Family motivation effect on interpersonal competition moderated by perceived job insecurity

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Abstract

The mechanism connecting the antecedents to negative attitudes, like interpersonal competition, is under-researched. This study empirically investigates family motivation's effect on interpersonal competition among university employees, Drawing on social comparison theory. It is also hypothesized that perceived job insecurity moderates this relationship. The paper also provides a comparison between private and government universities based on family motivation, job insecurity, and interpersonal competition relationship. a sample of 372 employees in Egyptian universities was studied; however, only 93 percent of the questionnaires were correctly answered. The Structural Equation Model (SEM) technique was used to test the hypotheses. Results proved all hypotheses of this study.

This paper adds to the literature on family motivation and interpersonal competition by validating that family motivation

can lead to negative behavioral outcomes, especially when accompanied by job insecurity. Recommendations and future research are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: Family motivation - interpersonal competition - job insecurity.

Introduction

Family is a central universal value in life across cultures (Schwartz et al., 2012). It is the primary source of affection, security, encouragement, and understanding. In addition, previous research indicates that supporting one's family is a source of meaning and motivation for work (Menges, Tussing, Wihler, & Grant, 2017). Family motivation is often referred to as employees' urge to exert effort to support their families and establish their identities as providers (Menges et al., 2017).

In an attempt to enhance income and secure jobs, family-motivated employees invest time and effort at work resulting in high performance (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003; Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). Indeed, family-motivated employees are more willing to take extra measures at work to avoid salary cuts and job losses (Menges et al., 2017; Liu, Liao, & Liu, 2020). In addition, one study showed that family-motivated employees are willing to work in unpleasant and hostile work environments or even defy societal and organizational moral rules (Liu et al., 2020; Menges et al., 2017). Tariq & Ding (2018) study showed that highly family-motivated employees are more willing to stay

with their organizations and maintain high performance, even under abusive supervisors.

During an economic recession, employees are more prone to fear and doubt about their job loss and stability. This insecurity stems from the adverse effects of job loss on household income and their self-image as providers. This is especially evident in developing countries like Egypt. The economic reform in Egypt has caused financial difficulties for families and institutions. Since the 2011 revolution, Egypt has struggled to restore its economic stability. In such turbulence, the government floated the currency, lowered fuel, services, and utility subsidies, and imposed a value-added tax (Hosam El-Din, 2017). In addition, the Russian war on Ukraine has caused extensive price hikes, taking a heavy toll on poor and middle-class families. This has laid an extra burden on family providers, leading to an expectantly high family motivation (Liu et al., 2020; Zhang, Liao, Li, & Colbert, 2019; Kyons & Liu, 2016).

In such circumstances, family providers' concern for their family's financial well-being and the need to secure their jobs are heightened. Job insecurity has been a common threat, especially during the economic slowdown caused by the COVID-19 pandemic (Jung, Jung, & Yoon, 2021), as well as the war on Ukraine. In Egypt, 2.7 million lost jobs during the fourth quarter of 2020 (World Bank, 2020). Losses were encountered in every sector and the numbers continue to rise. This research focuses on

the education sector and universities due to their centrality (World Bank, 2020; AmCham Egypt, 2020). Moreover, public spending on higher education has dropped for years (Reda, 2012), making this sector prone to job insecurity.

Luthans & Sommer (1999) stated that threats of employment termination could trigger forced contests between employees. They suggested that collaboration among employees will deteriorate as they perceive each other as rivals competing among those who stay with the organization. Additionally, trust between members of a group trust decrease significantly after downsizing (Luthans and Sommer, 1999).

More recently, To, Kilduff, & Rosikiewicz (2020) stated that organizations use relative performance ranking to input their promotion or dismissal decisions. Such comparative methods to termination decisions create a competitive environment for employees. Lee (2020) conceptualized workplace competitiveness as a psychological response to competitive situations and conditions. He viewed competitiveness as a psychological construct with two main dimensions: competitive anxiety and a sense of rivalry. Competitive anxiety is employees' negative expectations about work outcomes (Lee, 2020). It involves cognitive and somatic elements. The cognitive aspect is explained as pessimistic anticipation about success. The somatic factor involves the emotional and physiological outcomes (Martens, Vealey, and Burton, 1990; Lee, 2020). Sense of

rivalry, the second dimension, represents employees' interpersonal perception of their coworkers as competitors, not collaborators.

Despite many indications and suggestions, no empirical research has investigated the direct relationship between job insecurity and interpersonal competition. To and Colleagues (2020) recommended that future research should explore how the threat caused by job insecurity can flare individual competition. In response to this call, this paper investigates the effect of job insecurity on interpersonal competition. Drawing from theories of Conservation of Resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) and social comparison, this paper extends the theory of family motivation, proposing that family motivation may lead employees to engage in forms of interpersonal competition, particularly when they perceive their jobs as insecure.

