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**Finding the New Path
Between Goal Orientations and Idea
Generation and Implementation:
Mediating Role of Status-seeking Behavior
and Moderating Role of Status Conflict**

목표성향과 혁신적 아이디어 창출 및 실행 간
새로운 경로 모색:
지위추구행동의 매개 효과와 지위 갈등의 조절 효과

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ABSTRACT

Finding the New Path
Between Goal Orientations and Idea
Generation and Implementation:
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and Moderating Role of Status Conflict

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Although numerous studies have examined the relationship between goal orientations and innovative performance based on consensus framework, researchers have rarely investigated such relationship using a dissensus framework. Given the importance of a balanced view between consensus and dissensus, we consider status-seeking behavior as an intermediate dissensus process and status conflict as a critical contingency to understand the condition that allows goal orientations to manifest as drivers of status-seeking behavior. We test our hypotheses through a series of multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM) and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analyses. Our analyses using data from 255 employees of 48 teams show that (i) learning goal

orientation is positively related to both idea generation and idea implementation; (ii) prestige-seeking behavior positively mediates the relationship between proving goal orientation and idea generation and implementation; (iii) dominance-seeking behavior negatively mediates the relationship between proving goal orientation and idea implementation; and (iv) status conflict moderates the indirect effect of proving goal orientation on idea generation via prestige-seeking behavior. Our findings provide new insights into the relationship between goal orientations and innovative performance by considering status-related mechanisms.

Keywords: learning goal orientation, avoiding goal orientation, proving goal orientation, idea generation, idea implementation, prestige-seeking behavior, dominance-seeking behavior, status conflict

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I. INTRODUCTION

Employee creativity and innovation are fundamental to organizational success, competitive advantage, and long-term survival (Amabile, 1988, 1996; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004; West, 2002). Therefore, many organizations set creative and innovative goals, while managers and scholars seek to understand how employees respond to such goals (Shalley, 1991; Oldham, 2003). Given that creativity and innovation are unpredictable and arise in a goal-directed process (Kanter, 2000; Van de Ven, 1986), recent studies have utilized goal orientation theory to identify individual differences in two processes (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1986; Vandewalle, 1997).

Some researchers have examined on the relationship between individual goal orientation and employee creativity. For example, Hirst, Van Knippenberg, and Zhou (2009) showed that learning goal orientation is positively related to creativity, whereas approach orientation is positively linked to creativity only when team learning behavior is high. Additionally, Gong, Huang, and Farh (2009) found that learning goal orientation is conducive to creative self-efficacy, thereby fostering employee creativity. By extension, as innovative performance has a wide range of creativity-based performances and is evident in workgroups (Lu, Lin, & Leung, 2012), a few literature has recently investigated the effect of goal orientations on innovative performance. For example, Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) reported that mastery orientation predicts innovative job performance. However, their findings are ambiguous because they measured innovative job performance including both idea generation and implementation. Anderson, Potočnik, and Zhou (2014) indicated that considering such innovation should be divided into idea generation (i.e. creativity) and implementation (Amabile, 1996; Shalley & Zhou, 2008; West & Farr, 1990), existing studies

cannot answer that which dimension of innovation is linked to mastery orientation. To solve this ambiguity problem and integrate academic fragmentations between creativity and innovation research, we considered both idea generation and implementation (i.e., two domains of innovation that include creativity) in studying goal orientation. Our integrated framework comprehensively investigates the relationship between goal orientation and employee innovative performance.

On the basis of componential theory of organizational creativity and innovation (Amabile, 1997), prior studies have elucidated the relationships between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation by investigating intermediate processes that reflect three main factors essential to idea generation and implementation (i.e., expertise, creative-thinking skill, and intrinsic motivation). Some researchers focused on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and considered several psychological mechanisms such as creative self-efficacy (Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009), PsyCap (Huang & Luthans, 2015) and self-leadership (Cural & Marques, 2009). Other studies used the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978) and investigated the mediating effect of leader-member exchange (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) and knowledge sharing (Lu, Lin, & Leung, 2012).

However, these studies have limitations in specifying the relationships between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation, because they predominantly considered intermediate processes based on the consensus framework of social order, which is a goal-aligned society among individuals, teams, and organizations (Deetz, 1996). Thus, these studies have assumed functionalism, wherein employees behave in congruence with group or organization goals, and knowledge is neutral (Schultze & Stabell, 2004). Previous studies based on social cognitive theory have presumed that employees with

learning goal orientation behave and produce innovative outcomes to fulfill organizational goals through creative self-efficacy, psychological capital (PsyCap), and self-leadership. Furthermore, subsequent literature drawn from social exchange perspective has assumed that learning-oriented people behave peacefully and aim to engage in leader-member exchange and knowledge sharing based on mutual trust, respect, and reciprocity (i.e., main characteristics of social relations in the consensus framework), thereby promoting innovative performance. However, a consensus-oriented framework may provide an excessively harmonious perspective and overlook the significance of conflicts.

By contrast, few researchers have studied the intermediate process using the dissensus framework, which centers on self-interest. Dissensus is the other dimension of social order (Deetz, 1996), and it assumes that conflict theory is based on a conflict of interests and considers knowledge as a political resource (Schultze & Stabell, 2004). This characteristic is intrinsic to human society, because, though collaborative interactions shape social structure, communal living indispensably accompanies conflicts over disparate goals and competition for limited resources (Cheng & Tracy, 2014). Despite the coexistence of consensus and dissensus in society, previous literature has been mostly based on the consensus-oriented framework. Therefore, the dissensus aspect should be considered to provide realistic and comprehensive explanations (cf. Keegan & Boselie, 2006). Considering that the dissensus framework views an organization as a dynamic entity based on conflicts (Dahrendorf, 1958), the perspective may be meaningful in specifying the innovative performance entailing the change of status quo.

The representative intermediate process based on dissensus framework is status-seeking mechanism. Human beings are intrinsically motivated to seek high social ranks (Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980), because people with high

status have relatively high influence and valuable resources (Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Mazur, 1973). As status is a limited social resource in a group, an individual's selfish pursuits of status often leads to competitions and conflicts (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). Thus, status-seeking mechanism is inherent in the dissensus aspect, because striving for status entails a zero-sum (Griskevicius et al., 2006; Huberman et al., 2004). We explored status-seeking behavior, which is a superficial cue of the status-seeking mechanism as an intermediate dissensus procedure. Ultimately, we examined the mediating effects of status-seeking behaviors primarily based on selfishness toward innovative performance.

According to the Dominance-Prestige Account, an integrative evolutionary model, each employee chooses to do either or both status-seeking behavior patterns, namely, prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior (Cheng et al., 2013; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010; Anderson & Kennedy, 2012). Prestige-seeking behavior implies altruistic and prosocial behavior such as sharing valuable knowledge and working hard to acquire organizational admiration, whereas dominance-seeking behavior involves the utilization of aggression and coercion to induce fear (Cheng & Tracy, 2014).

To achieve prestige or dominance, individuals with different goal orientation may employ different status-seeking behaviors, because goal orientations have distinct tendencies to approach, construe, and respond to achievement (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Barron et al., 2000). Drawing from motivated action theory of goal orientation (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005) in a status-seeking setting, goal orientations encourage employees to choose a certain type of status-seeking behavior, either consciously or subconsciously, to achieve status. Therefore, we proposed that goal orientations based on different perceptual-cognitive frameworks may influence individual differences in displaying prestige- and dominance-seeking behaviors.

This study also explored the mediating effects of prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior on the relationship between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation. Prior studies have mostly focused on the beneficial effects of prestige-seeking behavior on idea generation (e.g., Barclay, 2010a; Nijstad & De Dreu, 2012; Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017). For example, generous and altruistic behaviors to obtain admiration involve offering useful ideas to colleagues or a group (Barclay, 2010a). Employees also generate and share novel ideas even at high cost to demonstrate their superior status (Nijstad & De Dreu, 2012) or to obtain organizational recognition for their contribution (Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017). Consistent with costly signaling and competitive altruism theories, prestige-seeking behaviors may be positively related to producing novel and useful ideas, though such behaviors are based on political needs for prestige (Schultze & Stabell, 2004). To fully cover the mediating role of status-seeking behavior in innovative performance, the present study extended previous discussions by investigating the mediating effect of prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior on idea generation and implementation.

Lastly, the present study analyzed the work-group context that facilitates the relationship between trait and behavior, given that the behavior of an employee cannot be fully explained without considering the performance context (Johns, 2006). We drew from achievement motivation theory of goal orientation and evolutionary perspective to identify a contextual contingency of the relationship between goal orientation and status-seeking behavior.

In achievement motivation theory of goal orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005), an achievement situation is fundamental to express goal orientations. Goal orientations do not function as motivation to seek status if status achievement is minimally necessary. Thus, a specific context that necessitates status attainment may activate goal orientations into status-seeking

behaviors. Considering that status conflict is a work-group context that aggravates interpersonal tensions over status among employees because of self-interest in a group (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Jehn, 1995), status conflict places employees in a status achievement situation.

Moreover, according to evolutionary logic, selection pressure on social hierarchy activates the status-seeking behaviors of individuals (Cheng & Tracy, 2014). Status conflict is a phenomenon that exerts selection pressure on the survival of an individual in a social hierarchy (e.g., Manson & Wrangham, 1991). Individuals may show status-seeking behaviors based on their goal orientations to survive when their status is challenged by others. Accordingly, we proposed that status conflict is a boundary condition that causes employees to be more or less likely to pursue status based on their goal orientations depending on the degree of status conflict. This proposal is consistent with the dissensus framework of social order adopted by this research.

II. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

We first discuss the relationships between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation. We then analyze how learning, avoiding and proving goal orientations guide employees to adopt status-seeking behaviors. Furthermore, we investigate the mediating effect of status-seeking behaviors in the relationship between three goal orientations and idea generation and implementation. Finally, we examine the moderated mediation effect of status conflict. Our conceptual framework is presented in Figure 1.

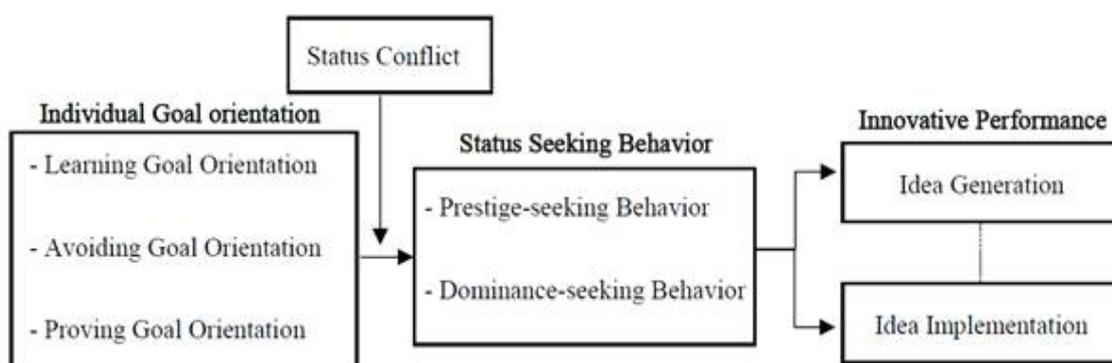


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

1. Individual Goal Orientations and Idea Generation and Implementation

Innovation has been conceptually divided into two stages: idea generation (i.e., production of novel ideas) and idea implementation (i.e., promotion and realization of creative ideas). Idea generation and implementation are uncertain processes, because their causes and sources are unpredictable (Kanter, 2000). These processes often emerge from unforeseen setbacks and challenges in the pursuit of work goals (Shalley, 1991). Thus, idea generation and implementation are goal-directed processes. Individuals with different goal orientations may show

different processes of idea generation and implementation because goal orientation is a dispositional goal preference (Dweck, 1999).

According to achievement motivation theory, goal orientations serve as mental frameworks that influence how employees approach, understand, and engage to an achievement situation (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). The three main dimensions of goal orientation have been accepted in the literature are learning, avoiding, and proving goal orientations (VandeWalle, 1997). Learning goal orientation concentrates on developing employee competence by mastering new knowledge or skills. By contrast, avoiding and proving goal orientation focus on external evaluations, either avoiding negative evaluations or demonstrating superiority, respectively. In the following subsections, we discuss how these goal orientations influence idea generation and implementation.

1.1. Learning Goal Orientation and Idea Generation and Implementation

Numerous studies have confirmed the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and idea generation (Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009; Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009; Hirst et al., 2011; Huang & Luthans, 2015; Rhee & Choi, 2016; Song, Zhang, & Jiang, 2015). For example, Hirst and Van Knippenberg showed that learning goal orientation is conducive to intrinsic motivations and skill acquisition, both of which are necessary for individual creativity (Amabile, 1996). Learning-oriented employees are intrinsically interested in tasks, and thus, tend to acquire new knowledge and skills to comprehend task performance (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). This proactive involvement of intrinsic motivation increases their domain- and creativity-relevant skills, which often lead to creative results (Amabile, 1996). Additionally, learning-oriented individuals consider challenging situations as opportunities to develop competence

(Ames & Archer, 1988). Thus, learning-oriented employees seek challenges and tend to exert high efforts to master new knowledge and skills for dealing with the challenges (Dweck, 1999), thereby producing creative ideas.

Furthermore, these characteristics of learning-oriented individuals benefit idea implementation (e.g., Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Curral & Marques, 2009; Lu, Lin, & Leung, 2012). For example, Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) discussed that mastery goal orientation (i.e. learning goal orientation) helps in idea implementation which is difficult and challenging. Idea implementation entails delays such as controversy and resistance of other members, because of its unpredictable results (Frost & Egri, 1991; Janssen, 2003; Green, Welsh, & Dehler, 2003). Thus, employees should cope with the external oppositions to implement their creative ideas. Given that learning-oriented individuals consider these adversities as learning opportunities, they may effectively handle such difficulties by investing in sociopolitical efforts to support idea implementation (e.g., Farr, Hofmann, & Ringenbach, 1993).

Hypothesis 1: Learning goal orientation is positively related to both idea generation and idea implementation.

1.2. Avoiding Goal Orientation and Idea Generation and Implementation

Avoiding goal orientation may be negatively related to idea generation and implementation. Avoiding-oriented employees dislike exposing their incompetence and receiving other's negative evaluation (VandeWalle, 2004; Bordia et al., 2006). Moreover, they have a high fear of failure and low competence expectancy, both of which lead to maladaptive behavior and poor performance (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliot et al., 1999). Thus, avoiding-oriented employees tend to shy away from challenging situations with a

high risk of failure (Harackiewicz et al., 2002). However, idea generation and implementation are unpredictable processes. Idea generation requires new ideas (e.g., Kanter, 2000; Pelz, 1985; Wolfe, 1995), while idea implementation entails unforeseen setbacks such as conflicts of power and viewpoints about creative ideas (Frost & Egri, 1991; Janssen et al., 2004). This uncertainty may discourage avoiding-oriented individuals from generating and implementing ideas, because doing so would expose their flaws and they focus on the prevention of failure.

Hypothesis 2: Avoiding goal orientation is negatively related to both idea generation and idea implementation.

1.3. Proving Goal Orientation and Idea Generation and Implementation

Although proving goal orientation takes account of fear of failure along with avoiding goal orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997), proving-oriented individuals have a relatively high level of competence expectancy and focus on demonstrating their competence. However, proving goal orientation is a more complicated concept (cf. Darnon et al., 2007). It includes both avoidance and approach motives, and its effects differ depending on the accessibility of each of two motivations (Elliot, 1997, 1999). On the one hand, proving-oriented employees show maladaptive responses to challenging tasks in situations that have a high probability of failure, because their fear of failure arises and hinders their performance (e.g., Elliot, 1997; Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001). On the other hand, when proving-oriented employees perceive a likely successful situation, they show adaptive response and creative performance for verifying their competence (e.g., Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009; Hirst et al., 2011). These contrasting aspects lead to different behavioral patterns and correspond to the insignificant effect on innovative performances (Janssen & Van

Yperen, 2004). Therefore, the effect of proving goal orientation on idea generation and implementation may comprehensively be specified by taking the different mediating processes for demonstrating competence into account. Accordingly, we did not propose the main effect hypotheses for proving goal orientation in this section.

2. Individual Goal Orientation and Status-seeking Behavior

The Prestige-Dominance Account (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001) states that social hierarchy in contemporary human society has two paths of rank allocation: prestige and dominance. Prestige is a conferred social rank to individuals whose knowledge, expertise, or success are recognized and admired, while dominance indicates the use of intimidation and induction of fear.

Although the pursuit of prestige and dominance enhance social rank in a group, the effectiveness of these status-seeking behaviors differs depending on individual characteristics (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010). For example, prestige-seeking behavior is useless for attaining status to individuals perceived as incompetent. Dominance-seeking behavior also has higher costs than benefits to attain status for individuals who are poor in intimidation. In addition, prestige- and dominance-seeking behaviors come from distinct sets of affective and cognitive processes, because they come from distinct selection mechanisms (Maner & Case, 2016). Considering these aspects of status-seeking behaviors, goal orientations with different perceptual-cognitive frameworks may serve as the criteria to decide which status-seeking behavior is advantageous for status attainment. Consistent with the evolutionary cognitive psychology perspective (Kenrick, Sadalla, & Keefe, 1998), employees with goal orientations might analyze which status-seeking behavior maximizes their fit in negotiating social

hierarchy by using distinct patterns of information processing. Accordingly, these three dimensions of goal orientations may affect employee perception on status achievement situation and induce distinct behavioral patterns in seeking prestige or dominance.

2.1. Prestige-seeking Behavior and Learning and Proving Goal Orientation

In the competence-based perspective, status is conferred to employees who show high levels of performance and contribute to their colleagues or group (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Berger et al., 1972). The competence-based framework accounts for prestige-seeking behaviors that aim to obtain respect through the presentation of valuable knowledge, skill, and successful performance (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Thus, employees who seek prestige often exhibit unselfish and talented behaviors (e.g., Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017; Dubois et al., 2012). When the sacrificing and competent behaviors of employees are perceived significantly or appreciated by other members, colleagues admire (i.e. political support, information; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001) members for sharing their knowledge and skills (Barclay, 2010b; Millet & Dewitte, 2007).

Learning-oriented employees require a certain level of status that can support self-development resources, because status is related to the control of valuable resources such as novel knowledge and power, which are essential for personal development (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003). Learning-oriented individuals may seek status and find appropriate status-seeking behaviors in status attainment to acquire valuable resources and opportunities necessary for self-development. Learning goal orientation may provide a cognitive arrangement for seeking prestige. First, learning-oriented individuals tend to invest enormous effort and time in completing tasks (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Learning goal

orientation facilitates intrinsic motivation and learning-oriented individuals considers all tasks as opportunities to develop their skills and knowledge. Thus, these individuals are known to be more perseverant and effortful when faced with challenging tasks (Dweck, 2000). To complete complex tasks, learning-oriented individuals tend to actively promote learning strategies (Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007) and seek feedback (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). In these processes, they obtain useful skills and knowledge to perform tasks, thereby enhancing performance quality (Locke et al., 1981). Therefore, learning-oriented employees are adept at developing know-how or solutions that other members cannot easily realize, thereby seeking prestige efficiently.

