Self-image goals, compassionate goals and innovative work behavior: The role of organizational support for innovation across countries

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FRANCESCO MONTANI
Department of Management
University of Bologna – Rimini Campus
Via Angherà 22, 47900 Rimini (Italy)
Tel: +33 3336923565
Email: francesco.montani@unibo.it

CLAUDIO TORRES
Universidade de Brasilia
SQS - 108, Bloco K, Apt 604, Asa Norte, ICC Brasilia, DF, BR 70347110
Tel : +55 61 3107-3300
Email: claudio.v.torres@gmail.com

MARIA CRISTINA FERREIRA
Universidade Salgado de Oliveira
Rua Marques de Valença, 80 Apto. 602, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, BR 20550030
Tel: +55 21 2138-4942
Email: mcris@centroin.com.br

HELENIDES MENDONÇA
Pontificia Universidade Católica de Goiás
Av. Universitária, 1440 - Setor Leste Universitário, Goiânia - GO, 74605-010, Brésil
Tel: +55 62 3946-1000
Email: helenides@gmail.com

ANA JUNÇA SILVA
ISCTE - Instituto Universitário de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL)
Av. das Forças Armadas, 1649-026 Lisboa, Portugal
Tel: +35 1 21 790 3000
Email: analjsilva@gmail.com

FRANÇOIS COURCY
Université de Sherbrooke
2500 boulevard de l'Université, J1K 2R1, Sherbrooke (Québec), Canada
Tel: + 1 819 821-8000
Email: francois.courcy@usherbrooke.ca

VÉRONIQUE DAGENAIS-DESMARAIS
Université de Montréal
P.O. Box 6128, Downtown Station, H3C 3J7, Montréal (Québec), Canada
Tel: +1 514 343 6111
Email: v.dagenais.desmarais@umontreal.ca

Abstract

The present study examines the relationship between interpersonal goals – i.e., self-image and compassionate goals – and innovative work behavior by taking into account the organizational context and the country as boundary conditions. By integrating self-presentation theory with cross-cultural research on innovation, we hypothesized that in high innovation-supportive organizations, employees from more collectivistic, higher power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance countries (Brazil) would be more engaged in innovative behaviors when they hold self-image goals, whereas those from more individualistic, lower power distance and lower uncertainty avoidance countries (Canada) would be more innovative when they are driven by compassionate goals. The results from moderated regression analyses on two independent samples – i.e., 291 Brazilian employees and 114 Canadian employees from different organizations – supported our predictions. We conclude that the organizational context and the country play a key, synergistic role in shaping costs and benefits of interpersonal goals for employee innovativeness.

Keywords: self-image goals; compassionate goals; innovative work behavior; organizational support for innovation; country.

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Organizational Support for Innovation across Countries

Innovative work behavior—the intentional generation, promotion and realization of new and useful ideas in the workplace (Janssen, 2000)—constitutes a key resource for organizational performance and competitiveness in today's turbulent economic environment (Shin, Yuan, & Zhou, 2017). As a goal-directed behavior (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016), innovative behavior is energized by "the characteristic of the goal that determines the incentive value of a goal" (Crocker & Canevello, 2012, p. 232). Investigating the impact of the goals of innovative work behavior is thus an essential research endeavor to understand how to orient employees' energy toward the production and implementation of novel ideas. The innovation literature has progressed our understanding of the relationship between task-related goals and innovation-related behaviors. This literature suggests that employees are more likely to engage in creative and innovative actions when either creativity goals (i.e., a stated standard that a work output should be novel and appropriate; Shalley, 1995) or proactive goals (i.e., an imagined change in one's work that brings about future benefits; Montani, Odoardi, & Battistelli, 2014) are set.

One's goals, however, manifest not only in relation to one's task but also in relation to the people who coexist in the same environment. These latter goals are referred to as interpersonal goals, through which people seek "to attain, maintain, or avoid a specific end state for the partner or the relationship" (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2003, p. 150). The goal literature distinguishes two main types of goals that people tend to develop in relationship with others, namely: *compassionate goals*, which focus on supporting others not for selfish purposes, but to promote others' wellbeing with the ultimate aim of building close and mutually supportive and satisfying relationships; and *self-image goals*, which focus on maintaining and defending the desired images of the self to gain something for the self

(Crocker & Canevello, 2008). Interpersonal goals have been found to have important consequences at the interpersonal and social levels in college student populations (Crocker & Canevello, 2012).

