It's all about the team: growth mindset in meta goals, value orientations and performance[1]

Abstract

Purpose

Previous research on Goal Orientation and Growth Mindset (GO) and Social Value Orientation (SVO) examined and found relationships between performance and each construct. This study builds on GO and SVO literatures and proposes that there is a relationship between the tendency to adopt learning or performance goals and social value orientations, and that both constructs jointly influence team performance.

Method

Two sets of participants were asked to answer scales about GO, SVO and Team Performance. Structural equation models tested the hypotheses.

Findings

Goal and social value orientations are closely related. Individuals with a higher performance orientation tend to be more proself and do not significantly relate to team performance. On the other hand, a higher growth mindset significantly increases team performance. Among prosocials, those who tend to adopt performance goals are more likely to be motivated by joint outcome maximization. The more learning oriented a prosocial individual is, the more likely the individual is to increase team performance.

Practical Implications

[1] An earlier draft of this paper was presented at the 2014 BALAS conference in Port of Spain

Organizations can increase team performance by managing incentives in a way that fosters learning goals and a prosocial orientation.

Originality and Value

This study brings further understanding to the performance construct. To our knowledge, this is the first study that measures both goal and social value orientation, as well as their joint relationship with team performance.

Introduction

Individuals tend to act differently in their approach to various tasks and challenges (Boroş et al., 2010; Rodgers, 1990; Hult and Nichols, 1999). In challenging achievement situations, like the ones found in most organizations, individuals tend to adopt certain meta-goals that lead to different interpretations and reactions to work-related tasks (D'Amato and Herzfeldt, 2008). For example, when performing a task, a line employee may be interested in doing his/her job better than his/her peers, learning a new skill, or demonstrating their ability to a supervisor. These meta-goals are called Goal Orientation (GO). That is, GO represents the broad goals held by individuals as they face a challenging task (D'Amato and Herzfeldt, 2008; Fisher and Ford, 1998). Research has shown a relationship between an individual´s GO and task performance; or more specifically, a positive relationship between Learning Orientation (one of the dimensions of GO) and task performance (Carver and Scheier, 1990; Kanfer, 1990; VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997).

Another stream of research relates individual Social Value Orientation (SVO) to increased performance. Van Lange (1999) defines SVO 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 (motivations of prosocial individuals). SVO is a stable pattern of outcomes for oneself and for others (McClintock, 1978; Messick and McClintock, 1968). This construct emerges from interdependence theory, but mostly from the analysis of decomposed games (Murphy and Ackermann, 2012; Pruitt, 1967). People with a prosocial orientation make decisions based upon their own outcomes and the outcomes of others involved. For example, they are concerned about differences in the outcomes of others as well as the equality of those outcomes (Van Lange, 1999). People with a prosocial orientation tend to show higher reciprocity and higher social responsibility (De Cremer and Van Lange, 2001). Those individuals also build more constructive relationships while obtaining better results from negotiations in the long

term, solve social problems using win-win strategies, and exhibit increased citizenship behaviors in organizations (De Dreu and Boles, 1998; Nauta et al., 2002; Parks et al., 2013). Therefore, prosocials are motivated by and tend to maximize the results obtained for themselves and others (maximization of joint outcomes), and minimize the difference between themselves and others (equality or inequity aversion).

Although the literature establishes a relationship between SVO (Nauta et al., 2002) and performance and between GO and performance (Roberson and Alsua, 2002), research has not examined if these two constructs relate to each other, nor what role the relationship between learning orientation and a prosocial orientation plays on team performance (Dayan, 2010; Gil et al., 2005; van Dick et al., 2009).

This study proposes the following exploratory questions:

- Is there a relationship between GO and SVO?
- Are prosocials more likely than proselfs to endorse a learning orientation?
- How does the relationship between GO and SVO affect team performance?

In order to address these questions, this study first examines the relationship between GO and SVO. Second, the link between prosocial and learning orientation is described, and finally, the relationship between prosocial individual's motivations (maximization of joint outcomes and inequality aversion), GO and performance is examined. The following sections present the theory, data, method and discussion.