Second, learning goal orientation induces subjective feelings of self-confidence and fulfillment (Phillips & Gully, 1997; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). These perceptions lead to the psychological preparedness for socially valued accomplishment, considering that learning-oriented individuals tend to engage in adaptable behaviors in challenging task and perform better than the other goal oriented individuals (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Porath & Bateman, 2006). Thus, learning-oriented employees confidently attain prestige by showing enhanced performance and contribution to their group. In conclusion, learning-oriented employees may exhibit patterns of prestige-seeking behaviors in that they can easily be admired by other members.

Hypothesis 3a: Learning goal orientation is positively related to prestige-seeking behavior.

Another possibility is that learning-oriented employees don't bother about their status; they have an internal locus of control and set a high value on their

own achievement (Phillips & Gully, 1997). As they focus internally on themselves, they are not conscious of what others think of them (VandeWalle, 1997; Dweck & Elliott, 1983). Thus, there is a possibility that learning-oriented employees may not concern and show any status-seeking behaviors regardless of status struggles.

Hypothesis 3a-Alternative: Learning goal orientation is not related to status-seeking behavior.

Employees with a proving orientation want other members to recognize their competence and superiority (VandeWalle, 1997). Also, they are self-conscious of what other people think of them. Thus, proving-oriented employees have a high level of need for recognition of their capability. As prestige is attained from the favorable perception of other members, proving-oriented individuals might find a means of broadcasting and advertising their competence for other members to perceive their prestigious characteristics (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). In this sense, proving-oriented employees may seek their own status by verifying their ability such as informational competence and task performing ability. They tend to boast and oversell their novel knowledge to other members to acquire a favorable reputation and demonstrate informational competitiveness (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). In addition, proving-oriented employees make sufficient effort to show superior performance to validate their task performing ability (e.g., Barron et al., 2000; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz et al., 1997). In these respects, proving-oriented employees may choose to display prestige-seeking behaviors to prove the entitlement to their social status by asserting their intelligence and competence.

Hypothesis 3b: Proving goal orientation is positively related to

prestige-seeking behavior.

2.2. Dominance-seeking Behavior and Avoiding and Proving goal orientation

Conflict-based perspective argues that status is distributed to individuals superior in the competition for dominance (Buss & Duntley, 2006; Hill & Hurtado, 1996; Mazur, 1973). In contrast with the competence-based framework of prestige, dominance is caused by other members' fear, not from perceived contribution and expertise (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2013). In this framework, status is allocated to individuals who appear dominant, and social influence is based on coercive compliance. Thus, intimidation is an instrumental behavior to seek dominance, because it evokes fear in other members (Cheng et al., 2013; Maner & Mead, 2010).

Similar to proving-oriented employees, avoiding-oriented employees are attuned to external factors such as external evaluation (VandeWalle, 1997). Thus, they may be sensitive to the issue of status and seek their relative position in the social hierarchy (Henrich & Gil-white, 2001). Avoiding-oriented individuals may prefer dominance-seeking behaviors as the best way of status attainment. Avoiding-oriented employees focus on avoiding criticism and dislike exposure of their deficiency (VandeWalle, 2004; Bordia et al., 2006). Thus, they tend to be defensive and overreact to challenges on their status, adopting an aggressive attitude toward other members (Skaalvik, 1997). As aggression is a fundamental component of dominance strategy (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010), avoiding-oriented employees are more skilled in seeking dominance which can be acquired by intimidation and coercion. Also, avoiding-oriented employees may seek the definite way of seeking status, because they want to avoid the possibility of failure (VandeWalle, 1997). Dominance-seeking behavior is a direct

and forceful tactics to attain interpersonal power, such as aggression and coercion, whereas prestige-seeking behavior is an uncertain and indirect means to achieve freely conferred deference. Therefore, avoiding-oriented employees may prefer dominance-seeking behavior through which they can manage their status.

Furthermore, avoiding-oriented employees cannot easily select prestige-seeking behaviors, such as sharing novel ideas and producing high performance. While prestige requires sharing know-how or expertise for status attainment (Groysberg et al., 2011; Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017), avoidant employees tend to hide knowledge to prevent others from recognizing their deficiencies (Rhee & Choi, 2016; VandeWalle, 2004). The introduction of new ideas is vulnerable to criticism, and there is the risk of disclosure of their flaws, such as lack of knowledge (Kanter, 2000). Thus, they may associate prestige-seeking behavior with risky activities to reveal their defects. Additionally, these employees find it difficult to seek prestige by showing high performance, because they tend to experience high task anxiety from fear of failure and showing poor performance in complex tasks (Eum & Rice, 2011; Simmons & Ren, 2009; Porath & Bateman, 2006). Therefore, prestige-seeking behaviors are ineffective ways of status attainment for avoiding-oriented employees. Some literature has found that excessively abusive and coercive behavior is shown by individuals who find it difficult to seek prestige (Fast & Chen, 2009; Fast et al., 2012). Accordingly, avoiding-oriented individuals prefer to implement dominance-seeking behaviors and hesitate to demonstrate prestige-seeking behavior.

Hypothesis 4a: Avoiding goal orientation is positively related to dominance-seeking behaviors.

Proving-oriented employees may adopt dominance-seeking behavior as

well as prestige-seeking behavior. As mentioned above, they desire to demonstrate their power and outperform others (VandeWalle, 1997). Along with their intelligence and task performing ability, proving-oriented employees may adopt dominance-seeking behavior to prove their power in a group. Given their focus on manifesting superiority in a power hierarchy, they may interact with other colleagues to appear superior. Moreover, these employees tend to keep socially and emotionally distant even from their leader, because they feel inferior to their leader with a higher rank (i.e., abilities) (cf. Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Thus, they may seek interpersonal power to show their superior position in the social hierarchy. By adopting dominance-seeking behavior, proving-oriented employees want others to give in and perceive them as powerful enough to obtain social status (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Therefore, they may often select dominance-seeking behavior to demonstrate their status.

Hypothesis 4b: Proving goal orientation is positively related to dominance-seeking behaviors.

3. Status-seeking Behavior as an Intermediate Dissensus Mediator

We expected that prestige- and dominance-seeking behaviors may mediate the relationship between goal orientation and idea generation and implementation. Idea generation and implementation require different levels of idea originality and social interaction (Rank et al., 2004). Idea generation is mainly an internal cognitive process that creates genuinely novel ideas, whereas idea implementation is generally an interpersonal social process of acquiring social support and overcoming oppositions (Anderson & King, 1993; Axtell et al., 2000). We previously argued that learning- and proving-oriented individuals adopt

prestige-seeking behaviors that center on broadcasting competent attributes, whereas avoiding- and proving-oriented people choose dominance-seeking behaviors based on interpersonal pressures to forcefully achieve status. The distinct core characteristics of these two status-seeking behaviors may influence employees to perform idea generation (i.e., creativity) and implementation.

3.1. Mediating Effect of Prestige-seeking Behavior

Prestige-seeking behavior aims to broadcast the expertise of individuals and their ability to obtain prestige (Cheng et al., 2013; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). This finding can be explained by costly signaling theory and competitive altruism theory. These two theories propose that excessive public display of talent and generosity accompanying high levels of cost and effort bring individuals a reputation of being competent and generous because of their outstanding and altruistic contributions to the group (Gintis, Smith, & Bowles, 2001; Zahavi, 1995). Consistent with these evolutionary theories, humans sometimes share highly valuable resources expecting returns of prestige and recognition (Connelly et al., 2011; Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006).

In the initial stage of retaining valuable ideas used to display their informational competence, employees engage in highly cognitive processes of creating novel knowledge and discovering useful practices from outside their organization (Zhou & Shalley, 2011). For example, employees invest significant cognitive effort and energy into developing valuable ideas such as tacit knowledge (E. F. Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002; Renzl, 2008). This intensive cognitive work is conducive for idea generation, which requires intra-individual cognitive flexibility that depends on one's ability (Amabile, 1996; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhou & Shalley, 2011; Baer, 2012).

Another example of prestige-seeking behavior is sharing valuable knowledge (Connelly et al., 2011; Gintis, Smith, & Bowles, 2001). Sharing novel ideas obtained from either oneself or others even at high costs is a necessary idea generation process. When employees hide useful ideas due to the risk of losing competitiveness from public disclosure (Lu, Leung & Koch, 2006), useful ideas cannot be generated. Prestige-seeking behavior centers on the unselfish sharing of privileged ideas without concealment in the belief that high costs can be recouped by exposing their hidden superior quality and acquiring prestige (Barclay, 2010b; Smith & Bird, 2000). The prestige-seeking behavior shown by learning- and proving-oriented employees may be conducive to idea generation, given that such prestige-seeking behavior focuses on costly advertisement. Consistent with our prediction, prior literature has found that such prestige-seeking behavior is beneficial to idea generation performance (e.g., Nijstad & De Dreu, 2012; Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017; Sligte, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011). Accordingly, learning- and proving-oriented employees tend to show prestige-seeking behaviors attuned to the highly cognitive process of creating novel ideas, which is conducive to idea generation.

