher citizenship pressure, the positive relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect was stronger (simple slope = 0.40, *SE* = 0.06, p <. 01) than that among individuals experiencing lower citizenship pressure (simple slop = 0.21, *SE* = 0.08, p <. 01). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was supported. We also tested the conditional indirect effect of autonomous motivation on subsequent helping through positive affect. We found positive indirect effects of autonomous motivation on helping behavior at a later period of time via higher positive affect for both individuals who experienced higher citizenship pressure (indirect effect = 0.036, *SE* = 0.016, 95% CI [0.007, 0.069]) and individuals who experienced lower citizenship pressure (indirect effect = 0.019, *SE* = 0.010, 95% CI [0.002, 0.044]). These two indirect effects differed significantly from each other (difference = 0.017, *SE* = 0.010, 95% CI [0.0002, 0.041]).

Insert Figure 3 about here

Supplementary Analysis

Self-determination theory also proposed that contextual factors may shape individuals' contextual motivation (Vallerand, 1997). In our study context, contextual helping motivation refers to individuals' helping motivation at work in general (i.e. across helping

episodes). When employees constantly perceive explicit or implicit signals from the work environment based on their previous helping experiences or their observations of the helping norm that they should help coworkers, their autonomy about helping in the work domain is generally less satisfied. Therefore, it is plausible that citizenship pressure would influence employees' contextual motivation for helping, resulting in lower autonomous motivation and higher controlled motivation in general. That is, citizenship pressure may be related to lower autonomous motivation and higher controlled motivation across helping episodes. We tested this idea by adding the relationships between citizenship pressure and helping motivation to the multilevel model we tested above. Results showed that, although citizenship pressure was related to higher controlled motivation across helping episodes ($\gamma = .21$, $p < .05$), it was not related to autonomous motivation ($\gamma = -.11$, $p = .08$). Taken together, citizenship pressure is more likely to predict individuals' contextual controlled motivation but not contextual autonomous motivation.

Discussion

Using an experience-sampling design, Study 2 replicated and extended the findings of Study 1. Study 2 again found that episodic autonomous motivation was associated with higher positive affect, whereas episodic controlled motivation was associated with lower positive affect. We further found that positive affect during a given helping episode carried the effect of helping motivation in a previous helping episode on subsequent help provision in the next period. Additionally, similar to what we found in Study 1, we did not find support for the moderating effect of citizenship pressure on the negative relationship between controlled motivation and positive affect. However, we found support for the moderating effect on the positive relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect. Specifically, the positive relationship between autonomous motivation and positive affect was stronger among employees experiencing higher citizenship pressure. Thus, Study 2

provided support for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2, 3a, 3b, and 4a.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The past two decades of organizational research on helping and positive affect has found support for the "doing good-feeling good" effect (e.g., Glomb et al., 2011; Koopman et al., 2016; Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005). Drawing on self-determination theory, the current two-study examination found opposing effects of autonomous versus controlled motivation in a helping episode on helpers' positive affect. The "doing good-feeling good" effect was only found in helping episodes in which helpers experienced relatively high autonomous motivation. When helpers experienced relatively high controlled motivation, they actually felt less good after doing good. Additionally, we found that positive affect predicted future helping intention (Study 1) and subsequent help provision (Study 2), and that positive affect carried over the effects of helping motivation on subsequent helping.

We also examined the role of citizenship pressure (Bolino et al., 2010) – an indicator of chronic thwarting of autonomy need satisfaction at work, and tested its interactive effect with helping motivation on positive affect. In both studies, we found that citizenship pressure moderated the relationship between episodic autonomous motivation and positive affect, such that this positive relationship was stronger among helpers who perceived higher citizenship pressure. In other words, episodic autonomous motivation was especially beneficial in enhancing helpers' positive affect among those who perceived higher citizenship pressure, which is important because citizenship pressure has a main (negative) effect on positive affect. As shown in Figures 2 and 3, when episodic autonomous motivation was high, helpers experienced high positive affect regardless of their levels of citizenship pressure. Only when episodic autonomous motivation was low, helpers who perceived higher citizenship pressure felt significantly less good when helping. Thus, autonomous motivation is critical in bringing about the "doing good-feeling good" effect, and can neutralize the negative impact of

citizenship pressure on positive affect.