Social comparison processes are rooted in most social interactions. Moreover, Doogan (2009) mentioned that perceived job insecurity results in internal and external competition.

This research adds theoretical as well as practical value to current knowledge. The results of this paper can help practitioners, as well as researchers, understand how family motivation can affect behaviors and organizations.

Family motivation results in increased organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals (Umrani et al., 2019), affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Erum, Abid, Contreras, & Islam, 2020), job performance and energy (Menges et

al., 2017), and decreased turnover under abusive supervision (Tariq & Ding, 2018). Scholars have investigated several family motivation outcomes on the organizational and individual levels. Despite the evident increase in family motivation consequences research, family motivation's effect on interpersonal competition, moderated by job insecurity, has not been explored before.

Family motivation has never been examined before in Egypt, even though the family unit is the cornerstone of Egyptian society. Family loyalty is prized over other types of relationships (Caiazza & Volpe, 2015). Furthermore, the Egyptian culture emphasizes family obligations that promote society's well-being and shape individuals' behavior (Okasha, Elkholy, & El-Ghamry, 2012). Therefore, studying family motivation among Egyptian university employees is relevant and has never been done before, according to the researcher's knowledge.

Literature review and Hypotheses development

Based on kinship and biological relationships, parents are energized to work hard and enhance their performance (Menges et al., 2017; Burnstein, Crandall, & Kitayama, 1994). Not just parents are the ones found with high family motivation, but also any employee with dependents at home, whether these dependents are disabled parents, grandparents, cousins, uncles, aunts, or any other kin (Burnstein et al., 1994). Rothbard & Edwards (2003) showed that the more an employee identifies with family roles, the more time and energy devoted to work.

Two possible forces drive family motivation. First is the utilitarian aspect, which indicates that hedonistic considerations drive investment in work. Employees choose to invest in work as it offers rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) that bring pleasure and prevents displeasure. In other words, family-motivated employees seek increased income to satisfy their families' financial needs and avoid job insecurity and pay cuts (Menges et al., 2017; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003).

Second, an identity perspective posits that investment at work is based on the strength of an individual's identification with a role (Rothbard& Edwards, 2003). For example, family motivation is stirred up due to recognition as a breadwinner, a role model, and a good provider for the family. Employees consider their jobs an essential part of their identity to maintain this self-image. Similarly, doing well on the job significantly affects employees' self-concept (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003).

Social comparisons give information that determines individuals' self-identities and may lead to doubts about their self-images as faithful providers (Morse & Gergen, 1970). Working hard protects family-motivated employees against feelings of failure, guilt, and shame for losing their identity as breadwinners. To avoid such feelings, employees not only strive to be identified as caregivers but also to be perceived as the best family providers among their peers. Individuals generally pursue superiority concerning others in various contexts, including daily social

situations and organizational settings (De Botton, 2004; Festinger, 1954; Podolny, 2005). Similarly, parents are always keen on providing their dependents with the best clothing, education, and standard of living.

According to the social comparison theory, individuals have an instinct to compete (Festinger, 1954). The theory posits that employees are driven to reduce or prevent discrepancies between themselves and their colleagues (Festinger, 1954). Individuals take horizontal and upward social comparisons and try to outdo others to feel proud and successful (Dohmen et al., 2011; Matsumoto and Willingham, 2006). From an evolutionary perspective, this drive upward may be an integral component of the evolution of humans into a species that utilizes symbolic, internal methods to gain prestige in a social group (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Gilbert, 1990).

Garcia, Tor, & Schiff (2013) also mentioned that individuals who perceive themselves as similar or have ordinary circumstances are more prone to compete. Gardner, Gabriel, & Hochschild (2002) mentioned that social comparison appears to be linked with a feeling of independence that tries to differentiate oneself from others. Thus, such urges may generate interpersonal competitiveness to achieve or protect superiority (Festinger, 1954). In other words, competitiveness is one manifestation of the social comparison process.

When family motivation is strong, a family might become the most prominent social group employees use to categorize themselves and others (Liu et al., 2020). In such a case, they will be more likely to compete in the workplace to benefit themselves hence their family, regardless of others. Similarly, family providers are driven to be better providers than others they interact with at the workplace.

Therefore, this paper hypothesized that family motivation increased competitiveness.

Hypothesis 1: family motivation has a positive effect on interpersonal competitiveness in the workplace.