This research is relevant to organizations in which tasks occur in the context of groups and teamwork (Akgün et al., 2006). There are several reasons why examining this relationship is relevant for organizations: First, when firms are aware of the GO and SVO of their employees and how they interact, firms may develop a culture and enhance their management of incentives with the right

stimuli, and therefore maximize team performance (Akgün et al., 2006; Cellar et al., 2011; Nauta et al., 2002). Indeed, GO and SVO are not only a disposition, but can also be triggered by certain stimuli and managerial cues in the firm (Roberson and Alsua, 2002). Therefore, it may be an advantage to consider GO and SVO together instead of separately when predicting and affecting team performance.

Second, learning capabilities are essential to firms (i.e. new product development) (Badrinarayanan and Arnett, 2008). The relationship between their workers' GO and SVO can help them predict the way their teams are working. Having an understanding of this relationship can help synergize interactions between prosocial and learning oriented employees, and therefore, improve team outcomes.

Third, since prosocials exhibit higher performance than proselfs for certain tasks that require teamwork (De Cremer and Van Lange, 2001), firms may obtain a competitive advantage when they build their teams over other firms that do not account for relation between GO and SVO.

Theory Development

This section introduces current research on GO and team performance. Then we present research that connects SVO with team performance. Finally, we examine the relationship between GO, SVO and team performance and propose theory-based hypotheses about this relationship.

Goal Orientation and performance

Goal Orientation (GO) represents the underlying goals that individuals seek in achievement situations (Butler, 1993; VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997; Verkuyten et al., 2001).

Literature often represents GO in terms of two dimensions that differ on whether the underlying goals focus on developing competence (learning orientation) or demonstrating competence (performance orientation) (D'Amato and Herzfeldt, 2008; Dweck, 2000, 1986; VandeWalle et al., 2001). Although the name of these two approaches to GO vary throughout 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 and 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 (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 relationship between the amount of effort that is exercised in the task and task mastery (VandeWalle et al., 2001). As a result, more effort is expected to increase success in the task (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1984). Self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation are also high when individuals 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 (Nicholls, 1983; Potosky and Ramakrishna, 2002). The task itself is meaningful because it is viewed as a tool to increase mastery. Consequently, task related feedback is embraced because it is perceived as a resource to help with improvement of the tasks (Tuckey et al., 2002).

On the other hand, a performance orientation supports an entity view of ability where ability is a fixed, uncontrollable personal trait (Dweck, 1986). Consequently individuals continuously compare their ability and competence to that of others in their reference group (Nicholls, 1983). Thus, success occurs when the individual ability is higher than that of others' rather than the result

of extended effort (Duda and Nicholls, 1992). Effort emerges only as a way to compensate for the lack of ability, rather than as an instrument to increase ability (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999; VandeWalle et al., 2001). Since the focus is on the self, rather than on the task, individuals show less interest in the task itself. The orientation towards performance is defined by the desire of obtaining positive judgments from others and the desire to avoid unfavorable judgments of people´s own ability (Heyman and Dweck, 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 and Kozlowski, 2002). As a result, individuals often avoid task feedback because they perceive feedback (especially when negative) 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 et al., 1992; VandeWalle et al., 2001). Learning orientation relates to being open to new experiences and optimism, to an internal control locus, to the desire of working hard, and to effort (VandeWalle et al., 1999).

On the other hand, individuals with orientation towards performance goals tend to have a response pattern that is not adaptive. They disconnect easily from the task and report lower interest in the task and react to challenges with a maladaptive pattern of low efficacy, even in non-task related behaviors, such as work place deviance (Wood and Bandura, 1989, Roberson and Alsua, 2002). Learning and Performance GO are not orthogonal dimensions however, and are 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 will still elicit adaptive patterns (Ames and Archer, 1988).

SVO and performance

SVO states that individuals systematically differ in the way they interact with each other, and that these differences relate to the social orientation of values, which represent stable preferences towards certain result patterns for oneself and for others (McClintock, 1978; Messick and McClintock, 1968). Research often talks of three orientations: prosocial, individualist and competitive. 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 with no regard of other's outcomes. Finally, competitors tend to maximize their own results compared to results obtained by other people (Van Lange, 1999). SVO types are grouped as prosocials and proselfs. When facing a decision, prosocials tend to consider both their own results and others' results, while proselfs only consider their own results when facing a decision-making situation (competitive and individualistic orientations). This occurs in the context of interdependence of individuals and the influence that their decisions have over the results of others. In most organizations, these situations occur in an individual´s daily work.