However, much less attention has been devoted to interpersonal goals in organizational settings or, more precisely, in relation to innovative behavior. This research void is particularly relevant since scholars have widely recognized the relational nature of innovation at work but have adopted contrasting perspectives to understand the role of relational motivational factors in determining employee engagement in innovative actions. Indeed, while some authors have emphasized the relevance of self-image orientations for boosting innovation (e.g., Yuan & Woodman, 2010), others have highlighted other-focused orientations as the key determinants of employee innovativeness (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016). However, surprisingly, the extant research has largely disregarded the role of interpersonal goals in affecting innovation at work, thereby leaving it unknown whether such motivational factors could be effective (or not) in spurring employee innovative behavior. Moreover, the empirical evidence of the roles of both self-focused and other-focused orientations in engendering innovation-related endeavors is scant and inconsistent (Bendell, 2017; Grant & Berry, 2011; Liu, Wang, & Wayne, 2015; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). The paucity and inconsistency of this research stream suggests that our understanding of the relationship between interpersonal goals and innovative work behavior may benefit from the identification of the boundary conditions on which these links are contingent.

Addressing this void and in an attempt to conciliate prior contrasting perspectives, the present study aims to investigate the conditions upon which employees driven by either compassionate or self-image goals can be more or less likely to engage in innovative behaviors. By combining the assumptions from self-presentation theory (Schlenker, 1980, 2012; Schlenker & Leary, 1982) with the insights from the culture and innovation literature

(Erez & Nouri, 2010; Nouri et al., 2015), we predict that employees would have the highest chances to channel the energizing potential elicited by interpersonal goals towards innovative behaviors when they have high self-image goals, and when they receive extensive support for innovation in collectivistic, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance countries. The same effect is expected when they have high compassionate goals and are exposed to the innovation-supportive contexts in individualistic, low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance countries. In order to test these propositions, we conducted a time-lagged study that examined the interaction effect of compassionate and self-image goals with organizational support for innovation on employee innovative work behavior in Brazil – i.e., a more collectivistic, higher power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance country – and Canada – i.e., a more individualistic, lower power distance and lower uncertainty avoidance country.

We anticipate three important contributions to the literature on interpersonal goals and innovation. First, personality and social psychology scholars have suggested that the caring attitude driven by compassionate goals, as opposed to the selfish attitude driven by self-image goals, would make the former more likely to elicit a number of desirable consequences for the self and others (Crocker & Canevello, 2008). Correspondingly, a large body of empirical work has documented the beneficial effects of compassionate goals and the detrimental effects of self-image goals on personal (e.g., self-esteem and distress) and social (i.e., relationship quality and reciprocal support) outcomes in educational settings (Crocker, Canevello, & Brown, 2017). However, as Crocker and colleagues have noted, this "does not imply that selfishness never has benefits and otherishness never has costs; it may simply reflect a lack of research interest" (p. 317). By suggesting that both compassionate and self-image goals can have positive and negative consequences, our study offers an integrated view of interpersonal goals, unravelling the complexity of these constructs that has hitherto been disregarded.

Second, due the inherently relational nature of organizations (Pfeffer, 1983), the desired end states that employees wish for their workplace relationships represent salient personal goals that are expected to guide the extent to which employees think, feel and behave innovatively, similar to task-related goals (Mowday & Sutton, 1993). However, innovative behavior, due to its challenging and uncertain nature, can be perceived as more or less upsetting by receivers (Baer, 2012; Janssen, 2004). Therefore, innovative behavior might not necessarily be regarded as instrumental to developing mutually thriving interpersonal relationships (i.e., in the case of compassionate goals) or to standing out from others (i.e., in the case of self-image goals). By examining for the first time joint moderating roles of organizational support for innovation and country in the relationship between compassionate and self-image goals and innovative work behavior, our study provides new knowledge on the conditions upon which the interpersonal aspects of one's goals can release (or stifle) employee innovative potential.