Researchers have paid considerable attention to job insecurity caused by increased global competitiveness, widespread organizational restructuring, mergers, acquisitions, technological advancement, and downsizing (e.g., Ahearn, 2012; Hellgren & Sverke, 2003). However, prior literature has differentiated between cognitive and affective aspects of job insecurity. Cognitive job insecurity is viewed as a type of stress or perceived danger to the endurance of one's employment or the features of the job (Shoss, 2017). In contrast, effective job insecurity is the emotions resulting from the threat of potential job loss (e.g., concern, worry, anxiety, fear; Huang, Lee, Ashford, Chen, & Ren, 2010; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Probst, 2003; Reisel & Banai, 2002), which means that job insecurity entails both beliefs and the emotional state of an employee (Probst, 2003; Jiang, &

Lavaysse, 2018). Moreover, O'Neill & Sevastos (2013) proposed a multidimensional construct. They identified four job insecurity dimensions identified and described: job loss (perceived threats to job continuity), organizational survival (the perceived ability of the organization to survive and grow), marginalization (the perception that one is being disregarded by management and excluded from the social events), and job changes (expecting to lose some of the desirable features of one's job).

Job insecurity antecedents include individual characteristics such as traits of locus of control and negative affectivity, tenure, age, and gender (Sverke, Hellgren, Näswall, 2002; Sverke, et al., 2004), and macroeconomic factors including unemployment level in a particular country (Nätti, Happonen, Kinnunen & Mauno, 2005). Due to the post-pandemic economic recession and the Russian war, employees are constantly threatened to be laid off.

According to the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Halbesleben, Neveu, and Paustian-underdahl 2014), people are motivated to protect their valued resources. Employees threatened to lose their jobs or features of it are motivated to act to prevent that from happening (Shoss, 2017; Van Vuuren and Klandermans, 1990). This notion is called job preservation motivation (Shoss, 2017).

On the one hand, some scholars believe that employees tend to perform better when they believe it will enhance the organization's success, leading to more secure jobs (Van Vuuren

and Klandermans, 1990). Scholars who follow this school of thought claim that job insecurity can enhance performance, valued safety behaviors, and OCB (Van Vuuren and Klandermans, 1990; Feather & Rauter, 2004; Wang, Lu, & Lu, 2014; Wong, Wong, Ngo, & Lui, 2005; Probst, 2003; Koen, Low, & Van Vianen, 2019).

On the other hand, other research results showed that job insecurity could influence performance negatively and increase withdrawal behaviors (Borg & Elizur, 1992; Van Vuuren and Klandermans, 1990). Moreover, scholars investigating group conflict suggest that job insecurity might worsen attitudes between competing groups in the workplace (Shoss, 2017). Finally, many scholars showed that job insecurity could result in abusive relationships between employees, featured by aggression, bullying, lack of knowledge sharing hindering, and minimal self-regulation (Niesen, De Witte, & Battistelli, 2014; Probst, 2003; Probst, 2005).

Wit & Wilke (1999) mentioned that when uncertainty is high, employees become less cooperative compared to those who have a high perception of environmental certainty. Moon, Quigley, & Marr (2012) indicate that people tend to be more competitive when the perception of limited resources prevails. Garcia and colleagues (2013) mentioned that individuals compete on dimensions that are important or essential to the self. This may also create an environment of rivalry, and instead of focusing on

organizational success, they become more determined to be the ones to keep their jobs (Garcia et al., 2013).

Indeed, Baron and Neuman (1996) investigated organizational changes – such as pay cuts, budget cuts, reengineering, and the use of part-time employees – and found that they were all related to increased aggression at work. Despite the number of research showing negative interpersonal behaviors related to job insecurity, no empirical research examined the direct effect of job insecurity on competitiveness in organizations. Even though A few scholars (e.g., De Cuyper, Baillien, & De Witte, 2009; Shoss & Probst, 2012; Shoss, 2017) suggested that economic stress may flare employees' competition among themselves due to resources scarcity and threatened positions, no empirical study proved such indications.

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity has a positive effect on interpersonal competition.

Job insecurity endangers essential life purposes and benefits of working, hinders basic emotional needs, and predicts outcomes outside the organization. In other words, job insecurity effects extend beyond the workplace. Scholars interested in this research line showed how unemployment impacts individuals' relations and families (Voydanoff, 1990). Job insecurity has been found to impact more employees than unemployment (Voydanoff, 1990). Indeed, the period of anticipation before termination is more harmful than actual job loss (Cobb & Kasl, 1977).

This insecurity not only deteriorates employees' health (Ashford et al., 1989; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996) but also impacts families' well-being (Barling, Dupre, & Hepburn, 1998; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). Job security is essential for establishing and sustaining strong families (Larson, Wilson, & Beley, 1994). Uncertainty about job loss changed job descriptions, and added responsibilities may create what is known as boundary ambiguity (Larson, Wilson, & Beley, 1994). Boundary ambiguity is defined as employees' uncertainty about job descriptions, responsibilities, or even who will keep his\her jobs (Boss & Greenberg, 1984). This ambiguity increases employee and family stress (Boss & Greenberg, 1984).