A number of tools are available to measure prosocial preferences. These include: the altruism scale, the dominance measure of 9 triple items, utility measures, the social behavior scale, the ring measure, regression and clustering approaches, Shulz and May´s spherical measure, and the SVO slider measure (Murphy and Ackermann, 2012). Murphy and Ackermann's tool, besides measuring SVO, can also disentangle, measure and identify prosocial motivations such as inequity aversion and the preference of joint outcome maximization. Social responsibility and reciprocity are also measures that influence prosocial people. For example, De Cremer & Van Lange (2001) indicate that prosocials feel more responsibility for promoting the interest of the group than proselfs do. Their study also reveals that prosocials tend towards reciprocity to the actions performed by peers.

The interaction of groups affect social dilemmas. Many organizations that serve 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 a 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 (Von Neumann, J., Morgenstern, O., 2007).

Literature also shows that prosocial individuals tend to build social dilemmas as moral issues, while proselfs tend to build these situations in terms of power (De Cremer and Van Lange, 2001). Those individuals within an organization who are aware of the results that they and other colleagues must achieve will have an increased capacity to solve organizational problems (Blake and Mouton, 1970; Nauta et al., 2002). For example, research shows that within a company, when the objectives between departments are incompatible, constructive negotiation is the method that allows for the development of a win-win solution (Alper et al., 1998). SVO addresses these issues because it influences how people think (Van Lange and Liebrand, 1991). For example, prosocials show more care for helping others achieve their goals and objectives, which gives them the ability to solve social problems (Nauta et al., 2002). This is a very valuable resource for companies that depend on internal coordination to maximize goals and achieve better financial and organizational synergies.

GO, SVO and Team Performance GO

SVO literature suggests that prosocials tend to show increased citizenship behaviors in organizations (Smith et al., 1983). Moreover, SVO provides insights about how prosocial people interact with others, and thus, how they make decisions. Indeed, 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 teams within their firms, these choices aggregate value, thus having an impact on performance. On the other hand, GO literature has found that it relates to several variables, such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reaction. Each of

these are variables that moderate the impact of GO over performance (Cellar et al., 2011). GO also relates to different types of effort (Fisher and Ford, 1998), such as being open to new experiences and optimism (VandeWalle et al., 1999), higher innovation capabilities and the creation of competitive advantages (Mone et al., 1998). Alternatively, learning orientation strongly relates to performance enhancing goals, such as skill improvement in training programs (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999). Given that a learning orientation involves seeing peers as learning partners rather than competitors, one could argue that those individuals take into account their peers´ interests more when they work together, which suggests that SVO (and their motives) and GO should be studied jointly. Firms risk losing important information about their workers and what to expect from them unless they consider their employees' orientations and motivations.

Hypothesis Development

Performance has a positive relationship with both prosocial (Nauta et al., 2002; Rubin et al., 1994) and learning orientations (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999; Cellar et al., 2011; Roberson and Alsua, 2002). Therefore, prosocials and learning-oriented individuals show similar behavior patterns when working in teams and in their relationships with others. As mentioned previously, this might be because a learning orientation involves seeing peers as learning partners rather than competitors, and hence taking their interests into account when working together. Accordingly, this study proposes that prosocial people are more likely to adopt learning GO. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

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

Likewise, proself individuals will tend to endorse performance-oriented goals. Thus, we hypothesize that:

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

Regarding GO, learning oriented individuals interpret their mistakes and any negative feedback as information that helps them improve their performance. Therefore, learning oriented people are more likely to attain increased team performance because they are less likely to reject feedback or engage in a self-esteem protective mechanism when they encounter difficulty (Roberson and Alsua, 2002). Moreover, these individuals are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors (Louw et al. 2016). Therefore, we propose that:

Hypothesis 3: A learning orientation positively relates to performance in teams.

Hypothesis 4: A performance orientation negatively relates to performance in teams.

Research indicates that prosocial people perform better in organizations (Nauta et al., 2002). Prosocials also exhibit a more adaptive pattern of organizational behavior and increased citizenship behaviors in organizations, which are performance-related behaviors (De Dreu and Boles, 1998; Smith et al., 1983; Van Lange et al., 2013). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: A prosocial orientation positively relates to performance in teams.

Prosocials cooperate because they are concerned with enhancing both equality and joint outcomes (Van Lange, 1999). Therefore, they are more likely to engage in learning oriented goals.