Third, despite the repeated research calls for assessing cross-national differences in workplace innovation (Anderson, Potočnik, & Zhou, 2014), relatively few studies have adopted a cross-cultural approach. This prevents determining the extent to which current knowledge of the innovation process is biased by the cultural artifacts and innovation management strategies that are present only in one specific culture (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004). Our study addresses this important research gap, by examining how the joint effect of interpersonal goals and organizational support for innovation on employee innovative work behavior can vary across two different countries, as proposed. Considering that individual innovative expression is a key determinant of the social and economic prosperity of different cultures (Zhou & Su, 2010), this study offers new and important practical insights on how managers from different cultural contexts can combine

organizational practices and employees' interpersonal goals in ways that allow employees to bring out their innovative potential.

Theory and Hypothesis Development

Interpersonal Goals and Innovative Work Behavior

Compassionate and self-image goals represent how people desire their interpersonal relationship with others to unfold in the future (Crock & Canevello, 2008). Self-image goals are focused on constructing desired, positive images of the self and getting others to acknowledge them in order to stick out. These goals are grounded in a motivational perspective of the relationship between the self and others, which is called the *egosystem*, whereby individuals' personal interests and needs are prioritized over those of others. This motivational perspective leads individuals to compare themselves with others and to regard their social interactions as zero-sum in nature, such that the achievement of one's own desired goals comes at the expense of another (Gibson & Poposki, 2010). Accordingly, people driven by such goals tend to feel competitive and attempt to control others through ingratiation, manipulation, persuasion, and negotiation to meet their own needs and satisfy their own desires (Crocker, Olivier, & Nuer, 2009).

Compassionate goals are focused on being constructive with and avoiding harming others. These goals are nourished by the *ecosystem*, a motivational perspective in which people see others as interconnected and feel caring for others' well-being (Crocker & Canevello, 2012, 2015). Accordingly, individuals with compassionate goals tend to believe that their own well-being is interdependent with others' well-being and, thereby, see gains as having nonzero-sum or win-win qualities. Therefore, these individuals tend to develop a more cooperative mindset and seek to be supportive of others with the aim of building close and mutually supportive relationships, characterized by a mutual satisfaction of needs and desires (Crocker et al., 2009).

Personality and social psychology research has extensively investigated the impact of self-image and compassionate goals on key personal and interpersonal outcomes. Overall, this stream of research has suggested that while self-image goals yield detrimental consequences at the intrapersonal and interpersonal levels, compassionate goals are conducive to positive outcomes (Crocker & Canevello, 2012; Crocker, et al., 2017; Crocker et al., 2009). For example, at the intrapersonal level, self-image goals and compassionate goals were found to be associated with, respectively, increased and decreased symptoms of depression and anxiety among college students (Crocker, Canevello, Breines, & Flynn, 2010). Moreover, unlike self-image goals, compassionate goals were shown to positively affect students' academic motivation and achievement and to predict feelings of clarity and connectedness (Covington, 2000; Canevello & Crocker, 2015). At the interpersonal level, Crocker and Canevello (2008) demonstrated that actors' (i.e., college students') compassionate goals positively predicted the social support received from and given back to actors and that such reciprocated support, in turn, positively predicted actors' perceived available support. However, the positive spiral of social support engendered by compassionate goals vanished when actors had high levels of self-image goals. Similarly, Canevello and Crocker (2010) showed that compassionate and self-image goals, respectively, positively and negatively predicted a cycle of responsiveness between actors and partners, which, in turn, enhanced the relationship quality among college students.

To the best of our knowledge, the study by Basran, Pires, Matos, McEwan, and Gilbert's (2019) is among the few that examined the role of interpersonal goals in workplace settings, revealing that self-image goals and compassionate goals fostered the emergence of antisocial (i.e., self-focused, threat-based and aggressive) and prosocial (i.e., supportive, caring and empathetic) styles of leadership, respectively. Based on this theoretical and empirical evidence, it could be intuitively argued that self-image and compassionate goals

would engender, respectively, toxic and beneficial consequences for key work-related outcomes, including innovative work behavior. However, the current theories on the role of self-focused and other-focused orientations in affecting innovation at work suggest that *both* orientations could bear the seeds of individual engagement in innovative actions.