Previous research showed how job insecurity could negatively affect the utilitarian aspect of family motivation, which means that employees experience financial stress when they fail to meet family financial obligations or support the desired lifestyle (Marican, Zakaria, & Abdul Rahman, 2012). Moreover, outcomes of financial scarcity, such as cognitive, psychological, and interpersonal depression, are expected to be particularly pronounced when employees have others at home depending on them (Meuris & Leana, 2015).

Employees, who are the primary breadwinners in their households, are more prone to be influenced by unemployment threats than those who are not (Brockner, Grover, Reed, & Dewitt, 1992). In addition, employees who value their jobs based on financial needs are likelier

to show more effort and performance than their counterparts (Brockner, Grover, Reed, & Dewitt, 1992).

In addition, job security is not just relevant to the utilitarian aspect of family motivation but also to the identity aspect (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). Larson, Wilson, & Beley (1994) study indicated that stress stemming from job insecurity negatively affects family role clarity. Working in an identity-relevant job has increased personal engagement at work and stirred exaggerated emotional reactions to its outcomes (Britt, 2005). Parents' money anxiety, pronounced as feelings of distress and concern, spills over to influence their children. Further, Parents' job insecurity was found to affect children's academic performance, work beliefs negatively, and attitudes as well as their career job insecurity (e.g., Barling et al., 1998; Lim & Sng, 2006; Shoss, 2017).

Furthermore, employees fear that their status and role within their family may change if they can no longer provide financially for their family (De Witte, 1999; Kinnunen, Feldt, Mauno. 2003). Larson et al. (1994) showed that job insecurity could poorly reflect marital satisfaction, family functioning, and role clarity. Their research asserted previous research that showed job insecurity has a spillover effect on families, causing tension and dysfunction (Larson et al., 1994).

Employees with solid family motivation will do anything to protect their families against the consequences mentioned. Jiang & Lavaysse (2018) found that work centrality is an essential factor in the

influence of job insecurity on individual outcomes. This motivation is expected to be more pressing when employees protect resources for those they care about. Secure employment is a resource that is valued for the time structure, social interaction, social status, and marketable skills and knowledge and for its part in fulfilling one's family role (Probst & Jiang, 2017).

The urge to keep one's jobs for the sake of dependents could lead to a stronger sense of rivalry. Exceptionally they may tend to perceive their colleagues as competitors instead of collaborators. This is because human perception, such as a sense of rivalry, is not an expression of objective indications but a subjective understanding of situations (Lee, 2018).

While job insecurity literature shows how job insecurity intensely affects employees' families, this research proposed that family motivation positively influences interpersonal competition, especially when perceived job insecurity is high.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition is moderated by perceived job insecurity

In addition, this research also compares private and governmental universities when it comes to such relationships. The relationships in hypothesis 3 would be expected to be different in private and governmental universities. This proposal is based on the fact that private universities are governed very differently from governmental ones. In governmental universities, most

employees are offered lifelong employment contracts in contrast to private ones. However, governmental universities' pay rates are much lower than private universities. This lead employees in governmental universities to look for other sources of income while still employed in the government. All these factors lead to the 4th hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 4: There is a difference in the effect of family motivation moderated by job insecurity on the interpersonal competition in the workplace between governmental and private universities in Egypt.

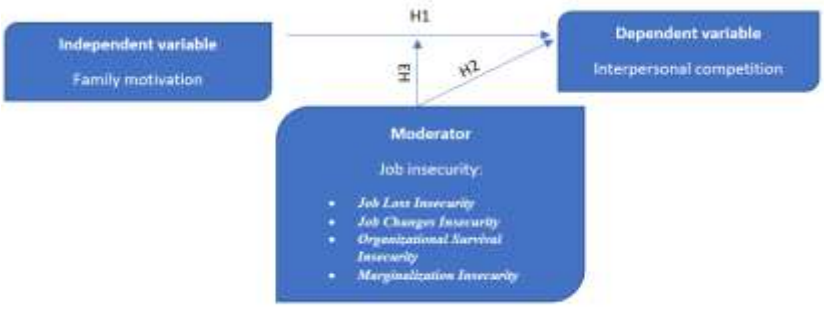

Figure 1: Research Model. Source: Authors

Measures

As shown in Figure 1, the first independent variable is family motivation; to test this paper's hypotheses, a family unit may include children, spouses, parents, and extended family members. Their paper measured family motivation with the scale developed by Menges et al. (2017), with responses varying from 1 (never) to 4 (always). Their scales' Cronbach's α was .84. The second

variable is the independent and moderator variable; job insecurity was measured using De Witte (2000) scale. The scale includes affective as well as cognitive items. The scale's Cronbach's α was .86. Finally, the scale of Lee (2020) was adopted to measure interpersonal competition. The alpha reliability score for this variable was 0.914.

Design of the Study

In this section, general processes and techniques for research are described, including sample framework and data collection procedures, instruments for measuring proposed constructs, and data analysis strategies for testing the hypotheses.