This occurs because normative comparisons (Nicholls, 1983) tend to be less relevant when evaluating outcomes (Eek and Gärling, 2006). Therefore, we propose that:

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

Hypothesis 7: A learning orientation positively relates to joint outcomes motivation.

However, the composition of a joint outcomes maximization choice is always richer in outcomes than other possible choices. Generally, if the outcome for oneself is less than the outcome for others, this is the option that maximizes the possible results for all individuals included in the decision (i.e. a team). Therefore, we propose that team performance is more likely to relate to prosocials motivated by joint outcomes maximization, because they are always choosing the best option for the team, and not comparing outcomes for a particular individual. Therefore:

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

Method

This section describes participants, design of the experiment, measures taken and the overall model.

Participants and design

This study uses two samples. The first sample included participants from 15 different universities in several regions of Chile. A second sample is used to check the consistency of the results obtained with the first sample. The questionnaires were published by social networks and

were sent by e-mail to professors, asking them to distribute the questionnaires. The same procedure was implemented to obtain both samples.

Participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire with five sections. The first section asked about demographic variables. The second assessed participant´s SVO with the Murphy & Ackermann (2011) slider measure that determines both social preferences and the prosocial motivation of individuals. The third part of the questionnaire asked about GO. VandeWalle ´s (1996) scale is used to measure learning orientation and two subsets of performance orientation: prove orientation and avoidance orientation.

Measures

First, VandeWalle's (1996) scale was used to examine GO. Fourteen items asked about the learning, prove (performance), and avoid (performance) GO of respondents. The first six items measure learning orientation, the following two constructs measure performance orientation asking for prove orientation and avoidance orientation. The SVO Slider Measure developed by Murphy & Ackermann (2011) assessed SVO. 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 optimal measure of SVO because it allows for the determination of transitivity and the ranking of SVOs of individuals. SVO is then a range that indicates the outcome patterns of the individual preferences, and thus, is a continuous variable. As SVO is measured in degrees, a SVO° > 22.45 indicates that the individual is prosocial, while an SVO° of less than 22.45 indicates that the individual is proself. The Inequity Averse Index is a continuous variable as well that ranges between 0 and 1 and assesses the degree to which joint outcome maximization motivates an individual as the index approaches to 1, and the degree to which the inequity aversion motivates as the index moves toward 0 (Murphy & Ackermann, 2011).

The Role Based Performance Scale (RBPS) (Welbourne, 1997) measured team related performance. The RBPS identifies five dimensions of work performance, once of which is teamwork performance. This construct is measured by a five-item scale. Team Effectiveness Criteria is used for robustness as a proxy of team performance (Wageman et al., 2005). Team Effectiveness Criteria includes 26 items related to process criteria, team interpersonal processes, and individual learning and well-being. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis assesses which construct better explains the team effectiveness criteria. The resulting factor correlates highly to affective reactions to the team and its work: satisfaction and motivation, which relates to the level of effort that members collectively spend on the task and the quality of team performance strategies (Wageman et al., 2005).

Model

Two Structural Equation Models tested the hypotheses. First, a model where Learning Orientation and Performance Orientation covariate in order to represent GO (VandeWalle, 1996) was developed. SVO (Murphy and Ackermann, 2012) serves as an observed variable, given that it is measured in degrees, which indicates whether the individual is prosocial or proself. Team performance operates as a latent variable with the Team Role Performance Scale items as the observed variables (Welbourne, 1997). In the relationship of SVO, GO and teamwork performance, teamwork performance is the dependent variable influenced directly by GO and SVO. This last variable is contingent on GO as well.

This second model only uses prosocial individuals. The Inequity Averse Index indicates the motives that prosocial individuals take into account when making decisions (See Figure 1b). AMOS software analyzes the Structural Equation Models and SPSS is used to obtain descriptive results.

Results

Descriptive Results

This section describes our sample and results based on formulated hypotheses. In our sample, 342 questionnaires were completed out of 509 received. These 342 questionnaires are included in the analysis. The mean age of participants was 22.28 (SD = 3.11) and 53.5% were male.

Table 1 displays all correlations and shows a positive significant relation between age and learning orientation, as well as a positive significant correlation between team performance and learning orientation. SVO shows a negative significantly to performance orientation. A low SVO suggests that the individual is more likely to be proself.