Prestige-seeking behavior demonstrated by learning- and proving-oriented people also aids in idea implementation, which is mainly a social-political process (e.g., Van de Ven, 1986; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Political conflicts and oppositions about the implementation of creative ideas increase because creative ideas tend to accompany radical changes in roles and power (Frost & Egri, 1991; Janssen et al., 2004). As a consequence, creative ideas require resources that are difficult to acquire (i.e., funding and materials) for idea implementation (Damanpour, 1988; Norman, 1971). Therefore, obtaining and mobilizing political support are fundamental to resource allocation decision-making to implement ideas (Kanter, 2000; Green, Welsh, & Dehler,

2003).

Prestige-seeking behaviors can be effectively collectively accepted, which is fundamental in idea implementation (Choi & Chang, 2009). Collective innovation acceptance is defined as the shared positive vision of employees about the idea and belief that idea implementation can bring profitable outputs (Choi & Price, 2005; Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005). Aside from seeking prestige in an informational domain, prestige-seeking behavior also includes the demonstration of high-level task performing ability for the organizational recognition of expertise (e.g., Bottger, 1984; Laughlin et al., 1975; Miner, 1984). For seeking prestige in a task performance domain, employees invest enormous efforts and time in challenging tasks to achieve high performance that contributes to the group. This willingness to work hard helps obtain sponsorship and autonomy from supervisors (cf. Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004).

In addition, showing proficiency in complex tasks to acquire prestige can effectively obtain collective acceptance from other members. Other employees judge the utility of an idea implementation on the basis of the actor's reputation and competence-related cues about his/her ability to implement ideas because new ideas are generally uncertain and unauthenticated (Podolny, 1994). Additionally, decision-makers tend to permit and assist the ideas of presenters perceived to be competent and talented (Cattani & Ferriani, 2008; Hargadon, 2005; Shane & Cable, 2002). Prestige-seeking behavior may be effective in obtaining political support for the ideas of other members, because the display of expertise to seek prestige enhances task-related competence (e.g., Frost & Egri, 1991; Van de Ven, 1986), which is fruitful in promoting ideas and securing funds for implementation (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Therefore, learning- and proving oriented employees tend to employ prestige-seeking behavior, which effectively gathers the political support essential for idea implementation.

These inferences on the intermediate mechanism of prestige-seeking behavior are proposed in the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5a: Prestige-seeking behavior mediates the positive relationships between learning goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation.

Hypothesis 5b: Prestige-seeking behavior mediates the positive relationships between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation

3.2. Mediating Effect of Dominance-seeking Behavior

Dominance-seeking behavior focuses on verbal and nonverbal intimidation, such as aggression and coercion (Cheng & Tracy, 2014). Thus, this behavior seems to be unrelated to the quality of ideas (Cheng et al., 2013; Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010), and may be destructive to idea generation. Information hoarding, a typical example of knowledge-related dominance seeking behavior, is often implemented to maintain dominance. Employees who seek dominance often withhold valuable knowledge from other members to retain informational power (Maner & Mead, 2010). Given that dominance-seeking behaviors, such as information hoarding, prevent employees from reaping the benefits of social exchange, avoiding- and proving-oriented individuals who refuse to share knowledge to seek dominance tend to fail in generating novel ideas appropriate for their group (Černe et al., 2014; Rhee & Choi, 2016).

Dominance-seeking behavior may likewise harm idea implementation. Dominance-seeking behavior has been recently argued to be futile for exerting social influences on other members. As Cheng & Tracy (2014) pointed, the

display of coercive and threatening behavior causes reciprocal resistances rather than submission from other members (Copeland et al., 1995; Ridgeway and Diekema, 1989). Furthermore, dominance-based leadership based on dominance-seeking behaviors is often resisted by subordinates and is ineffective in obtaining their commitment (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988).

Aggressive behavior may not obtain the support from other members in gathering social political resources, such as sponsorship and advocacy, for idea implementation. Although dominance-seeking behavior can sometimes succeed in inducing coerced compliance from colleagues (e.g., Kracke, 1978; Pellegrini & Long, 2002), it is ineffective in obtaining support from supervisors with high social ranks. As the dominance-seeking behaviors of subordinates may hinder the formation of favorable relationships between a leader and subordinate, they may hinder gathering additional advocacy necessary for idea implementation. Accordingly, the expected lack of support from colleagues and leaders may deter avoiding- and proving-oriented employees who engage in dominance-seeking behaviors from performing idea implementation.

Our reasoning on the intermediate mechanism of dominance-seeking behavior can be summarized in the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a: Dominance-seeking behavior mediates the negative relationships between avoiding goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation.

Hypothesis 6b: Dominance-seeking behavior mediates the negative relationships between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation.

4. The Moderating Role of Status Conflict

Status conflict, conceptualized as interpersonal competition over status in the social hierarchy, has rarely been studied as a contextual factor that influences the innovative performance (i.e., idea generation and implementation) of individuals with goal orientation (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). This concept is different from other group-level contexts previously studied, because it is a state of status-related dissensus based on conflict over social order (Deetz, 1996). The present study proposes that status conflict is a unique achievement situation that activates goal orientation toward status-seeking behavior, which influences individual idea generation and implementation.

According to achievement motivation theory of goal orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005), individuals respond to an achievement situation based on their goal orientation. Status conflict may serve as a boundary condition that provides employees with the motivation to pursue status, because status conflict promotes status threats among group members, thereby encouraging employees to defend or enhance their status (Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). Within a high-level of status conflict, the statuses of employees are vulnerable to be severely challenged, which motivates their need for status protection and attainment (Owens & Sutton, 2001). In turn, employees will likely seek status in a different manner consistent with their individual goal orientations. By contrast, when employees do not struggle with their status in a meager status conflict, they need not defend their status, and goal orientations may not be manifested by status-seeking behavior.

Evolutionary perspective also supports the necessity of considering status conflict as a boundary condition. Prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior are the products of selection pressures from the environments (Henrich & Gil-White,

2001). Status conflict is a phenomenon that generates selection pressure in a social hierarchy, because people struggle for status to survive in a status conflict. In pervasive challenges, most employees should achieve and protect their status to retain in their social hierarchy (Bendersky, 2012). Thus, goal orientation may drive status-seeking behavior in a severe status conflict, which may affect the innovative performance of employees as a means of acquiring status. Drawing on these two theories, the indirect effect of individual goal orientation on idea generation and implementation via status-seeking behavior may be intensified as the degree of status conflict is high.

Hypothesis 7: Status conflict moderates the indirect effects of individual goal orientations on idea generation and implementation via status-seeking behavior, such that the indirect effects are stronger when the degree of status conflict is higher.

III. Method

1. Sample and Data Collection

To verify our theoretical framework and hypotheses, we collected data from several South Korea-based organizations that represent diverse industries including insurance, telecommunication, electronics, manufacturing, and finance industries, etc. We sent the survey packages (two separate questionnaires for supervisors and their immediate members) to 58 supervisors and their 258 members via postal mail. 54 supervisors and 239 members completed and resent their surveys (response rate = 92.6 percent). After removing unmatched and faithless surveys, we get a final sample of 48 supervisors and 207 members.

On average, each team in the final sample had 4.3 members (SD = 1.65). The member sample is composed of 64.3 percent men and its average age and organizational tenure are 35.2 and 5.6 years (SD = 6.3), respectively. Members finished high school (21.8%), two-year college (20.9%), undergraduate degree (49.5%), and graduate degree (7.8%). Their hierarchical ranks were rank-and-file employees (49.3%), associates (18.2%), managers (18.2%), deputy senior managers (7.9%), and senior managers or higher (6.4%). On the other hand, the supervisor sample who evaluated members consists of 87.5 percent men and its average age and organizational tenure are 43.5 and 10.8 years (SD = 8.76), respectively.

2. Measures

All respondents answered the items that are composed of a five-point Likert scale. The present study collected data from members and supervisors for avoiding common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Members answered the questionnaire on goal orientations, status-seeking behaviors, and status conflict, whereas supervisors evaluated the idea generation and implementation of their subordinates.

Three dimensions of goal orientation. We assess the individual goal orientations by the scales developed by VandeWalle (1997). We selected nine items with the highest factor loadings from the original scales, comprising each three items measuring each goal orientation dimension. The sample items for learning, avoiding, proving goal orientations are “I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work when I’ll learn new skills.” ($\alpha = .84$), “I prefer to avoid situation at work where I might perform poorly.” ($\alpha = .81$), and “I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.” ($\alpha = .84$).

Two types of status-seeking behavior. We used the nine items for prestige- and eight items for dominance-seeking strategy developed by Cheng, Tracy, and Henrich (2010) to assess the prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior. We adopted and revised the ten items that gauge the behavioral aspect of status-seeking strategy from the original scale of Cheng, Tracy, and Henrich (2010), comprising five items for prestige-seeking behavior and five items for dominance-seeking behavior. To validate our revised items, we conducted the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the two types of status seeking behavior. As a result, those items are well-classified into two factors, though one item for dominance seeking behavior was deleted because its factor loading (0.44) was lower than the acceptable standard (0.50). Afterward, we performed the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the five items for prestige-seeking behavior and four items for dominance-seeking behavior, and the items are all

verified by the result of CFA. The sample items for prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior are “I try to be recognized for my unique talents and abilities from other members in my group.” ($\alpha = .88$) and “I use aggressive tactics to get my way.” ($\alpha = .70$).