The population and surveyed sample

The population in the present research represents employees at different managerial levels in both governmental and private universities in Egypt.

A statistical sample size table determined the sample because the population is infinite and counted 385 employees. The rule of thumb is that n = 300 is usually acceptable; however, for better results, we increased it to 400 (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

A stratified random sample was used to validate the measures and test the research hypotheses. The sample was selected from entry-level, mid-career level, and managerial level, and there were two strati selected and distributed as 60% governmental universities and 40% private universities.

Pilot Test and Survey Respondents

Three hundred seventy-two questionnaires for the survey were returned from the surveyed sample. This represents a 93 percent response rate.

Reliability

The goodness and validity of response data are accomplished through conducting a Reliability Test using Cronbach's Alpha (Sekaran, 2003). The SPSS (26) reliability analysis was performed separately for the indicators of each scale see Table (1).

Table (1)

Reliability analysis

Items	Cronbach's Alpha
family motivation	.789
interpersonal competition	.912
Job insecurity	.915

Generally, reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.6 or higher are considered adequate (Sekaran, 2003). As illustrated in Table (1), the calculated reliability coefficient for Cronbach's alpha values is between 0.789 and 0.915; this indicates that all variables included in the study are reliable.

Descriptive analysis

Basic descriptive statistics were conducted to investigate the feel of the measured data and ensure that the distortion of the questionnaire responses outputs was negligible. The descriptive analysis results in Tables 2, 3, and 4 illustrate that the standard deviation is insignificant, revealing only a weak distortion of the

collected data for all variables. These results imply the homogeneity of the surveyed sample.

Table (2) – Descriptive analysis for Family motivation

Family motivation	Mean	Std. Deviation	CV%
1. "I care about supporting my family,"	4.4597	.75663	16.97%
2. "I want to help my family,"	4.5000	.87029	19.34%
3. "I want to have a positive impact on my family,"	4.2581	.75455	17.72%
4. "it is important for me to do good for my family,"	4.1989	.80978	19.29%
5. "my family benefits from my job"	4.3441	.89917	20.70%
Total	**4.3522**	**.60987**	**14%**

Table (3) – Descriptive analysis for Job insecurity

Job insecurity	Mean	Std. Deviation	CV%
6. I am certain of losing my job.	4.2500	.79036	18.60%
7. I am uncertain about my future with this organization.	4.2124	.83750	19.88%
8. No matter how hard I work there is no guarantee that I am going to keep my job.	4.2419	.80468	18.97%
9. I am expecting unfavorable changes to my job	4.4731	.77482	17.32%
10. I will probably lose many features of my job that I value the most.[1]	4.3871	.82785	18.87%
11. Senior management is really trying to build this organization and make it successful.	4.6640	.63373	13.59%
12. I feel as though management is avoiding me.	4.5995	.80984	17.61%
Total	**4.4040**	**.63495**	**14.42%**

Table (4) – Descriptive analysis for Interpersonal competition

Interpersonal competition	Mean	Std. Deviation	CV%
13. "I have a fear of falling behind my colleagues,"	4.5806	.54595	11.92%
14. "I sometimes feel emotionally exhausted because of the high level of competition in the workplace,"	4.1801	.80920	19.36%
15. "I am afraid of not being promoted as fast as my colleagues,"	4.3575	.86166	19.77%
16. "I am afraid of getting a lower performance rating than my colleagues"	4.6317	.68197	14.72%
17. I often feel pressured to outperform my colleagues.	4.6989	.55013	11.71%
18. I feel that my coworkers are more like competitors rather than colleagues and/or collaborators	4.4731	.92397	20.66%
19. "I think I have to overcome my colleagues in order to get ahead in the organization,"	4.2231	.95799	22.68%
20. "I believe that my colleagues' good performance will count against me"	4.4785	.73940	16.51%
21. "If I share my 'know-how' with my colleagues, I'm afraid that they may perform better than me."	3.9032	.84118	21.55%
Total	**4.3919**	**.60316**	**13.73%**

Tables 2, 3 and 4 illustrated that the coefficient of variation (CV %) is no more than 65% which revealed that there is only a weak distortion of the collected data for all variables. These results imply the homogeneity of the surveyed sample.

Verifying hypotheses

The structural equation model (SEM) technique is used to test the effect of family motivation on interpersonal competitiveness and the Job insecurity effect on interpersonal competition at the same time (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1998).

The measurement model is a part of the SEM model, which deals with the latent variables and their indicators. A measurement model test must be done before assessing the SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998). The measurement model is critical to examine whether or not the measurement used in the study fits the data (Gettinby, Sinclair, Power, Brown, 2004).

Figure 2 presents a path diagram for model 1, representing a single observed interpersonal competition "Y" in the model. We study the effect of family motivation "X1" and Job insecurity "X2". Five questions in our survey asked respondents about family motivation; seven asked about Job insecurity, and nine asked about interpersonal competition.