However, across both studies, we did not find support for the moderating effect of citizenship pressure on the negative relationship between controlled motivation and positive affect. As we drew upon the contrast effect to develop our hypotheses, one potential explanation is that the perception of low citizenship pressure does not constitute a relevant positive anchor for the current negative experience to contrast from, and thus the contrast effect is not as salient in the combination of low citizenship pressure and high episodic controlled motivation. Stated in the conceptual terms from self-determination theory, low citizenship pressure, which reflects no autonomy need thwarting, does not indicate that one's need for autonomy in the helping domain is satisfied, as research has shown that need thwarting and need satisfaction are distinct constructs – a low level of need thwarting does not indicate need satisfaction (Gillet, Fouquereau, Forest, Brunault, & Colombat, 2012; Van den Broeck et al., 2016). If the contrast effect is not salient, episodic controlled motivation might not result in a stronger decrease in positive affect for individuals who perceive lower citizenship pressure, compared to those who perceive high citizenship pressure. Future research can test whether the contrast effect of the combination of high citizenship pressure with high autonomous motivation is more salient than that of the combination of low citizenship pressure with high controlled motivation. That being said, the pattern of results of our two studies is remarkably similar in terms of both the support for most of the hypotheses and the lack of support for the interaction effect of controlled motivation and citizenship pressure.

Theoretical Implications

The current research makes three significant contributions to the broad literature on citizenship behavior. First and foremost, we build on earlier work to develop a dynamic model, which takes the role of motivation into account, to understand the "doing good-feeling

good" effect (Glomb et al., 2011; Miner et al., 2005). As helping motivation might "differ not just between individuals, but, quite possibly, over time" (2011, p. 213), we use experience-sampling methodology to "reckon with the problem of detecting episodes of OCB…and the psychological states antecedent to or concurrent with those episodes" (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 796). We find substantial within-individual variance in both autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (49% and 45%, respectively), indicating that motivation fluctuates across helping episodes. Additionally, the within-person examination of the relationship between helping motivation and positive affect adds to the burgeoning literature on the within-person dynamic of citizenship behavior (Scott, Matta, & Koopman, 2016), and answers the call for more research on the motivation behind citizenship behavior as a temporary state as well as its implications (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

We are not the first to examine autonomous and controlled motivation within-individuals; as Weinstein and Ryan (2010) found support for the relationships between daily helping motivation, which was computed by subtracting controlled motivation from autonomous motivation, and daily well-being. Yet our research goes beyond their study in two important ways. First, we measured helping motivation in a single helping episode, instead of measuring helping motivation across helping episodes within the same day. A three-level analysis of variance (episodes nested within days which is nested within individuals) reveals that 64% of the within-individual variance in autonomous motivation and 96% of the within-individual variance in controlled motivation was accounted by within-day variation (i.e., controlled motivation varied from one helping episode to another) rather than between-day variation. Therefore, capturing helping motivation in each helping episode, instead of measuring daily helping motivation (e.g., at the end of the workday), not only addresses a methodological concern about participants' recall bias and evaluation bias when measuring daily helping motivation at the end of the workday, but represents a more

sophisticated and appropriate research design for understanding the real dynamics of motivation across helping episodes. Additionally, as recent research has questioned the use of the relative autonomy index, which Weinstein and Ryan used in their study, and advocated for a multidimensional, continuous conceptualization of autonomous and controlled motivation (Chemolli & Gagné, 2014), we simultaneously examined the distinct effects of both autonomous motivation and controlled motivation on positive affect.

Second, and more importantly, our studies contribute to the citizenship literature by examining the motivational nature of the "doing good-feeling good" effect and its behavioral outcomes. Specifically, we challenge the pervasiveness of the "doing good-feeling good" effect by theorizing the important differentiation between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation in driving a "doing good-feeling good effect" or a "doing good-feeling less good" effect. We find that by doing good, individuals only feel good when they are autonomously motivated, but feel less good when their help is driven by controlled motivation. Notable, the focus on autonomous versus controlled motivation echoes the ongoing discussion about whether enacting OCB-I is voluntary (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995) or due to external pressure (Bolino et al., 2010). Our findings show that it can be both, as autonomous motivation and controlled motivation can coexist in a single helping episode – in fact, these two types of episodic motivation do not correlate with each other in Study 2 (r_{within} = .01, *n.s.*)[5].