Indeed, on the one hand, some researchers have relied on a sociopolitical perspective to emphasize the importance of self-image considerations in affecting employees' decision to engage in innovative behaviors (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). According to this perspective, other people's impressions are important drivers of individual behavior because these impressions determine how others react to the actor and, therefore, influence the possibility for the actor to obtain the necessary resources to achieve innovation-related goals (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). On the other hand, other researchers have adopted a more prosocial perspective to highlight that employees' concern for other people is an essential driver of innovation-related behaviors. Other-focused orientations indeed boost individual motivation to take into consideration others' perspectives and needs and thus to focus on making new discoveries that could be useful and beneficial for colleagues, supervisors, customers, or clients (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant & Berry, 2011; Liu, Jiang, Shalley, Keem, & Zhou, 2016).

Unfortunately, the few studies assessing the relationship between self-focused and other-focused orientations and innovation-related endeavors have provided mixed results. Specifically, Grant and Berry (2011) hypothesized and showed that prosocial motivation (i.e., a psychological process functionally similar to compassionate goals) enhanced a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and creativity at work. Conversely and contrary to her prediction, Bendell (2017) found that business owners' prosocial motivation had a significant negative impact on owners' decision to adopt environmentally friendly innovations. Similarly, Liu et al. (2015) predicted and found that protégés' self-focused

impression management strategies (i.e., strategies aimed at pursuing self-image goals) strengthened the indirect relationship between protégés' learning goal orientation and protégés' creativity at work via the extent of mentoring provided. In contrast, Yuan and Woodman (2011) found that, contrary to their hypothesis, expected image gains (i.e., the expected influence of innovative behavior on one's self-image) were negatively related to innovative work behavior.

The paucity of empirical evidence directly speaking to the relationships of self-focused and other-focused processes with innovative behavior makes it meaningful to extend the current body of evidence. Moreover, in light of the mixed findings, it is also valuable to identify the possible causes of these inconsistencies. In the present study, we introduce a self-presentation perspective on interpersonal goals and innovative work behavior to suggest that one explanation for the inconsistent findings on the impact of self-focused and other-focused orientations on innovation-related behaviors could be the presence of specific boundary conditions (i.e., moderators). In the following section, we articulate our rationale based on the self-presentation framework to theorize the joint moderating role of organizational support for innovation and country in the relationship between self-image and compassionate goals and innovative work behavior.

A Self-Presentation Perspective on Interpersonal Goals and Innovative Work Behavior

Self-presentation theory argues that all individuals self-present themselves (Hart, Richardson, Breeden, & Kinrade, 2020;; Schlenker, 1980, 2012) and that conveying desired identity images is important to people's interpersonal goals (Tyler & Feldman, 2004). Thus, the types of identity images people prefer to create depend on the goals they are trying to achieve in relationship with others (Schlenker & Leary, 1982). According to the self-presentation framework, people have two core motives for improving the perceived quality of their identity (Schlenker, 2012; Wolfe, Lennox, & Cutler, 1986): the motive of obtaining

rewards to gain power over others, which is reflected in self-image goals; and the motive of building relationships with similar others, which lies at the heart of compassionate goals.

During social interactions, people tend to exert significant behavioral efforts to build and maintain specific identity-related images. Self-presentation efforts represent goal-directed activities through which people influence the impressions formed by others on them (Schlenker, Britt, & Pennington, 1996). Since, as previously discussed, employees might engage in innovative behaviors to either obtain personal rewards (i.e., achieving self-image goals) or build relationships with others (i.e., achieving compassionate goals), these behaviors can be regarded as a specific form of self-presentation efforts and, consequently, their relationship with interpersonal goals can be studied through the lens of self-presentation theory. For example, the development of a new idea to improve a product or to enhance the branding strategy of the organization can be considered as a form of self-presentation effort. Indeed, employees, by engaging in this innovative behavior, have the possibility to bring their actual accomplishments or attributes to the attention of others with the aim of standing out from their colleagues (self-image goal) or, alternatively, strengthening the quality of social relationships with other organizational members (compassionate goal).