Status conflict. We assess status conflict by using the four items validated by Bendersky and Hays (2012). This status conflict scale ($\alpha=.91$) consists of the following items: “My team members frequently took side (i.e., formed coalitions) during conflicts,” “My team members experienced conflict due to members trying to assert their dominance,” “My team members competed for influence,” and “My team members disagreed about the relative value of members’ contributions.”

Idea generation and idea implementation. We assessed the idea generation and idea implementation with the scale of De Jong & Den Hartog (2010). Considering the idea generation includes exploring and creating new ideas, and idea implementation involves promoting and realizing new ideas into work practices (Amabile, 1996; Shalley & Zhou, 2008; West & Farr, 1990), we integrated two items for idea exploration and three items for idea generation into five items for idea generation, and two items for idea championing and three items for idea implementation into five items for idea implementation. We performed the CFA on two variables, and the result shows that one item for idea generation and two items for idea implementation have lower factor loadings than the acceptable standard (0.5). Consequently, we adopted four items for idea generation and three items for idea implementation. The idea generation scale ($\alpha = .91$) includes “This employee searches out new working methods,

techniques or instruments” and “This employee finds new approaches to execute tasks”. The idea implementation scale ($\alpha = .87$) contains “This employee makes important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas” and “This employee systematically introduces innovative ideas into work practices”.

Control variables. This study controlled several demographic factors: sex, age, education, rank, industry, and tenure. We sought to exclude alternative explanations from those variables known to influence individual status-seeking behavior and idea generation and implementation (Duguid et al., 2012; Choi, 2007; Qi, 2005). We also controlled knowledge sharing (four item measures from Connelly et al (2012), $\alpha = .76$, e.g., “I explained everything very thoroughly”) which is known to mediate the relationship between learning goal orientation and innovative performance (Lu, Lin, & Leung, 2012). By ruling out the effect of knowledge sharing, we wanted to measure the mediating effect of status-seeking behavior on the relationships between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation.

IV. Results

In order to examine our hypotheses, we used a series of multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM) analysis and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analysis for the hypotheses on the main effects and moderation effects, respectively. We conducted these two multilevel analyses because our data were nested, and the variables consist of both individual and group levels. First, MSEM is suitable for investigating main effects, because we estimate relative impacts of multiple predictors on multiple outcomes from the nested data, controlling for measurement errors (Bollen, 1989). The same supervisor rated the idea generation and idea implementation of employees from the same workgroup. The ICC of employee idea generation and idea implementation are .22 and .26, which necessitates the use of a multilevel analysis (e.g., MSEM) because of their significant between-group variances ($p < .001$). The MSEM analysis can explain the dynamic of employees in the same group controlling between-group differences. Moreover, we performed HLM for the hypotheses on moderating effect, because we examine the effect of group-level status conflict on individual-level relationship. Considering that the ICC of status conflict is .21 ($p < .001$) and members' responses to status conflict were significantly consistent, we could set the group-level status conflict variable by aggregating members' responses in each group.

A series of CFA was then conducted to identify the empirical distinctiveness of the eight variables in our research (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The result of CFA showed a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(349) = 588.331$, $p < .001$; Confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .917, Root-Mean-Square error of proximation (RMSEA) = .062). This eight-factor measurement model exhibited a better fit than any alternative models as shown on Table 1 (all $\Delta\chi^2$ tests, $p < .01$). From

the CFA result, we confirmed the validity of the eight variables in our research. Thus, we test our hypotheses using the eight variables. The Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations among all of our study variables.

Table 1. Comparison of measurement models.

| Models | Factors | $\chi^2(df)$ | CFI | RMSEA | $\Delta\chi^2$ |
|----------------|--|---------------|------|-------|----------------|
| Baseline Model | 8 factors | 588.33 (349) | 0.92 | 0.06 | |
| Model 1 | 7 Factors (IG & II → IP) | 626.88 (356) | 0.91 | 0.06 | 38.55*** |
| Model 2 | 7 Factors (PSB & DSB → SSB) | 756.75 (356) | 0.86 | 0.77 | 168.42*** |
| Model 3 | 7 Factors (AGO & PGO → PGO ^a) | 3285.72 (406) | 0.84 | 0.08 | 2697.39*** |
| Model 4 | 6 Factors (IG & II → IP, PSB & DSB → SSB) | 789.42 (362) | 0.85 | 0.08 | 201.09*** |
| Model 5 | 6 Factors (IG & II → IP, AGO & PGO → PGO ^a) | 859.83 (362) | 0.83 | 0.09 | 271.50*** |
| Model 6 | 5 Factors (IG & II → IP, PSB & DSB → SSB, AGO & PGO → PGO ^a) | 1022.71 (367) | 0.77 | 0.10 | 434.38*** |

Note: IG, idea generation; II, idea implementation; IP, innovative performance, PGO^a, performance goal orientation; AGO, avoiding goal orientation; PGO, proving goal orientation.

*** p < .001

Table 2. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables.

| | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| 1. Sex | .65 | .48 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | 35.19 | 9.23 | .05 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Education | 3.43 | .93 | .06 | -.14* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Rank | 2.04 | 1.25 | .29** | .50** | .13 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Industry | 3.23 | 1.98 | .07 | -.20** | .12 | .02 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Tenure | 67.55 | 75.67 | -.02 | .64** | -.09 | .21** | -.36** | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Knowledge sharing | 3.78 | .54 | -.01 | -.09 | .08 | -.01 | -.01 | .06 | - | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Learning goal orientation | 3.69 | .70 | .21** | -.10 | .01 | .04 | -.08 | -.11 | .18** | - | | | | | | | |
| 9. Avoiding goal orientation | 2.43 | .80 | -.03 | .02 | .05 | -.05 | .04 | -.01 | -.04 | -.39** | - | | | | | | |
| 10. Proving goal orientation | 3.46 | .80 | -.01 | -.08 | .04 | .00 | -.10 | -.04 | .18** | .27** | .21** | - | | | | | |
| 11. Team-level status conflict | 1.99 | .51 | -.08 | .42** | -.08 | .15* | -.05 | .30** | -.05 | -.23** | .18* | -.01 | - | | | | |
| 12. Prestige-seeking behavior | 3.21 | .72 | .03 | -.02 | .13 | .05 | -.12 | .11 | .30** | .24** | .17* | .68** | -.04 | - | | | |
| 13. Dominance-seeking behavior | 2.32 | .67 | .05 | .28** | -.08 | .21** | -.11 | .18* | -.06 | .06 | .06 | .20** | .27** | .21** | - | | |
| 14. Idea Generation | 3.38 | .76 | .00 | .12 | .01 | .17* | -.05 | .08 | .10 | .28** | -.08 | .16* | .25** | -.01 | -.13 | - | |
| 15. Idea Implementation | 3.23 | .74 | .00 | .04 | .07 | .08 | -.09 | .02 | .06 | .29** | -.10 | .09 | .19** | -.14* | -.18* | .78** | - |

Note. N = 207. *p < .05 (two-tailed test), **p < .01 (two-tailed test).

1. Testing the Hypothesized Model

In hypothesis testing for main effects, we developed a hypothesized model that exhibits all paths suggested in Hypotheses 1~6 along with the covariances among the three goal orientations and between the two status-seeking behavior variables, as depicted in Figure 1. This hypothesized model had a good fit with the observed pattern, $\chi^2(df = 31) = 63.78$, $p = .001$; CFI = 0.93; RMSEA = 0.08; AIC = 2716.06. Following the common structural equations modeling (SEM) practice, we explored the plausible alternative models offering better explanations of our data. First, we tested the model considering all the paths among the IV, MV, and DV, and it exhibited worse model fit ($\chi^2(df = 27) = 58.04$, $p = .001$; CFI = 0.93; RMSEA = 0.08; AIC = 2718.33). Second, although complete mediation of two status-seeking behaviors in the relationships between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation was hypothesized, there is a possibility that status-seeking behavior may partially mediate those relationships. Thus, we test the alternative model that added paths from proving goal orientation to idea generation and implementation. This revised model got worse model fit than the initial model, $\chi^2(df = 29) = 62.857$, $p = .001$; CFI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.08; AIC = 2719.14. Third, we consider the reverse-causality between status seeking behaviors and idea generation and implementation. The ability to create innovative performances may predict prestige-seeking behavior, because novel skills and knowledge are positively linked to prestige (Henrich and Gil-White, 2001). However, the revised model had worse model fit ($\chi^2(df = 32) = 169.70$, $p = .001$; CFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.15; AIC = 2819.98). In comparison with Akaike information criterion (AIC) of each model, the hypothesized structural model offered the most precise explanation of our data. Table 3 shows the result of comparison of alternative structural models.

Table 3. Comparison of alternative structural models.

| Structural Models | $\chi^2(df)$ | CFI | RMSEA | AIC |
|---|--------------|------|-------|---------|
| Model 0: Hypothesized structural model | 63.78 (31) | 0.93 | 0.08 | 2716.06 |
| Model 1: All the paths among the IV, MV, and DV | 58.04 (27) | 0.93 | 0.08 | 2718.33 |
| Model 2: Direct effects of PGO to IG and II | 62.86 (29) | 0.92 | 0.08 | 2719.14 |
| Model 3: Reverse causality (IG and II predicting PSB and DSB) | 169.70 (32) | 0.69 | 0.15 | 2819.98 |

Note: IV, independent variable; MV, mediating variable; DV, dependent variable; IG, idea generation; II, idea implementation; PSB, prestige-seeking behavior; DSB, dominance-seeking behavior.