Further, our studies extend the research on the consequences of OCB-I with a focus on behavioral consistency, which is seldom examined in the OCB literature. The results of our research contribute to a better understanding of this issue by demonstrating that helping consistency depends on helping motivation. When individuals help because of higher autonomous motivation, they are likely to provide more help later because of the enhanced positive affect accompanying helping; in contrast, when individuals help because of higher

controlled motivation, they are less likely to provide help subsequently because they experience lower positive affect when helping others. These results also shed light on a balanced understanding of the consequences of OCB-I, such that the same behavior driven by different types of motivation could result in opposite consequences (i.e., high vs. low positive affect and more vs. less subsequent helping). Therefore, we concur with Yam and colleagues' (2017) recommendation that motivation should be taken into account when examining the bright side and the dark side of citizenship behavior.

Lastly, the current research advances our understanding of the consequences of citizenship pressure, as well as the factors that might mitigate the negative influence of citizenship pressure. Research on citizenship pressure is still in its early stage, with only one study examining its effect on general work-related outcomes (Bolino et al., 2010), and another study investigating its moderating effect on the relationship between helping and citizenship fatigue (Bolino et al., 2015). Studying citizenship pressure within a self-determination theoretical framework is theoretically meaningful because it allows the conceptualization of citizenship pressure as a contextual factor indicating longer-term thwarting of autonomy need satisfaction and the examination of how its interplay with episodic helping motivation influences positive affect and perhaps other outcomes. We find that, even when individuals generally perceive higher citizenship pressure from the workplace, it is still possible that they may be motivated by autonomous reasons to help a coworker in a specific helping episode, and that autonomous motivation lessens the negative impact of citizenship pressure on the helpers.

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite providing consistent findings across two studies using different methods and samples from different cultures, the present research has a few limitations. First, although Study 2 used an experience-sampling design to capture helping episodes at work, due to our

research design, we were only able to capture one helping episode in the morning and another one in the afternoon across the ten workdays. However, this should not be a major concern because, on average, participants reported that they helped coworkers 0.98 times during a measurement period (either the morning or the afternoon), which indicates that we have captured a reasonable number of helping interactions.

Another concern with our experience sampling methodology is the potential for experimenter demand effects—asking participants to reflect their experiences in a helping episode might prime them to engage in more helping later in the day. To address this concern, we conducted supplementary analyses to examine whether reflection on a helping episode in the morning (i.e., whether participants answered questions regarding their helping motivation and positive affect regarding a specific helping episode in the morning) influences participants' helping frequency and helping motivation in the afternoon. Our within-individual analyses did not support any significant difference on helping frequency or helping motivation - participants' likelihood of helping coworkers in the afternoon or their episodic helping motivation in the afternoon were the same irrespective of whether or not participants answered questions about a helping episode in the morning. Therefore, the demand effect may be less of a concern in our study. Nevertheless, future research can use event-contingent experience sampling methodology (Wheeler & Reis, 1991), asking participants to complete a survey whenever they help a coworker at work, or use daily surveys that are sent out at random times throughout the workday (Ilies, Dimotakis, & Watson, 2010; Miner et al., 2005) to capture more helping episodes.

Second, our research only focused on positive affect as an affective outcome of helping because past research only found the "doing good-feeling good" effect but not the "doing good-feeling bad" effect (Glomb et al., 2011). However, research has shown that autonomous motivation and controlled motivation demonstrated unique predictive validity on

need satisfaction and need thwarting, which further predicted positive affect and negative affect respectively (Gillet, Lafrenière, Vallerand, Huart, & Fouquereau, 2014). Therefore, it is possible that controlled helping motivation may be related to need thwarting and thus negative affect, adding to research on the "doing good-feeling good" effect that providing help might sometimes result in negative affect, not just lower positive affect. Future studies are needed to directly measure need satisfaction and need thwarting simultaneously (Van den Broeck et al., 2016), and to examine the influences of helping motivation on both positive affect and negative affect through need satisfaction and need thwarting.