Table 1 here

5.2 - GO, SVO and team performance: Model 1 with Role Based Performance Scale

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

Figure 1 here

Cronbach's α for learning orientation is 0.82, while Cronbach's α for performance orientation using both prove and avoidance orientation is 0.73. The Cronbach's α of team performance measured with Role Based Performance Scale is 0.75. Model 1 shows a good model fit (X^2/df = 1.098, NFI = 0.939, CFI=0.994 and a RMSEA= 0.017) with all 342 observations. Results appear in Table 2 for each formulated hypothesis.

Table 2 here

As hypothesized, the results show that performance orientation negatively relates to SVO (β=-2.030, p=0.022). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported, thus indicating that the more individuals assume performance oriented goals, the more likely they are to have a proself orientation.

Hypothesis 3 is also supported; results indicate that the more an individual lean towards learning, the higher the team related performance of these individuals (β=0.205, p=0,000).

In Model 1, contrary to our expectations based on the literature, a learning orientation does not significantly relate to a prosocial orientation (β=0.819, p=0,294), performance orientation does not significantly relate to team performance (β=0.000, p=0,996), prosocial orientation does not significantly relate to team performance (β=0.819, p=0,294) and performance orientation does not significantly relate to team performance (β=-0.000, p=0,996).

5.3- GO, SVO and team performance: Model 1 with Team Effectiveness Criteria

In order to check the robustness of our model, a second survey was conducted to test the prior model. In this model, a different measure for team performance was used. With this measure, the Team Effectiveness Criteria (Wageman et al., 2005) was obtained.

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of Team Effectiveness Criteria items showed a KMO=0.91 and rejected the Bartlett's test (p=0,000). Therefore, the correlation matrix is significantly different from an identity matrix. The first factor explains 38.4% of the variance of the data matrix. The first factor was used as a dependent variable of the Model 1 for checking robustness. This factor has a high relationship with affective reactions to the team and its work: satisfaction and motivation, and relates highly to the level of effort that members collectively spend on the task and the quality of team performance strategies (Wageman, et. al, 2005). The Cronbach's α of this construct is 0.929.

In order to test the model, 466 questionnaires were collected, out of those n = 269 questionnaires were answered fully. From this second survey, 78.4% individuals are prosocial and 22.6% are proself. Model fit summary shows (X^2/df = 1.684, NFI = 0.875, CFI=0.944 and a RMSEA=

0.051) a good fit, which means that the estimated and observed covariance matrices do not differ significantly.

The results of this robustness model, using Team Effectiveness Criteria as a dependent variable, support our results. SVO, GO and team performance show little variation from previous results. Hence, results suggest further confidence in our main findings and support for H2 and H3 as Team Effectiveness has a strong correlation with Team Performance. As hypothesized in H2, Performance Orientation shows a significant ($p<0.01$) negative relationship with SVO°, which means that the more individuals assume performance oriented goals, the more likely they are to have a proself orientation. On the other hand, the more individuals assume learning oriented goals, the more likely they are to perform well in team performance, which supports hypothesis H3 ($p<0.01$). Note that model shows a positive relationship between Learning Orientation and SVO ($\beta=1.759$, $p=0.063$), which means that the more learning oriented the individual is, the more likely he or she is to have a prosocial orientation. Thus, our robustness model also partially support H1 ($p<0.10$).

5.4- GO, Prosocial motives and team performance: Model 2

In order to measure the relationship between GO and prosocial motivations of individuals a second model was developed. The model appears in Figure 1. This model includes an Inequity Averse Index. This variable indicates whether an individual is motivated by joint outcome maximization or motivated by inequity aversion. Therefore, this second SEM model only takes into account prosocial individuals (N= 260). The inequity averse index indicates a joint outcomes maximization motivation as it gets closer to 1 and an inequity averse motivation as it gets closer to 0.

Model 2 shows a good fit (X^2/df = 1.130, NFI = 0.913, CFI=0.989 and a RMSEA= 0.022). Model 2 used 260 observations, out of which 180 were motivated by inequity aversion and 80 where motivated by joint outcomes maximization. See Table 2 for results.

For Hypothesis 7, results indicate that the higher the performance orientation, the higher the inequity averse index (β=0.065, p=.000). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is supported. However, hypotheses 6 and 8 do not yield significant results. For Hypothesis 6, results indicate that learning orientation does not relate with the inequity averse index (β=0.006, p=0.741). For Hypothesis 8, the inequity averse index does not significantly relate to team performance of a prosocial individual (β=-0.207, p=0,329).