We display the significant paths and standardized path coefficients in Figure 2. First, there are some significant paths for the equation predicting idea generation and idea implementation. For idea generation, two significant parameters positively predict idea generation: the path from learning goal orientation to idea generation and the path from prestige-seeking behavior to idea generation. For idea implementation, there are a significant positive path from learning goal orientation to idea implementation and a significant negative path from dominance-seeking behavior to idea implementation. This result indicated that learning goal orientation is positively related to both idea generation ($\gamma = .19$, $p < .05$) and idea implementation ($\gamma = .27$, $p < .01$), supporting for Hypothesis 1. However, the avoiding goal orientation is not significantly associated with idea generation ($\gamma = -.06$, ns) and implementation ($\gamma = -.07$, ns), thereby rejecting Hypothesis 2.

For the equations predicting two status-seeking behaviors, proving goal orientation is positively related to prestige- ($\gamma = .54$, $p < .000$) and dominance-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .15$, $p < .05$). The results showed empirical support for Hypotheses 3b and 4b. However, learning and avoiding goal orientation are not significantly related to any prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior, respectively. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a-*Alternative* is supported, but

Hypotheses 3a and 3b are rejected.

In examining the mediating effect of status-seeking behaviors, we focused on the link between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation, because proving goal orientation was only significantly related to two status-seeking behaviors. We conducted bootstrapping to test the significance of the mediation process of prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior (Mackinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz 2007). The results of bootstrapping showed that prestige-seeking behavior mediates the relationship between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation positively (*indirect effect* = .101, $p < .05$, 95 percent confidence interval (CI) [.014, .189] / *indirect effect* = .111, $p < .05$, 95 percent confidence interval (CI) [.024, .198]). Also, the results exhibited that dominance-seeking behavior negatively and marginally mediates the relationship between proving goal orientation and idea implementation (*indirect effect* = -.035, $p < .10$, 90 percent confidence interval (CI) [-.066, -.004]). Considering that proving goal orientation has no direct effect on idea generation and idea implementation, these two paths showed full mediation, supporting hypothesis 5b, partially Hypothesis 6b, and rejecting Hypotheses 5a, 6a.

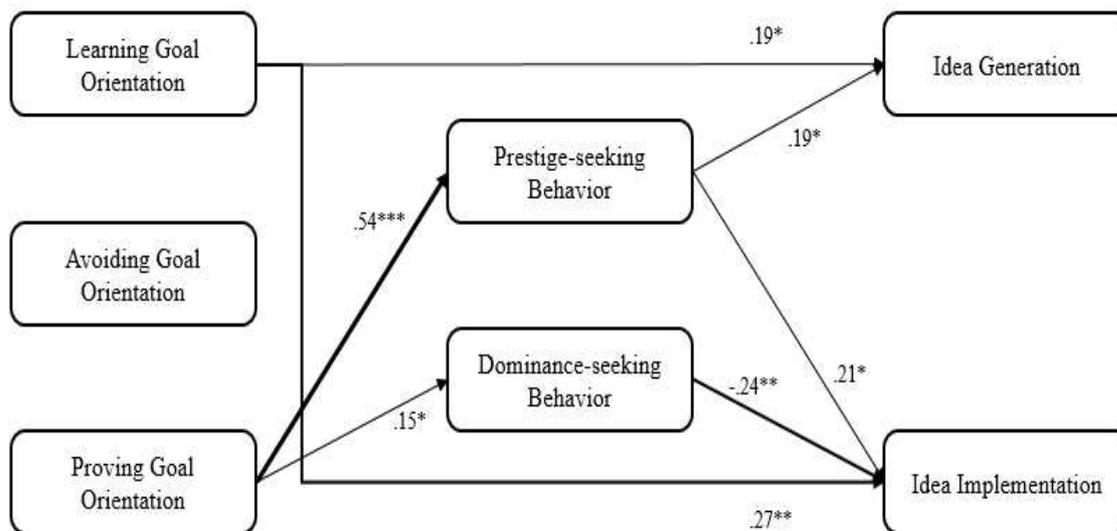


Figure 2. Results of multilevel structural equation modeling. Only significant paths are shown. Thicker lines represent statistically more significant results. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

2. Mediation Moderated by Status Conflict

Hypothesis 7 posits that status conflict moderates the indirect effect of goal orientation on idea generation and idea implementation. We investigated two conditions for testing moderated mediation hypothesis (Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005; Preacher et al., 2007). The first condition is the significant moderation of status conflict in the relationship between goal orientation and status-seeking behavior (i.e. the first stage of our analysis). The second condition is the significant conditional indirect effects of the goal orientations on innovative performances via status-seeking behaviors that are different depending on the level of status conflict.

We employed hierarchical moderated regression analysis to examine the first condition. Table 4 shows that status conflict has significant interactions with the proving goal orientation in predicting prestige-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .24$, $p < .05$) and marginal interactions in dominance-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .29$, $p < .10$).

Table 4. Results of hierarchical linear modeling.

| Variables | Dependent variable 1 = prestige-seeking behavior | | | Dependent variable 2 = dominance-seeking behavior | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|--------------|--------------|--|--------------|--------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| Step 1: Controls | | | | | | |
| Sex | .07 (.06) | .04 (.10) | .06 (.10) | -.04 (.15) | .02 (.14) | .08 (.14) |
| Age | -.02 (.01) | -.01 (.01) | -.01 (.01) | -.00 (.02) | .06 (.01) | .00 (.01) |
| Education | -.02 (.08) | .05 (.06) | .06 (.10) | -.06 (.09) | -.02 (.08) | -.01 (.08) |
| Rank | .07 (.08) | .03 (.06) | .04 (.06) | .19 (.08)* | .16 (.08)* | .16 (.08)* |
| Industry | -.11 (.08) | -.05 (.05) | -.02 (.05) | .08(.08) | .12 (.08) | .16 (.07)* |
| Tenure | .00 (.00) | .00 (.00)* | .00 (.00)* | -.00 (.00) | .00 (.00) | .00 (.00) |
| Knowledge sharing | .28 (.12)* | .10 (.08) | .11 (.09) | -.04 (.12) | -.15 (.12) | -.17 (.11) |
| Step 2: Main effects | | | | | | |
| Learning goal orientation (LGO) | | .08 (.07) | .08 (.08) | | .00 (.10) | -.02 (.10) |
| Avoiding goal orientation (AGO) | | .03 (.06) | .03 (.06) | | -.09 (.09) | -.07 (.09) |
| Proving goal orientation (PGO) | | .57 (.06)*** | .60 (.06)*** | | .36 (.08)*** | .40 (.08)*** |
| Step 3: Moderating effects | | | | | | |
| Status conflict | | | -.01 (.13) | | | .44 (.13)** |
| LGO*Status conflict | | | -.14 (.15) | | | .04 (.20) |
| AGO*Status conflict | | | .28 (.14)† | | | -.52 (.20)** |
| PGO*Status conflict | | | .24 (.11)* | | | .29 (.15)† |
| Individual-level variance σ^2 | .44 | .22 | .21 | .50 | .43 | .40 |
| Change in variance $\Delta\sigma^2$ | | .22 | .01 | | .07 | .03 |
| Proportion of explained variance | | 49.32% | 2.69% | | 14.03% | 7.46% |

Note: n = 214. Values in parentheses are standard errors.

†p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

We then performed a simple slope analysis to confirm these two significant interactions (Aiken & West, 1991) and Figure 3 and 4 showed its results.

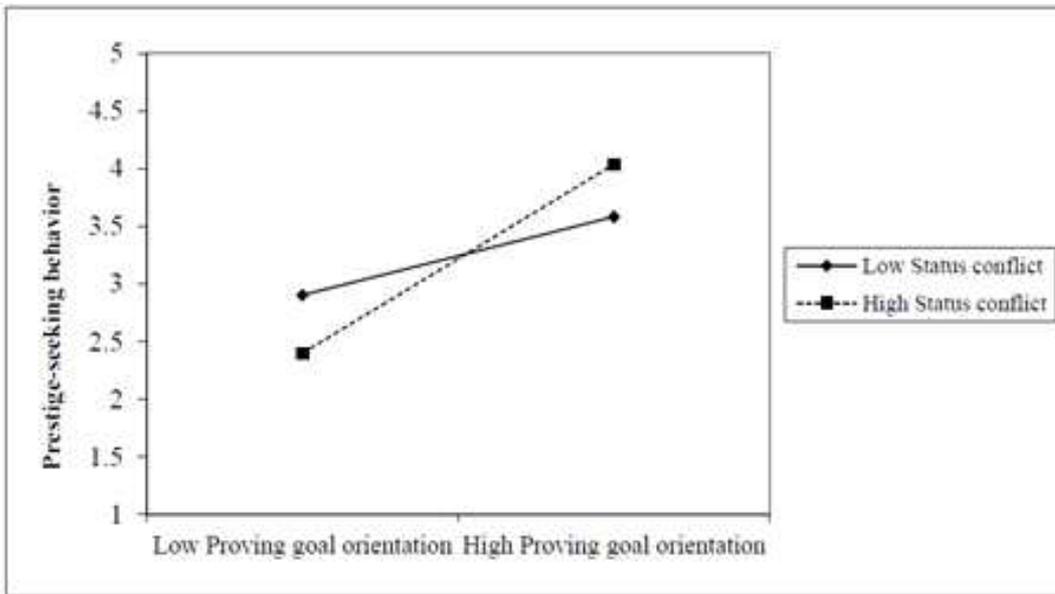


Figure 3. Interaction between the proving goal orientation and status conflict in predicting prestige-seeking behavior.