Third, as this research focused on how the motivation behind employees' helping behaviors impacted helpers, we only examined helpers' affective experiences and subsequent help provision as outcome variables. However, helping motivation may also determine the content of the help provided or how help is provided. It is plausible that when employees are more autonomously motivated to help coworkers, they provide higher quality help (e.g., giving more detailed information and spending more time) in a more polite and patient way than when they are motivated by controlled reasons. Future research can also investigate the potential negative consequences of helping driven by these two types of helping motivation, given that helping is time consuming and can impede employees' task progress (Bergeron et al., 2013; Koopman et al., 2016). Based on our observations, helping driven by higher (rather than lower) controlled motivation might have a stronger negative impact on employees' core tasks because employees spent more time helping coworkers in episodes in which they helped from higher controlled motivation ($r_{within} = .14$, $p < .05$).

Following Bolino and colleagues (2010), we conceptualized citizenship pressure as a stable construct. Yet, as employees' perception of citizenship pressure likely develops based on their past helping experiences in the organization, employees might use new helping experiences to update their existing mental schemas regarding citizenship pressure in their

workplace. Thus, future research can examine whether citizenship pressure fluctuates over time, and if so, to what extent it fluctuates (days, weeks, or months), and what are the antecedents and consequences of such fluctuations, if any. Studying the fluctuation of citizenship pressure is probably most feasible among newcomers in their first few months in an organization, when their perception and attitudes are more likely to change (Lance, Vandenberg, & Self, 2000).

Finally, we found that when employees' episodic autonomous motivation was high, high citizenship pressure did not influence helpers' positive affect. This begs the important question of what are the potential antecedents of higher episodic autonomous motivation in a context with high citizenship pressure. It is likely that employees help from autonomous motivation when they provide help on an interesting or important task, or when they help someone whom they like or care about (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Future research can examine the specific characteristics of helping episodes that predict the extent to which people help from autonomous motivation to provide a more systematic framework to expand our knowledge on helping interactions and helping motivation.

Practical Implications

Industrial and organizational psychologists have been suggesting that companies build workplaces that encourage and facilitate interpersonal helping. For example, previous research has suggested that organizations should incorporate relational job design to enhance employees' helping behaviors (Grant, 2007). Organizations are encouraged to nourish employees' compassionate behaviors at work, helping employees actively notice others' suffering and help alleviate it (Dutton, Workman, & Hardin, 2014). More and more organizations have been endorsing the value of a helping and supportive organizational culture (e.g., Amabile et al., 2014). As managers advocate the importance of helping and cooperation, employees might infer helping as part of their jobs, resulting in the expansion of

job duties, or the “job creep” phenomenon (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004).

The current research raises an alert that managers should be aware of the potential pressure they put on employees to help coworkers, because when employees help out of controlled motivation, they experience lower positive affect when helping, and are more reluctant to provide help in the future. While encouraging helping and cooperation, managers should at the same time offer employees considerable autonomy in determining whether, to whom, when, and how to provide help, cultivating a culture in which employees can freely decline to offer help when they do not want to. Our findings suggest that helping is most beneficial for both employees and organizations when employees are autonomously motivated and truly willing to provide help.

FOOTNOTE

1. In the current research, we focus on positive affect, instead of negative affect, as an affective outcome of episodic helping motivation because prosocial interaction is often considered a positive event (Grant & Gino, 2010; Sonnentag & Grant, 2012; Williamson & Clark, 1989). Research on the relationship between helping and affect showed that helping is related to higher positive affect, but not related to negative affect (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Glomb et al., 2011). However, we do not negate the possibility that helping motivation might be related to negative affect, as we will revisit this issue in limitation and future directions.

2. We also tested a mediation model using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2017). As it is shown in Table 3 Model 1, the coefficient for the link between autonomous motivation (a dummy variable) and positive affect is 0.52, which is the same as the difference of positive affect between the autonomous motivation condition and the unspecified motivation condition shown in Table 2 (C-B). The coefficient for the link between controlled motivation (a dummy variable) and positive affect is -1.25, which is the same as the difference of positive affect between the controlled motivation condition and the unspecified motivation condition shown in Table 2 (A-B).

3. The data of Study 2 were collected as part of a research project on employees' work and family life, and we surveyed employees four times every day, including a morning before-work survey, a noon lunch-break survey, an afternoon end-of-work survey, and an evening bedtime survey (see Lin et al., 2017, for details). However, only the two surveys reported in this manuscript involved helping behaviors at work.

4. We did not calculate response rates here because participants might have submitted the online surveys indicating that they did not help coworkers in the past two hours. Therefore, they were not prompted to answer questions regarding their helping motivation and positive affect during helping. Overall, we received 744 lunch-break surveys out of 800 maximum possible responses (response rate = 93%), and 695 end-of-work surveys (response rate = 86.9%).