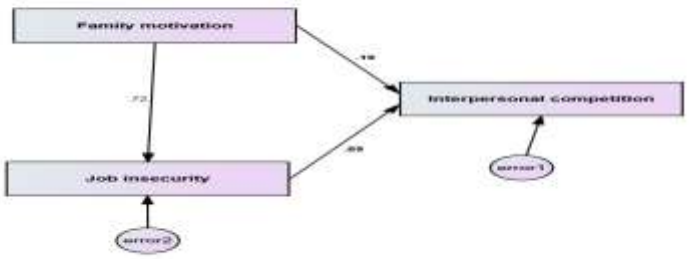

Figure (2) Path diagram for model 1

Verifying hypothesis

H1: family motivation has a positive effect on interpersonal competitiveness at the workplace.

Regression model (1) Analysis

A linear regression analysis with SEM used to investigate the effect of family motivation on the interpersonal competitiveness at the workplace, the results are listed below:

Table (5)

Regression Weights model 1

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
X2	<---	X1	.74554741	.03772865	19.76077403	0.0
Y	<---	X1	.19218587	.03950571	4.86476220	0.0
Y	<---	X2	.65872092	.03794521	17.35979183	0.0

Table (5) shows the regression weights for model 1 and by observing the critical ratio (C.R.), which represents the parameter estimate divided by its standard error; as such, it operates as a z-statistic in testing the estimate is statistically different from zero. Based on a probability level of significance of 0.05 or 0.01 Hoelter (1983) Critical N (C.N.) (albeit labeled as Hoelter's .05 and .01 indices), then the test statistic needs to be > ±1.96 before the hypothesis (that the estimate equals 0.0) can be rejected. We note that in reviewing the unstandardized estimates, all are statistically significant given C.R. values > 1.96 before the hypothesis (that the estimate equals 0.0) can be rejected. Moreover, the sign of the estimate of family motivation is

positive, so we can say that family motivation has a positive effect on interpersonal competitiveness in the workplace.

Checking model (1) goodness of fit

Table (6)
Model (1) goodness of fit indices

MODEL	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	AIC	ECVI	GFI
1	1.34	0.078	18	0.851	0.981

All goodness-of-fit statistics were provided for the initially hypothesized model in this first application; hereafter, only a selected group of fit statistics will be reported. We now examine each cluster as they relate to the hypothesized model (Arbuckle, 2007).

Finally, the results provide empirical evidence for verifying hypothesis H1, which supports that family motivation significantly positively affects interpersonal competitiveness in the workplace.

H3: The relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition is moderated by perceived job insecurity

To test H3, model (1) investigates the effect of family motivation and Job insecurity simultaneously on interpersonal competitiveness at the workplace, represented by the regression weights and the C.R between Job insecurity and interpersonal competition as shown in Table (5). Based on a probability level of significance of 0.05 or 0.01, the test statistic of Job insecurity should be > ±1.96 before the hypothesis (that the estimate equals

0.0) can be rejected. Regarding the unstandardized estimates, all values are statistically significant, given C.R. values > 1.96. Moreover, all estimated signs are positive. Thus the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition is moderated by perceived job insecurity. Tables (7) & (8) indicate standardized direct effects and standardized indirect effects for family motivation and job insecurity on Interpersonal competition, respectively.

Table (7)
Standardized Direct Effects

	Family motivation	**Job insecurity**
Job insecurity	.71609784	.00000000
Interpersonal competition	.19432148	.69343171

Table (8)
Standardized Indirect Effects

	Family motivation	Job insecurity
Job insecurity	.00000000	.00000000
Interpersonal competition	.49656495	.00000000

From the values in Tables (7) and (8), the standardized direct effect of family motivation on Interpersonal competition is 0.194, and a standardized indirect effect of family motivation on Interpersonal competition is 0.496. The direct effect is more than the indirect effect; this indicates that the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition is moderated by perceived job insecurity.

Regression model (2) Analysis

A linear regression analysis with SEM used to investigate the effect of family motivation on the interpersonal competitiveness, the results are listed below:

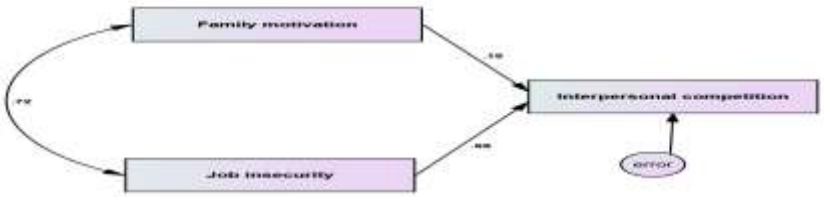

Figure (3) Path diagram for model 2

Table (9)
Regression Weights model 2

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Y	<---	X1	.19218587	.03950570	4.86476347	0.0
Y	<---	X2	.65872095	.03794520	17.35979778	0.0