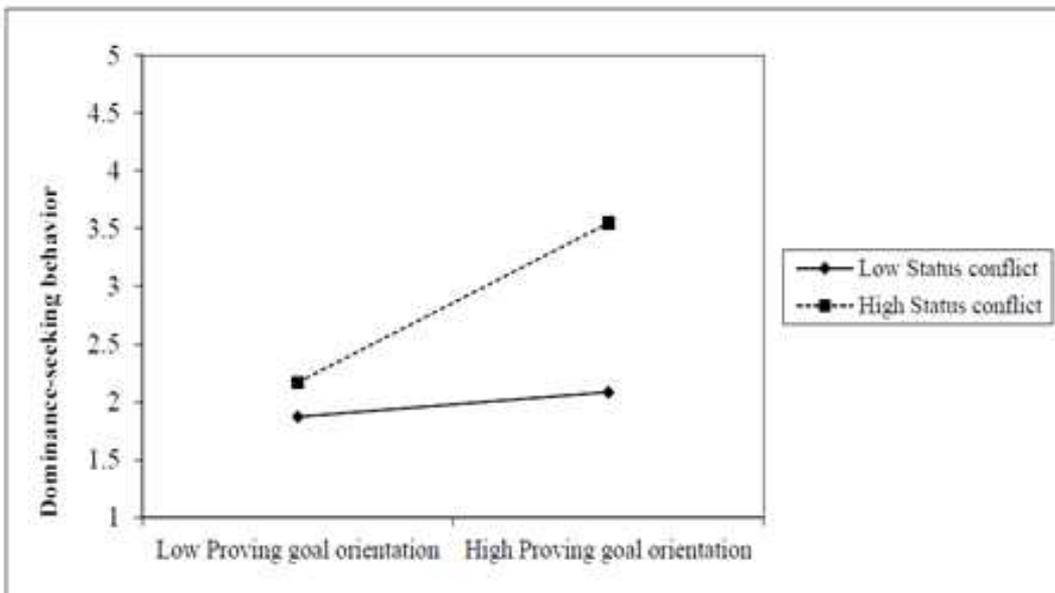


Figure 4. Interaction between the proving goal orientation and status conflict in predicting dominance-seeking behavior.

Figure 3 exhibits that the relationship between proving goal orientation and prestige-seeking behavior is strongly positive and significant ($b = .29, p < .001$) when status conflict is high (1 SD above the mean). The same relationship is also significant, but less strong ($b = .18, p < .001$) when status conflict is

low (1 SD below the mean). Figure 4 indicates that the relationship between proving goal orientation and dominance-seeking behavior is strongly positive and significant ($b = .40, p < .01$) when status conflict is high. The same relationship is less positively significant ($b = .24, p < .001$) when status conflict was low. Therefore, we found out the moderation effect of proving goal orientation on prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior, thus fulfilling the first condition.

In testing the second condition for moderated mediation, we conducted bootstrapping and the statistical significance test proposed by Preacher et al (2007). Table 5 describes the result of moderated mediation analysis with the control variables significantly influencing the main effects included as covariates. The conditional indirect effect of proving goal orientation on idea generation via prestige-seeking behavior is significant when status conflict is high (Conditional indirect effect = .62, $p < .05$) and low (Conditional indirect effect = .55, $p < .05$). Thus, hypothesis 7 is partially supported.

Table 5. Bootstrapped moderated mediation results.

| Independent variable | Mediator | Dependent variable | Moderator | Moderator Level | Conditional indirect effect | Products of coefficients | | | Bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|--|-------|
| | | | | | | SE | z | p | Lower | Upper |
| Proving goal orientation | Prestige-seeking Behavior | Idea generation | Status conflict | Low ($M - 1 SD$) | .552 | .256 | 2.153 | <.05 | .050 | 1.055 |
| | | | | Medium (M) | .585 | .263 | 2.222 | <.05 | .069 | 1.101 |
| | | | | High ($M + 1 SD$) | .618 | .280 | 2.204 | <.05 | .068 | 1.167 |

3. Post Hoc Analysis

We checked that avoiding goal orientation is not linked to status seeking behaviors from Figure 2. Surprisingly, the HLM results (Table 4) showed that status conflict exhibits a significant moderation effect on the relationship between avoiding goal orientation and prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior. We performed simple slope analyses of these two interactions, and the results showed the following significant moderation effects as presented in Figure 5 and 6.

This *post hoc* analysis indicated that avoiding-oriented employees become highly risk-averse when struggles on the status of members are harsh. In a low status conflict, they show prestige- and dominance-seeking behaviors to promote their status against adaptable degree of challenges on status. However, they are reluctant to exhibit status-seeking behaviors in a high status conflict. Avoiding-oriented people may be concerned about losing status from status seeking behaviors, because they consider such behaviors as risky activities that disclose their weaknesses when members are particular about status-related issue. Accordingly, avoiding-oriented individuals try to maintain the status quo and avoid status-seeking behaviors as their status are vulnerable to external challenges.

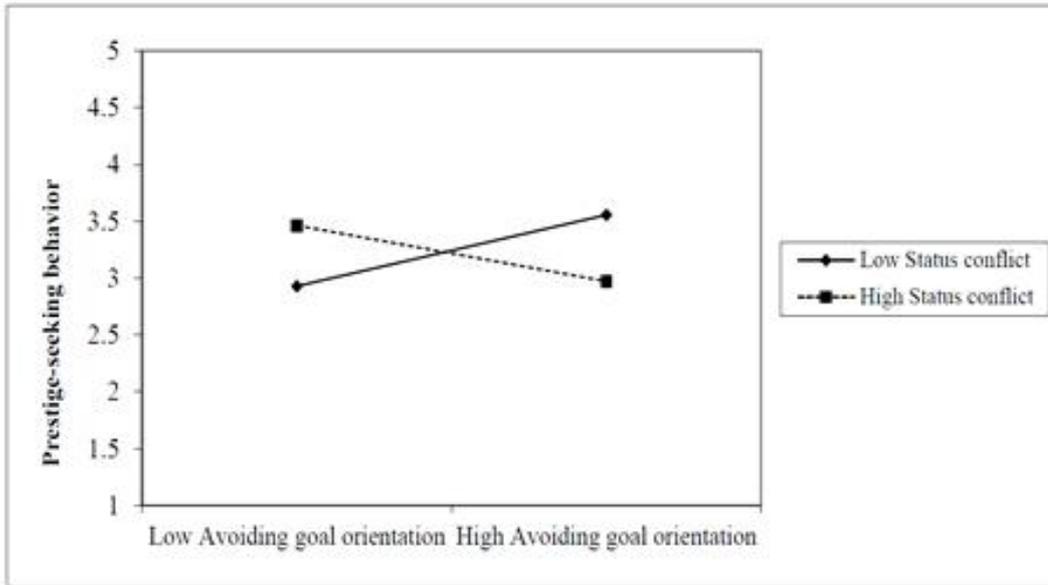


Figure 5. Interaction between the avoiding goal orientation and status conflict in predicting prestige-seeking behavior.

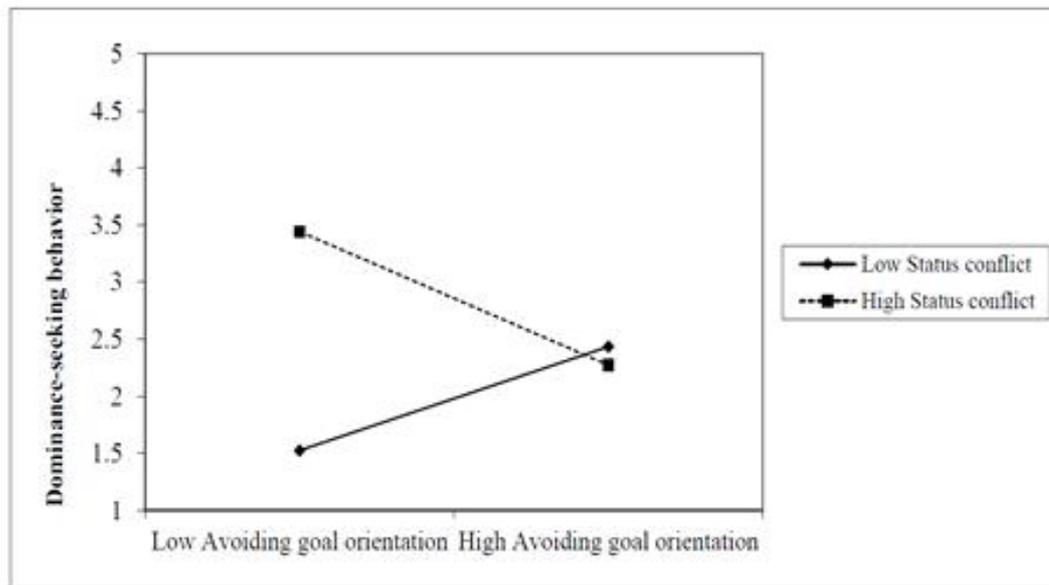


Figure 6. Interaction between the avoiding goal orientation and status conflict in predicting dominance-seeking behavior.

V. Discussion

The present study extended previous literature on the relationship between goal orientation and innovative performance. First, we examined how goal orientations affect the type of status-seeking behaviors that employees choose. Second, we explored the mediating effect of status-seeking behavior in the relationships between three goal orientations and idea generation and implementation. Finally, we confirmed the moderated mediation effect of status conflict that accentuates the indirect effects of goal orientations on idea generation and implementation through status-seeking behaviors. In the next section, we introduce the theoretical and practical implications of our analysis and present directions for future research.