Self-presentation theory provides key insights that help shed light into the boundary conditions upon which different types of interpersonal goals might elicit, or stifle, innovative work behavior. The self-presentation perspective assumes that the self-presentation efforts to build a desired identity image are affected by the interplay among interpersonal goals and the situation (Jones, 1990; Schlenker, 1985). Precisely, it is the perceived personal relevance of the situation for individuals' self-identity that determines the extent of self-presentation efforts expended to create a desired impression on others (Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994). Consequently, in situations that are personally relevant, individuals are more likely to increase their behavioral efforts to convey a desired impression

to others. Conversely, when people interpret situations as less personally relevant to the achievement of their self-presentation goals, they are likely to be less motivated to expend self-presentation efforts (Schlenker, 1984, 1986).

Self-presentation theory further explains how the process of assessment of the situation influences the extent of self-presentation efforts when people are motivated to achieve a given interpersonal goal (Schlenker & Leary, 1982). To facilitate goal achievement, people specifically engage in an accurate "matching-to-standard" analysis of the situation. If events, in this situation, suggest possible difficulties in reaching their goal, people further process additional information until they encounter a situation that signals the appropriate behaviors to more closely approximate goal achievement and that, consequently, motivates corresponding self-presentation efforts. Conversely, when the situation is not regarded as a threat to the achievement of self-presentation goals, individuals are less attuned to other information in the environment indicating appropriate behaviors to achieve specific self-presentation standards and, thereby, are less likely to enact such behaviors.

Drawing from the insights of the self-presentation perspective, and in line with theoretical and empirical developments in the creativity and innovation literature, we argue that the specific cultural configuration of a country, by providing clear signals about the kind of approach to innovation that is more valued in a given context, would influence the extent to which people with different interpersonal goals will look for the cues conveyed by organizational support for innovation to determine the appropriateness of innovative behavior as effective self-presentation endeavor to achieve their interpersonal goals. It is to this discussion that we now turn.

The Role of Organizational Support for Innovation and Country

According to cross-cultural theory and research on creativity and innovation, the cultural dimensions of individualism-collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance

define the *specific* approaches to innovation that are likely to be more valued and, therefore,

expected in a given country (De Dreu, 2010; Erez & Nouri, 2010; Nouri et al., 2015).

Individualism-collectivism is defined as the degree to which people in a country prefer to act

as individuals rather than as members of groups (Hofstede, 2001), power distance refers to the

degree to which unequal distribution of power among people in a country is seen as

acceptable and appropriate (Triandis, 1995), and uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to

which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Hofstede,

1991).

Most Latin American countries, like Brazil, are characterized by high collectivistic,

high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance values, when compared to Western

countries. In the Brazilian organizational context, employees tend to show respect, dutifulness

and deference to high-status figures, as well as high care and consideration for their in-group

(Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). Moreover, they avoid internal conflicts to maintain the group

harmony (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006), and prefer to be in an environment

where predictability and explicit control are the rule, thus being averse to risk (Athayde &

Torres, 2020). Consequently, employees in these countries put more emphasis on cautious,

less risky and more conservative approaches to innovation. Employees with compassionate

goals feel a strong sense of interconnectedness with other people (Crocker & Canevello,

2015), such as team members and supervisors. Accordingly, these employees are likely to

embrace the cautious and conservative approach to innovation that is prevalent in

individualistic countries with high levels of uncertainty avoidance and power distance.

Consistent with assumption, prior research has suggested that prosocial orientations, such as

compassionate goals (Canevello & Crocker, 2020), are the key source of the motivation for

the development of idea usefulness (Liu et al., 2016), which is an inherent characteristic of

low-risk – i.e., incremental (Sung, Rhee, Lee, & Choi, 2020) – innovations (Sue-Chan &

Hempel, 2016). Thus, employees with compassionate goals are expected to be primarily motivated to avoid any innovative behavior that could increase the risk of harming such people.