5. In Study 1 (as shown in Table 1), autonomous motivation was negatively correlated with controlled motivation (r = -.49**). This correlation does not have any substantive meaning and is a statistical artifact of our coding of the two manipulations for all participants that was necessary for path analysis. Specifically, the negative correlation indicates that the autonomous motivation condition and the controlled motivation condition are not independent – those who were assigned to the autonomous motivation condition (who have scores of 1 on the dummy variable for autonomous motivation) could not be in the controlled motivation condition (they have scores of 0 on the dummy variable for controlled motivation).

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Table 1

Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

	Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	Autonomous motivation [a]	0.35	0.48	--				
2	Controlled motivation [a]	0.32	0.47	-.49**	--			
3	Positive affect	4.89	1.59	.34**	-.44**	**(0.91)**		
4	Future helping intention	5.80	1.58	.23**	-.32**	.74**	--	
5	Citizenship pressure	3.86	1.39	.08	.05	-.25**	-.20**	**(0.93)**

Note. $N = 400$. M = mean, SD = standard deviation; Reliabilities were reported on the diagonal in bold.

[a] 1 = Yes, 0 = No;

**$p \leq .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 2:

Study 1: Means of Perceived Free Will (Manipulation Check), Positive Affect, and Future Helping Intention as a Function of Helping Motivation

	Condition			Mean Difference		
	Controlled motivation (A)	Unspecified motivation (B)	Autonomous motivation (C)	A-B	C-A	C-B
Perceived free will	3.60 (1.80)	5.22 (1.93)	6.12 (1.12)	-1.62**	2.52**	0.90**
Positive affect	3.85 (1.62)	5.11 (1.53)	5.63 (1.06)	-1.25**	1.77**	0.52**
Future helping intention	5.06 (1.83)	5.98 (1.56)	6.31 (1.00)	-0.92**	1.25**	0.33†

Note. $N = 400$. Standard deviations are in parentheses

† $p \leq .10$, ** $p \leq .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 3

Study 1: Results of Hypothesis Tests

	Model 1: Mediation Model			Model 2: Moderated Mediation Model		
	B	SE	t	B	SE	t
Predicting positive affect						
Autonomous motivation [a]	0.52**	0.17	3.01	0.62**	0.17	3.73
Controlled motivation [a]	-1.25**	0.18	-7.13	-1.13**	0.17	-6.66
Citizenship pressure (CP)				-0.40**	0.08	-4.96
Autonomous motivation × CP				0.33**	0.12	2.70
Controlled motivation × CP				0.05	0.12	0.46
Predicting future helping intention						
Autonomous motivation [a]	-0.05	0.13	-0.38	-0.05	0.13	-0.38
Controlled motivation [a]	-0.01	0.14	-0.06	-0.01	0.14	-0.06
Positive affect	0.73**	0.04	19.20	0.73**	0.04	19.20

Note. $N = 400$. SE = standard error; a. 1 = Yes, 0 = No;

**$p \leq .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 4

Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, Percentages of Within-Individual Variance and Correlations among Study Variables

	Variables	M	Between -person SD	Within - person SD	Within-variance%	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Duration of the helping episode (in mins)	17.51	13.53	26.23	79%	--	.21†	.11	-.08	.41**	-.17
2	Autonomous motivation	5.11	0.84	0.82	49%	.04	**(0.75)**	.00	.49**	-.04	-.20†
3	Controlled motivation	2.75	1.14	1.04	45%	.14*	.01	**(0.76)**	-.24*	-.03	.27*
4	Positive affect	5.19	0.86	0.97	56%	-.14*	.29**	-.14*	**(0.96)**	.03	-.08
5	Helping behavior	0.98	0.56	0.99	76%	.58**	.10*	.14*	-.04	**(0.92)**	-.07
6	Citizenship pressure	3.54	1.55								**(0.92)**

Note. SD = standard deviation.

The correlations above the diagonal represent between-individual correlations (computed using individuals' aggregated scores; $N = 80$). The correlations below the diagonal represent within-individual correlations ($N = 677$). Reliabilities were reported on the diagonal in bold.