Table (9) shows the regression weights for model 2 and by observing the critical ratio (C.R), which represents the parameter estimate divided by its standard error; as such, it operates as a z-statistic in testing the estimate is statistically different from zero. Based on a probability level of 0.05 or 0.01 significance (Hoelter, 1983). Critical (albeit labeled as Hoelter's .05 and .01 indices), the test statistic should be > ±1.96 before the hypothesis (that the

estimate equals 0.0) can be rejected. We note that in reviewing the unstandardized estimates, all are statistically significant given C.R. values > 1.96 before the hypothesis (that the estimate equals 0.0) can be rejected. Moreover, the sign of the estimate of family motivation is positive, so we can say that family motivation has a positive effect on interpersonal competitiveness.

Checking model (2) goodness of fit

Table (10)
Model (2) goodness of fit indices

Model	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	AIC	ECVI	GFI
2	12.58	0.112	33	0.842	0.907

All goodness-of-fit statistics were provided for the initially hypothesized model in this first application; hereafter, only a selected group of fit statistics will be reported. We turn now to an examination of each cluster as they relate to the hypothesized model. By comparing model 1 and model 2, it was found that AIC for model 1 is less than in model 2 (Murphy, 2012). Moreover, model 1 does not consider the moderating perceived job insecurity on the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition, so in this paper, we will rely on model 2.

H4 There is a difference in the effect of family motivation moderated by job insecurity on the interpersonal competition in the workplace between governmental and private universities in Egypt.

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the differences between governmental and private universities on the effect of family motivation moderated by job insecurity on interpersonal competition; the results are listed below:

Table (11)Tests of Between-Subjects Effects ANCOVA

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	96.221[a]	3	32.074	304.588	.000	.713
Intercept	2.732	1	2.732	25.946	.000	.066
X1	2.565	1	2.565	24.357	.000	.062
X2	30.712	1	30.712	291.656	.000	.442
X01	1.176	1	1.176	11.215	.017	.005
Error	38.751	368	.105			
Total	7310.321	372				
Corrected Total	134.972	371				

a. R Squared = .713 (Adjusted R Squared = .711)
b. Dependent Variable: interpersonal competition

From table (11), it was found that:

- Since the sig < α = 0.05 of the effect of family motivation and job insecurity on interpersonal competition, there is a significant effect of family motivation and job insecurity on interpersonal competition (proved in the previous hypothesis).
- Since the sig < α = 0.05 of the difference between governmental and private universities, it can be concluded that there is a difference in the effect of family motivation

moderated by job insecurity on the interpersonal competition between governmental and private universities in Egypt.

- Figure (4) shows the differences between governmental and private universities :

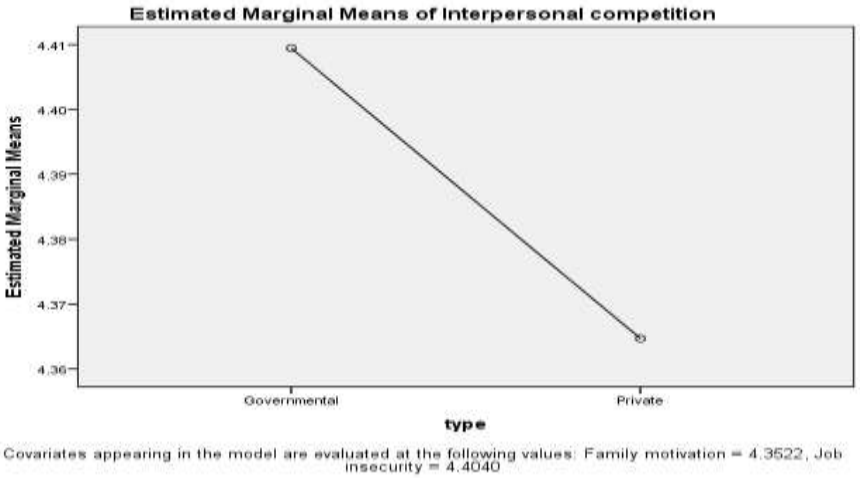

Figure (4)
Comparison between governmental and private universities

Figure (4) shows the difference between governmental and private universities; it is clear that the effect of family motivation and job insecurity on interpersonal competition is more significant than in private universities.

Discussion and research findings

This research suggests that the desire to support a family through work may flame competition among co-workers, especially when job insecurity is high. Additionally, the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition is moderated by

job insecurity, which is most notable in private rather than in governmental universities.

The present study hypothesized that family motivation positively relates to interpersonal competition (H1). In line with the existing literature, the statistical tests proved that family motivation positively influences interpersonal competition in the workplace.