Conversely, Western countries, like Canada, embody high individualistic, low power distance and low uncertainty-avoidance values when compared to Latin American countries, putting emphasis on autonomous and unique self-expression, on limited dependence from high-power positions, as well as on tolerance of uncertain situations and diversity of opinions (Hofstede, 2001). This cultural configuration leads employees to express their uniqueness as individuals, to cultivate independence from any in-group and experienced authorities or high-status figures in the organization, and to take greater risks (Erez & Nouri, 2010; Hofstede, 1997). As a result, in terms of innovation, employees from individualistic, low power distance, and low uncertainty avoidance contexts value risk-taking approaches focused on the uniqueness and originality of novel ideas (Bechtoldt, De Dreu, Nijstad, & Choi, 2010). Because employees with self-image goals feel a strong sense of independence from others and aim to improve their own standing (Tesser & Smith, 1980), they are more likely to engage in risk-taking approaches to innovation in order to produce uniquely original ideas that would allow them to show their superior innovative qualities to others. Supporting this tenet, research has found that people who adopt self-image goals generally have narcissistic tendencies (Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009; Sheldon, Sedikides, Ntoumanis, Corcoran, & Titova, 2020), and that such tendencies are more conducive to riskier – i.e., radical – forms of innovation in the workplace (Mao, Quan, Li, & Xiao, 2021). Accordingly, self-image employees are likely to espouse the innovation pathway that is prevalent in individualistic countries with low levels of power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Unlike the country, organizational support for innovation represents a situational factor that provides *general* cues on the overall degree of organizational expectation for

employee innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994; Yuan & Woodman, 2010; West, 1990); as such, this factor does not clarify the specific pathway to innovation that employees are required or expected to follow. Accordingly, perceived support for innovation in the organizational context could act as a situation signaling the appropriateness of innovative work behavior as an effective self-presentation endeavor to both self-image and compassion-oriented people (Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

In collectivistic, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance countries, like Brazil, the "matching-to-standard" analysis of the situation conducted by employees with self-image goals would lead them to identify potential obstacles in reaching their self-presentation goals, since the conservative cultural approach to innovation does not match with their more radical and risky approach. Accordingly, their situational assessment process will shift their attention to the cues in the organizational environments signaling overall approval and support for innovative initiatives (Carver, 1979; Schlenker & Leary, 1982). As a result, these employees would have higher chances of exploiting organizational support for innovation to develop unique and radically novel ideas that would allow them to stand out from their colleagues (West & Wallace, 1991; Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

In a similar vein, the risky pathway to innovation that is culturally valued in individualistic, low power distance, and low uncertainty avoidance countries, like Canada, does not match with the lenient innovative approach of employees with compassionate goals. Accordingly, these people would look for other cues in the organizational environment helping them understand the appropriate behaviors to reach their self-presentation purpose of increasing social relationships with others (Schlenker & Leary, 1982). The perception of extensive support for innovation by the organization would then motivate them to capitalize on the help and assistance available in their work environment to develop and elaborate on

incremental ideas that are socially accepted (Bechtoldt et al., 2010; De Dreu, 2010) and that, consequently, would allow them to achieve their other-oriented self-presentation goals.

Conversely, following self-presentation theory, when employees' approach to innovation is consistent with the country's cultural approach, neither compassionate or self-image goals are expected to boost innovative work behavior, despite the provision of extensive support for innovation by the organization. Indeed, because employees with compassionate goals have an approach to innovation that fits with the approach valued by collectivistic, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance countries, like Brazil, their self-presentation assessment of the situation is unlikely to lead them to perceive any situational constraints to the adoption of their preferred mode of innovation (Schlenker & Leary, 1982). For this reason, these employees will be less sensitive to the general signals in the organizational environment informing them about the pertinence of innovating to pursue their self-presentation purposes. As a result, even if the organization encourages the use of innovative actions, employee' other-oriented goals will unlikely motivate them to use the available organizational support for innovation to adopt innovative work behaviors. Likewise, in individualistic, low power distance, and low uncertainty avoidance countries, like Canada, employees with self-image goals would recognize few obstacles to their self-presentation goal of sticking out, since their risk-oriented approach to innovation is espoused by these countries. Accordingly, they would not feel any compelling need to look for additional cues in the organizational environment signaling the appropriateness of innovative behavior as a way to achieve their self-presentation goals. Consequently, their self-oriented goals are unlikely to motivate them to exploit the support for innovation provided by the organization to innovate. Thus, taken together, our line of reasoning leads us to hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: In collectivistic, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance countries (i.e., Brazil), self-image goals are more likely than compassionate goals to enhance innovative work behavior when organizational support for innovation is high (versus low).