† $p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 5

Study 2: Results of Hypothesis Tests

	B	SE	t
Predicting positive affect			
Duration of the helping episode	-0.004*	0.002	-2.08
Autonomous motivation	0.31**	0.06	5.40
Controlled motivation	-0.13*	0.06	-2.33
Citizenship pressure (CP)	-0.05	0.08	-0.62
Autonomous motivation × CP	0.06*	0.03	2.17
Controlled motivation × CP	0.02	0.03	0.64
Predicting subsequent helping behavior (time T+1)			
Duration of the helping episode	0.001	0.002	0.55
Current helping behavior (time T)	0.12*	0.06	2.11
Autonomous motivation	-0.07	0.07	-1.07
Controlled motivation	0.08	0.06	1.41
Positive affect during helping	0.09*	0.04	2.44

Note. Level 1 $N = 677$; Level 2 $N = 80$. SE = standard error;

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$ (two-tailed).

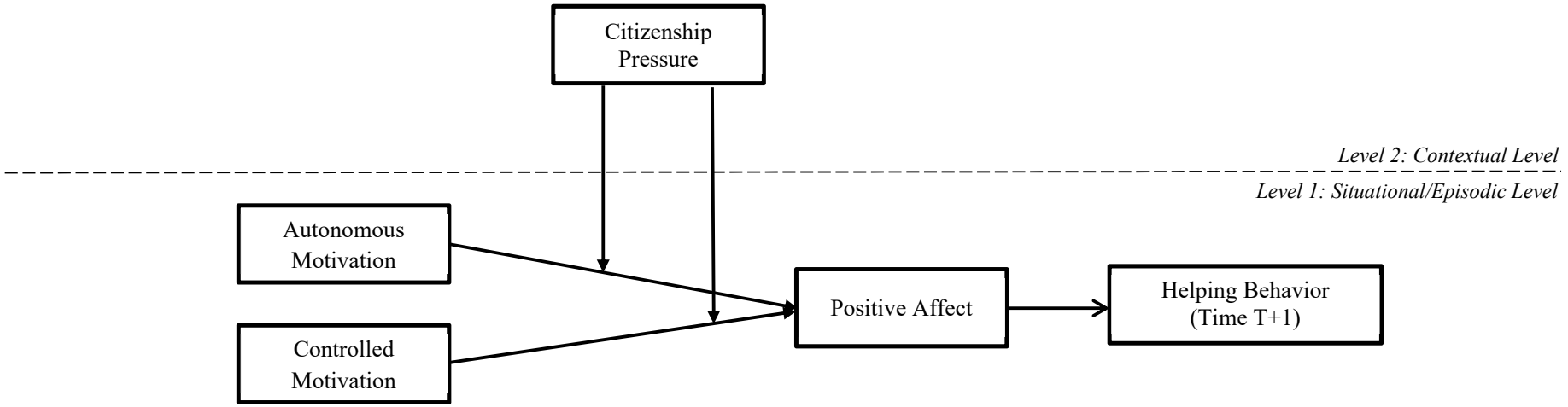

Figure 1 Hypothesized Model

(For parsimony, control variables are not included in this figure)