1. Theoretical and Practical Implications

The present study has several theoretical and practical implications.

First, we produce an integrative framework explaining the effect of goal orientations on idea generation and implementation. Our analysis revealed that learning goal orientation is positively related to both idea generation and idea implementation, corresponding to the result of Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) that showed the positive relationship between a learning goal orientation and innovative behaviors. The current study advances the existing discussion about the effect of learning goal orientation on innovative performance by examining two different dimensions of innovative performance.

However, avoiding goal orientation is not significantly related to both idea generation and idea implementation, and this result is consistent with Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou (2009). We can find out the alternative explanation of this result from the boundary condition. Recent works showed that avoidants

focus on idea generation and idea implementation depending on the circumstances that those challenging works are useful for goal achievement (Song, Zhang, & Jiang, 2015). Avoiding-oriented employees sometimes engage in innovative behaviors when the innovative performance is helpful for avoiding their unwished situation (e.g., Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011; Roskes, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2012). In the present study, we did not control this boundary condition, producing the insignificant result of avoiding goal orientation on idea generation and idea implementation.

From these findings, we solve the ambiguity problem of prior studies, in which it was unclear whether goal orientation is conducive to specific stage of innovation. Furthermore, this framework integrates existing academic fragmentations between creativity and innovation research, which can specify the relationships between goal orientations and employee innovative performances comprehensively.

Second, we contribute to explaining the dynamic of how each employee manages their status. The results of our analysis indicated that proving goal orientation positively predicts both prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior. It is consistent with our prediction that proving-oriented individuals have a high level of desire to demonstrate and recognize their status (VandeWalle, 1997). Interestingly, the results show that proving goal orientation predicts prestige-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .54, p < .000$) more than dominance-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .15, p < .05$). This outcome can be explained by the fundamental focus of proving-oriented individuals in which they are eager to verify their competence (VandeWalle, 1997). Thus, proving-oriented employees concentrates on prestige-seeking behavior that broadcasts their expertise and capability for organizational recognition (e.g., Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Park, Chae, & Choi, 2017; Bottger, 1984; Laughlin et al., 1975).

Avoiding goal orientation do not predict dominance-seeking behavior ($\gamma = .03$, ns), but is negatively related to prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior in higher level of status conflict. This finding indicates that avoiding-oriented employees exhibit status-seeking behavior only when their status is struggled, because they are sensitive to status issue (VandeWalle, 1997). However, they become passive as the challenges on status are severe, because they are concerned about the risk of failure of their status-seeking behaviors. Overall, this finding shows that avoiding- and proving-oriented individuals have opposite styles of managing their status.

By investigating the motivational aspects of status-seeking behavior in terms of individual goal orientations, the present study provides insight into the psychological mechanism of choosing status-seeking strategy. This study fulfills recent academic demands of specifying the construct of prestige and dominance (Halevy et al., 2012; Anderson & Brown, 2010). Furthermore, the present study contributes to goal orientation literatures that have been studied to explain behavioral choice in diverse situations (eg., Swift, Balkin, & Matusik, 2010; VandeWalle, 2004; Rhee & Choi, 2016). The present study fills the academic gap of goal orientation literature by investigating the effects of goal orientations on status-seeking behavior that have not been considered so far.

Third, we discover the significant dissensus mediating process of the relationships between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation. We controlled the knowledge sharing behavior in investigating the mediating effect of status-seeking behaviors by excluding the effect of consensus mediator. The results exhibited that prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior turn out to mediate the relationship between proving goal orientation and innovative performance. Proving-oriented employees tend to generate and implement new ideas when they adopt prestige-seeking behavior. On the other hand, if

proving-oriented employees select dominance-seeking behavior, they tend to show low quality of idea implementation. These two results imply that the status-seeking mechanism is a significant mediating path of the insignificant relationship between proving goal orientation and innovative performance that prior studies have showed (e.g., Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004; Song, Zhang, & Jiang, 2015). In this sense, this finding can explain the contrasting results of the existing research and discover the new mediator linking the proving goal orientation to innovative performance. However, the results showed that dominance-seeking behavior is unrelated to idea generation ($\gamma = -.09$, ns). It indicates that dominance-seeking behavior such as imposing one's idea on other members is not related to the quality of idea. Contrary to prior studies that were mostly based on the consensus framework, our research can explain the relationships more comprehensively by illuminating on the dissensus aspect of social order that has not received attention in goal orientation and innovation literature.

Fourth, our research contributes to a balanced perspective on status conflict literature by introducing the potentially positive aspect of status conflict. Status conflict has been known to affect group performance negatively, because it causes employees to focus on status attainment rather than on the group task (Jehn, 1997; Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Loch, Huberman, & Stout, 2000). However, the result of moderated mediation analysis in the present study showed a possibility that individuals with proving goal orientation tend to create new ideas through engaging in prestige-seeking behaviors in a high-level status conflict. Contrary to the existing research, this result revealed the potential positive effect of status conflict and presented another significant condition of the activation of CST-driven dynamics.

2. Study Limitations and Future Research Directions

Our analysis reports those following limitations.

First, we didn't check the causality direction, because we used a cross-sectional data. Thus, we cannot assure that a potential reverse causality is nonexistent among variables. Future research should use a longitudinal data or conduct controlled experiments to ascertain the causal order of our theoretical framework.

Second, we couldn't find out the significant mediating effect of status-seeking behaviors in the relationship between learning, avoiding goal orientation and idea generation, idea implementation. Given the importance of a balanced view between consensus and dissensus, future research should find out the significant dissensus path from the learning, avoiding goal orientation to innovative performance.

Third, we focused on status conflict as a group context and neglected the effects of other potential factors. For example, status anxiety can be a possible contingency because it modifies the effects of goal orientations on status-seeking behaviors. Employees with high status anxiety may be motivated to engage in status-seeking behaviors, because they have a high need for seeking status satisfactorily (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013; Li et al., 2010). Even learning-oriented employees with internal focus and avoiding-orientation with passive status-seeking attitude may likely adopt status-seeking behavior. Overall, discovering other potential contingencies such as individual differences (e.g., status anxiety, hierarchical position), social bonding (e.g., team identification, team cohesiveness), and other contextual factors (e.g., hierarchical stability, creativity requirement) may be valuable for gaining an in-depth understanding of the mediating effect of prestige- and dominance-seeking behavior.

Fourth, the generalization of our analysis results to other cultures and countries should be cautiously done, because this study only used data collected from South Korean employees. For example, South Korean employees may be less likely to intimidate other members for attaining dominance than employees in individualistic culture or country, because South Korea has a relatively high level of collectivism that regards interpersonal relationship as important (Hofstede, 1983; Triandis et al., 1988). Thus, the status-related phenomenon may vary depending on cultures and countries. Future research should conduct a multicultural study to acquire the generality of the present theoretical framework.

Status-seeking behavior is often destructive (in the case of dominance-seeking behavior), but is also beneficial to an organization (in the case of prestige-seeking behavior). This study attempts to elaborate a new motivational path between proving goal orientation and idea generation and idea implementation. Proving-oriented employees, with its controversial effect on innovative performance, are conducive or inconducive to innovative performance depending on the type of status-seeking behavior they select. This study opens the road to further discussions to uncover the dissensus process in the relationship between goal orientations and idea generation and implementation.

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요약 (국문초록)

목표성향과 혁신적 아이디어 창출 및 실행 간 새로운 경로 모색: 지위추구행동의 매개 효과와 지위 갈등의 조절 효과

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목표성향과 혁신적 성과 간 관계에 대한 기존 연구들은 대부분 기능주의적 관점을 취하는 반면, 갈등주의적 관점에서 살펴본 연구들은 거의 존재하지 않는다. 기능주의와 갈등주의에 대한 균형 잡힌 시각의 중요성을 고려하여, 본 연구는 지위추구행동을 갈등주의적 매개과정으로, 지위 갈등을 목표성향이 지위추구행동의 동인으로 작용되는 주요 갈등주의적 환경으로 살펴보았다.

본 연구는 한국 조직의 48 개 팀에서 255 명의 직원들로부터 수집된 데이터를 기반으로 다층구조방정식과 위계적 선형모델 분석방식을 통해 우리의 가설을 검증하였다. 분석 결과, (i) 학습성향은 혁신적 아이디어 창출과 실행에 모두 정적 관계를 갖고 있으며, (ii) 사회적 인정 추구 행동은 성과증명성향과 혁신적 아이디어 창출과 실행 간 정적 관계에 대해 모두 매개효과를 보였으며, (iii) 사회적 영향력 추구 행동은 성과증명성향과 혁신적 아이디어 실행 간 부적 관계에 대해 매개효과를 갖는 것으로 드러났으며, (iv) 마지막으로 지위 갈등은 성과증명성향의 사회적 인정 추구

행동을 통해 혁신적 아이디어 창출에 미치는 간접 효과를 조절하는 것으로 밝혀졌다. 이러한 본 연구의 발견은 지위 관련 메커니즘을 고려함으로써 목표성향과 혁신적 성과 간 관계에 대해 새로운 관점을 제시한다는 점에서 의의가 있다.

주요어: 학습성향, 회피성향, 성과증명성향, 혁신적 아이디어 창출, 혁신적 아이디어 실행, 사회적 인정 추구 행동, 사회적 영향력 추구 행동, 지위 갈등

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