Model 2 shows that for prosocial people, performance orientation does not significantly relates to team performance (β=0.009, p=0.891), whereas a learning orientation does significantly relates to team related performance (β=0.210, p=0001).

4.5- GO, Prosocial motives and team performance: Model 2 with Team Effectiveness Criteria

In order to test the robustness of Model 2, Team Effectiveness Criteria acts as a dependent variable. Results appear in Table 2. The model uses n = 211 observations from the second survey. Model 2 shows a good fit (X^2/df = 1.723, NFI = 0.834, CFI=0.922 and a RMSEA= 0.059).

In this case, a learning orientation shows a significant and positive (β=0.054, p=0.011) relationship with the Inequity Averse Index. This means that the more learning oriented an individual is, the more likely he or she is motivated by joint outcome maximization. Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported using team effectiveness. Notwithstanding, hypothesis 7 is not supported as prior results showed.

Discussion

This section summarizes the main findings, implications and limitations and directions for future research.

Main findings

This study found a relationship among team performance, SVO and GO. Learning orientation positively relates to team performance, which is consistent with the literature. On the other hand, performance orientation relates negatively to SVO. This means that proself people are more likely to adopt a performance orientation given the normative comparisons (Nicholls, 1983). Second, consistent with the literature, prosocial people that are more likely to be motivated by joint outcome maximization tend to be performance oriented (Eek and Gärling, 2006; Van Lange et al., 2013). Meanwhile, there is an increased team related performance when prosocial people adopt a learning orientation (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999). Third, teams with people who endorse learning goals are more likely to experience increased intra-team performance of these individuals over teams with members who engage in a performance orientation. Fourth, teams with people under a performance orientation are less likely to work harder in the face of difficulty than those teams composed of people oriented to learning. Also, teams with performance-oriented people are more likely to be proself oriented as well. Fifth, there is no clear relationship between prosocials´ motivations and GO, since learning orientation and performance orientation are positively related to joint outcomes maximization. One possible answer is that both motives are from prosocial individuals, thus the relationship with GO depends on SVO, and not on prosocial motivations.

2. Implications

This research finds that both GO and SVOs are related and influence team performance in organizations. Firms that can identify and foster the adaptive SVO and GOs of their employees are better equipped to maximize employee team performance. As joint outcomes maximization relates

positively to performance and learning orientation, people motivated by joint outcomes maximization are not likely to be more learning nor performance oriented. Therefore, prosocials as a whole are more supportive and emphasize egalitarianism as well as maximize joint outcomes (Van Lange et al., 2012).. This information should be salient when selecting prosocial people for certain team related tasks.

In particular, 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 in a way that fosters learning goals and a prosocial orientation, and thus, expect higher levels of individual and team performance (D'Amato and Herzfeldt, 2008; Dayan, 2010; 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 as they work in teams (Rodgers, 1990). And third, this study finds a significant relationship between team performance and learning orientation. Therefore, firms who need to improve their teamwork performance should integrate prosocial learning oriented workers.

3. Limitations and directions for future research

This research measured individual performance in teams through RBPS and Team Process Criteria. More accurate scales or methods measuring team performance could provide new insights. Also, the relationship between GO and SVO may vary on individual team levels. Further research should measure this relationship with an experimental approach in order to obtain cleaner effects over team performance.

Future studies should also include diverse team compositions depending on a variety of individual orientations. This approach should deliver more insights about the relationship between GO and SVO and how those two constructs influence team performance over time.

This research seeks to contribute to the understanding of how GO and SVO orientations play a key role in performance and decision-making styles. An understanding of what influences performance in teams is key to enriching our knowledge of the overall performance construct. Present research extends and develops this emerging literature by showing the influence of both GO and SVO over team performance.