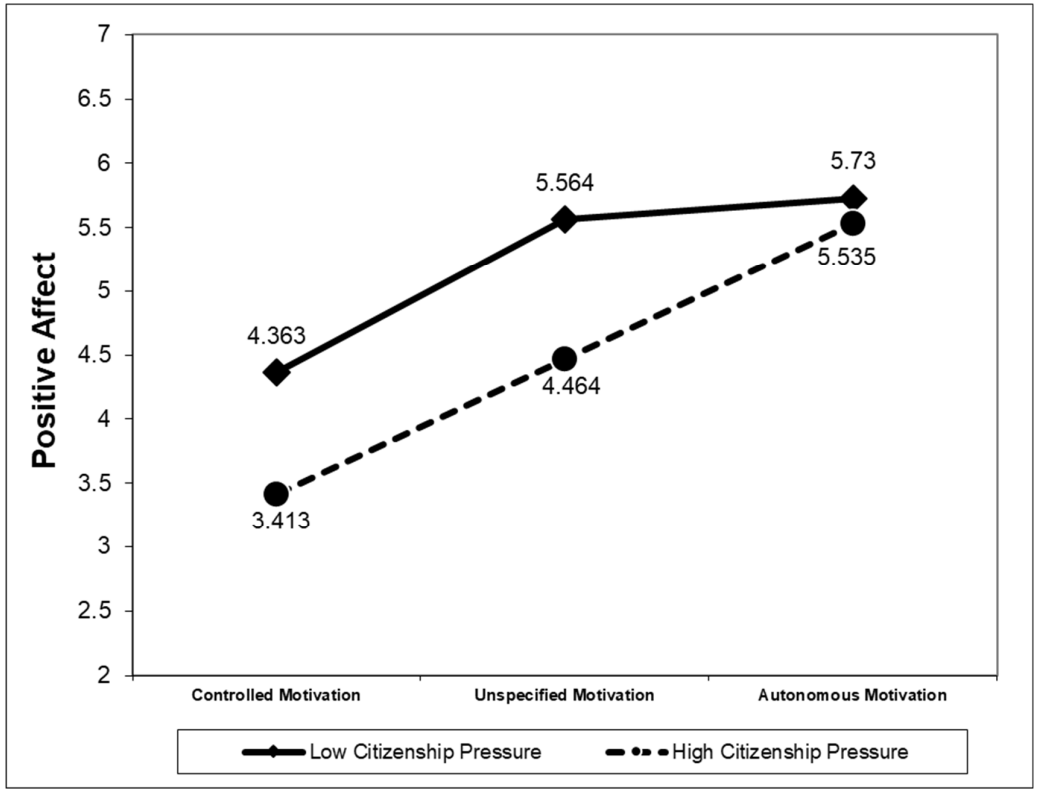

Figure 2 Moderation Effects of Citizenship Pressure on the Helping Motivation – Positive Affect Relation (Study 1)

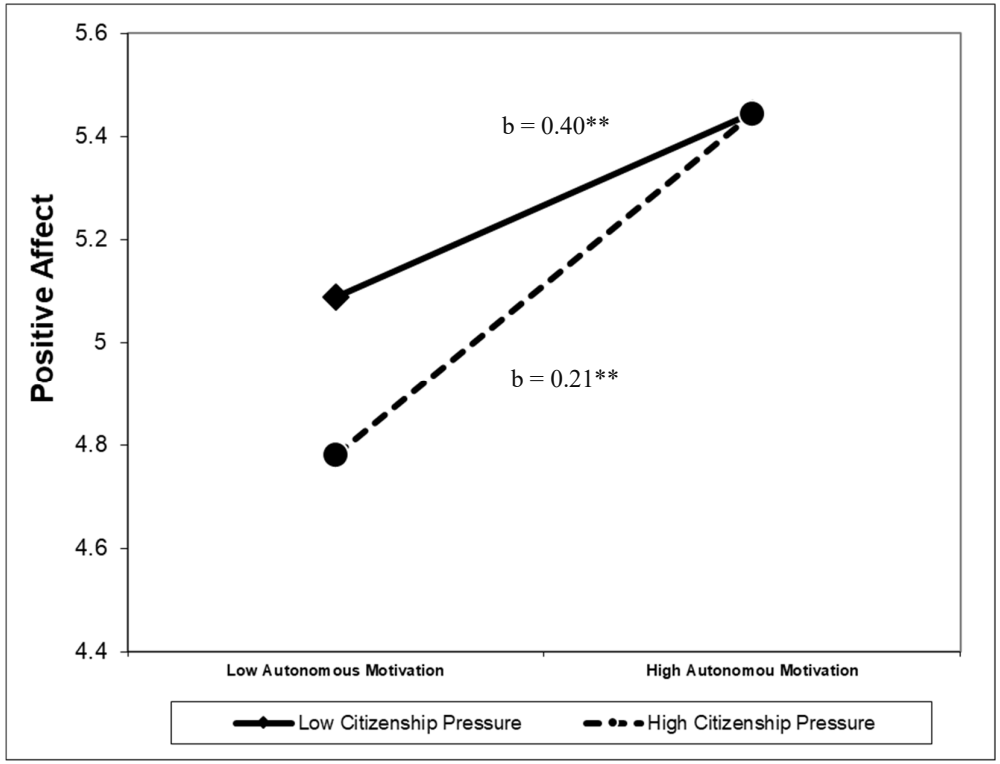

Figure 3 The Cross-level Moderation Effect of Citizenship Pressure on the Autonomous Motivation – Positive Affect Relation (Study 2)