This matches with the results of Menges et al. (2017) research indicating that family motivation could even cause unethical behavior at extreme levels as employees will stop at no end to support their families. Moreover, family-motivated employees might show less interest in supporting other colleagues and co-workers at the workplace (Umrani et al., 2019). Family motivation is more forceful than pro-social motivation due to one's deep concern for his/her family (Menges et al., 2017).

However, this finding contradicts scholars' findings about the positive outcomes of family motivation, like energy and job performance. In addition, Erum, Abid, Contreras, & Islam (2020) indicated that employees who perceive their work as a source of benefit to their families feel self-efficacious as they consider themselves capable of fulfilling their responsibility toward their families. Since their work becomes the reason for enhancing their confidence about their skills/capabilities and satisfying family responsibility, they show increased affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors in exchange. One explanation for this contradiction is that high self-efficacy and

confidence would increase social comparisons leading to increased competition between co-workers. Another explanation is that some scholars imply that interpersonal competition is a positive force that leads to better outcomes (e.g., Baer, Leenders, Oldham, & Vadera, 2010).

This study also hypothesized that Job insecurity significantly affects interpersonal competition H2. The statistical tests supported this hypothesis showing that the more employees perceive job insecurity, the more likely they compete against each other. Sverke and colleagues (2002) mainly supported the anticipated adverse effects of job insecurity on exerted effort, intentions to leave, change resistance, organizational productivity, turnover, and adaptability. This finding is in line with Robbins and Judge (2011), who indicated that cooperation among group members increases in the presence of a climate of trust. Indeed**,** perceived job insecurity among employees deteriorates their trust amongst themselves, leading to less cooperation and harmony between them. Moreover, empirical research also showed that employees with temporary contracts could worsen social relations (Saunders and Thornhill, 2006).

The study also predicted the moderation effect of job insecurity in the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition. The statistical analysis landed support for H3, meaning that the effect of family motivation on interpersonal competition is stronger (weaker) when job insecurity is high

(low). This is in line with the results of Tyler and Blader (2001), who link cooperative behavior to the resources people receive from their groups. According to social exchange theories, scholars propose that employees' behavior in groups is determined by perceptions about past, current, and expected future rewards from group membership (Foa & Foa, 1974; Homans, 1961; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Rusbult & Van Lange, 1996; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In other words, one reason people might participate in and cooperate with others is to gain the resources associated with group membership and support their families. This indicates that feeling insecure about such resources and rewards might lead to interpersonal competition; this is especially true in the presence of family motivation. This finding is also supported by the research indicating that family size promotes the feeling of insecurity. Job insecurity stress was related in a systemic way to marital and family dysfunction, and the number of family problems reported (Jeffry Larson, Stephan Wilson, and Rochelle Beley, 1994). People keen on supporting their prominent families would compete with others, especially in the presence of perceived job insecurity.

H4 showed that the effect of family motivation and job insecurity on governmental interpersonal competition is more significant than in private universities. This finding could be justified based on the type of employment contracts governmental universities offer compared to private universities. Governmental universities

offer lifelong employment contracts; this secures jobs for employees and their families; however, such conditions flares competition among employees for extra work and bonuses. It is also notable that the salary levels in governmental universities are much lower, which increases interpersonal competition among employees for extra tasks and rewards.

Recommendations

This research has consequences for employees, managers, and organizations. Managers and HR practitioners should focus on intrinsic rather than extrinsic incentives. Further, salary increases must be based on team performance rather than individual performance. Layoffs should be passed on to individualistic behaviors, leading to milder effects of family motivation and job insecurity on interpersonal competition. Moderate interpersonal competition between colleagues is not harmful; it can be beneficial with the presence of organizational justice (Tjosvold et al., 2003).

It is recommended that managers or HR practitioners consider implementing financial wellness programs in their organizations to improve employees' financial situation. Such programs might also increase employees' organizational identification—a factor that mitigates the relationship between family financial pressure and unethical behavior (Liu, Liao & Liu, 2020).

Limitations and Future research

A fundamental limitation of this paper is the use of self-reports to gather data, a common source of concern about bias. Future studies

should consider longitudinal or diary study research designs to identify the mechanisms behind the relationship between job insecurity, family motivation, and interpersonal competition. Future research should also consider different fields to study these variables together, such as the tourism sector, since it is the most prone to insecurity. It is also suggested that later papers tackle other mediating variables such as workaholism, organizational justice, leadership styles, well-being, compensation structures, and employment contract types in the relationship between family motivation and interpersonal competition.

Conclusion

Prior research has found that family motivation enhances efforts exertion and energy invested in the organization on employee performance. However, other scholars indicated that family motivation might have negative effects, including unethical behavior and gaining focused attitudes. We also found that job insecurity is likely to trigger the effects of family motivation on interpersonal competition among employees. This paper offers a more nuanced clarification of family motivation, interpersonal completion, and job insecurity in the organization and recommendations for practitioners' and scholars' future research.

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