Hypothesis 2: In individualistic, low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance countries (i.e., Canada), compassionate goals are more likely than self-image goals to enhance innovative work behavior when organizational support for innovation is high (versus low).

Method

Participants and Procedures

We conducted a time-lagged study to test our hypotheses and used a three-month time lag between measurements to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). In order to assess the expected cross-country variations in the joint effects of interpersonal goals and organizational support for innovation on innovative work behavior, we surveyed two independent sample countries that presented the following cultural configurations: Brazil, a collectivistic, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance country; and Canada, an individualistic, low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance country (Hofstede, 1991, 2001). Detailed country scores on collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance in Brazil and Canada are provided in Table 1 (Hofstede, 2001). In both samples, employees worked in different organizations. Participants were contacted via an internal email sent by the head of the human resources department of the organizations that agreed to participate in the study. The recruiting email explained the goals of the study (i.e., to examine the effects of interpersonal goals on innovation across cultures), gave guarantees of anonymity and provided a hyperlink that redirected the prospective participants to the first part of an online survey measuring all the study variables. Employees who responded to this part of the survey were contacted again three months later via another internal email asking

them to participate in the second part, which examined innovative work behavior. The responses to the two parts of the survey were paired through an anonymous code.

[Table 1 about here]

In Brazil, 483 employees were contacted for the first part of the survey, of which 366 provided usable responses (response rate = 75.77%) and were thus contacted three months later for the second part. Among them, 75 either did not respond or provided incomplete responses, resulting in a final sample of 291 employees with usable responses across time (overall response rate = 60.25%). Of the Brazilian respondents, 54% were male, the average age was 38.23 years (SD = 9.65), the average organizational tenure was 9.27 years (SD = 7.21), and 69% of them had at least an undergraduate degree. Moreover, 53% of participants held supervisory positions and 47% held employee positions. With regards to the industry sector, the majority of employees were from the public administration sector (60.5%), followed by the following sectors: education (13%), healthcare (6%), various sectors (6%), wholesale and retail (4.5%), construction (4%), consulting (1.5%), computing and technology (1.5%), transport (1%), finance (1%), and entertainment (1%).

In Canada, we contacted 509 participants for the first part of the survey, of which 315 returned valid responses (response rate = 61.88%) and, consequently, were contacted later for the second part of the survey. Among these participants, 146 returned the second questionnaire, but 32 provided incomplete answers, thus yielding a final sample of 114 employees across time (overall response rate = 22.40%). Most Canadian participants were female (70.2%) and held at least an undergraduate degree (64.1%). They were 38.39 years on average (SD = 10.70) and reported an average organizational tenure of 8.85 years (SD = 8.06). In addition, 50% of participants held supervisory (31.9%) or managerial (18%) positions, and 50% held employee positions. In term of industrial sector, most participants were from the healthcare sector (49.1%), followed by the following sectors: various sectors (25.4%),

wholesale and retail (13.2%), manufacturing (4.4%), entertainment (3.5%), finance (2.6%),

and education (1.8%).

Measures

In Brazil, a team of eight bilingual translators performed translations and retranslations

of the questionnaire from English to Portuguese, resulting in four rounds of independent

translations, with adjustments made by the authors to the items regarding the central ideas and

terms employed.

Compassionate and self-image goals. Compassionate and self-image goals were

measured with the 7- and 6-item scales developed by Crocker and Canevello (2008),

respectively. Since the original scales had been conceived for college students, the

corresponding items were revised by Crocker and Niiya (2007) to be adapted to the workplace

setting. Compassionate goals were captured by items such as "Be supportive of others",

whereas a sample item evaluating self-image goals was "Avoid appearing ignorant,

incompetent, or unintelligent". Responses were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to

5 (*completely*). The reliability alpha coefficients of the compassionate and self-image goal

scales were .79 and .84 for Brazil and .77 and .81 for Canada, respectively.