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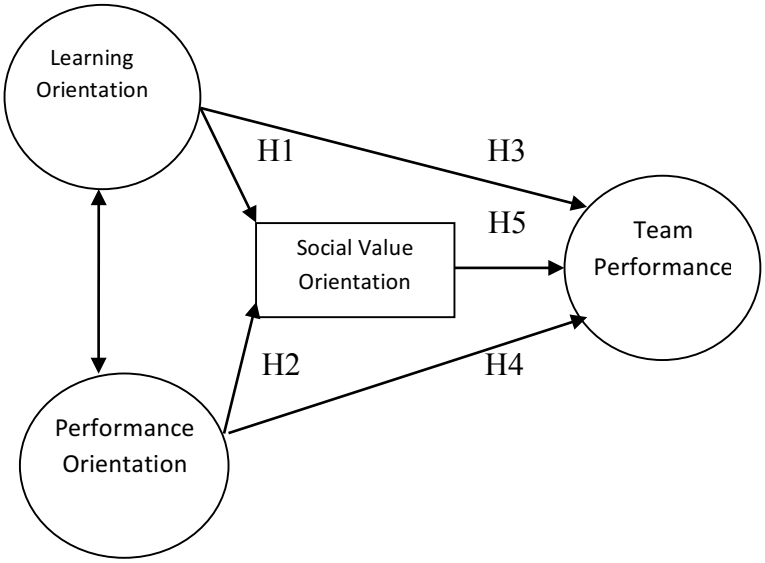
Figure 1

Model 1



Model 2

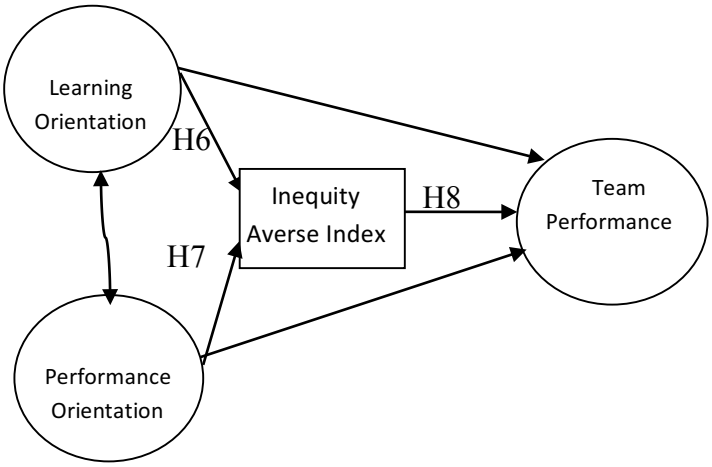


Table 1: Descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	22.3	3.11		0.04	0.06	0.05	0,16**	-0.05	0.04
2. Gender	1.5	0.5	0.05		0.01	-0.05	0.11	0.02	0.08
3. Number of Brothers	2.0	1.29	0.06	0.01		0.03	0.01	0.06	-0.02
4. Team Performance	0	1	0.05	-0.04	0.03		0.21**	0.03	0.05
5. Learning Orientation	0	1	0.16**	0.11	0.01	0.21**		0.18**	0.04
6. Performance Orientation	0	1	-.05	0.07	0.06	0.03	0.18**		-0.11*
7. SVO°	29.5	12.28	0.04	0.08	-0.02	0.05	0.04	-0.11*	

**. p < 0,01

*. p < 0,05

N = 342

Table 2: Results of Models

Dependent Variable		Independent Variable	Estimate	S.E.	P
Model 1					
SVO°	H1	Learning orientation	0.819	0.78	0.294
SVO°	H2	Performance orientation	-2.030	0.89	*
Team performance	H3	Learning orientation	0.205	0.06	**
Team performance	H4	Performance orientation	0.000	0.06	0.996
Team performance	H5	SVO°	0.003	0.00	0.502
Robustness of Model 1					
SVO°	H1	Learning Orientation	1.759	0.95	0,063
SVO°	H2	Performance Orientation	-3.103	0.92	**
Team performance	H3	Learning Orientation	0.424	0.08	**
Team performance	H4	Performance Orientation	0.111	0.07	0.128
Team performance	H5	SVO°	0.003	0.01	0.581
Model 2					
Inequity averse index	H6	Learning orientation	0.006	0.02	0.741
Inequity averse index	H7	Performance orientation	0.065	0.02	**
Team performance	H8	Inequity averse index	-0.207	0.21	0.329
Team performance		Performance orientation	0.009	0.06	0.891
Team performance		Learning orientation	0.210	0.07	**
Robustness of Model 2					
Inequity averse index	H6	Learning orientation	0.054	0.02	*
Inequity averse index	H7	Performance orientation	0.006	0.02	0.757
Team performance	H8	Inequity averse index	-0.186	0.25	0.461
Team performance		Performance orientation	0.116	0.08	0.122
Team performance		Learning orientation	0.464	0.09	**

**. $p < 0,01$

*. $p < 0,05$