Organizational support for innovation. We used Fischer et al.'s (2014) 5-item scale to

measure organizational support for innovation. Employees were asked the extent to which

their organization enacted innovation-supportive practices on a scale ranging from 1 (*totally*

disagree) to 5 (*totally agree*). A sample item was "Assistance in developing new ideas is

generally readily available". The reliability of this scale was .86 for Brazil and .88 for Canada.

Innovative work behavior. Innovative work behavior was assessed with Janssen's

(2000) 9-item scale. Employees were asked to report the frequency with which they had been

involved in the generation, promotion and realization of new ideas in the workplace over the

last three months. A sample item was "Introducing innovative ideas into the work

environment in a systematic way". Responses were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The reliability alpha of this scale was .91 for Brazil and .93 for Canada.

Control variables. Previous studies have indicated that age, gender, education, and organizational tenure are likely to be related to innovative work behavior (Hammond, Neff, Farr, Schwall, & Zhao, 2011). Thus, we controlled for these employee demographics. We also controlled for innovative work behavior at Time 1 (reliability coefficient = .91 for Brazil and .93 for Canada) to avoid the possible confounding effect of unidentified variables on the dependent variable at Time 2 (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). Finally, in line with the prior research on innovative work behavior, we controlled for firms' industrial sector (manufacturing-intensive vs. knowledge- intensive industries) to determine whether the different degree of commitment to innovation that may exist between the two sectors would affect employee involvement in innovative activities (Montani, Maoret, & Dufour, 2019; Odoardi, Battistelli, Montani, & Peiró, 2019).

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

We examined the discriminant validity of the substantive variables of our study (self-image goals, compassionate goals, organizational support for innovation, and innovative work behavior) using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with Mplus 7.11 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). Following Little's (2013) recommendation, we created three parallel parcels (indicators) per latent factor by combining items with higher factor loadings with those with lower factor loadings to improve the sample-size-to-parameter ratio (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). As seen from Table 2, the hypothesized four-factor model displayed an acceptable fit to the data in both the Brazilian and Canadian samples and outperformed simpler and more parsimonious models ($p < .01$). These results thus suggest that the study variables are distinguishable.

[Table 2 about here]

Hypothesis Testing

Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics, correlations and reliabilities of the study

variables for both the Brazilian and Canadian samples.

[Table 3 about here]

Hypothesis 1 would be supported if, in Brazil, organizational support for innovation

moderated positively the relationship between self-image goals and innovative work behavior,

and negatively the relationship compassionate self-image goals and innovative work behavior.

Likewise, Hypothesis 2 would be supported if, in Canada, organizational support for

innovation moderated positively the compassionate goals-innovative work behavior

relationship, and negatively the self-image goals-innovative work behavior relationship. Table

4 provides the results of the (moderated) multiple regression analyses that were conducted to

examine the moderating effect of organizational support for innovation on the compassionate

goals-innovative work behavior and the self-image goals-innovative work behavior

relationship in Brazil and Canada. Consistent with Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2013),

predictors were mean-centered before calculating the interaction of self-image and

compassionate goals with organizational support for innovation. Additionally, predictor

variables were entered into the regression equation for innovative work behavior in the

following order: (a) control variables (Step 1), (b) self-image goals, compassionate goals and

organizational support for innovation (Step 2), and (c) the self-image goals X organizational

support for innovation and compassionate goals X organizational support for innovation

interaction terms (Step 3).

[Table 4 about here]

As can be seen from Table 4 (Model 3), in Brazil organizational support for

innovation significantly interacted positively with self-image goals ($B = .10$, $p < .05$) and

negatively with compassionate goals ($B = -.10$, $p < .05$) in predicting innovative work

behavior. Conversely, in Canada, the self-image goals X organizational support for innovation

interaction term was negatively associated with innovative work behavior ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$),

whereas the compassionate goals X organizational support for innovation interaction term was

positively related to it ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$). The interactions of organizational support for

innovation with self-image and compassionate goals in Brazil are graphically represented in

Figure 1 and Figure 2, while the same interactions in Canada are depicted in Figure 3 and

Figure 4, respectively. A simple slope test (Aiken & West, 1991) showed that in Brazil, when

organizational support for innovation was low, neither self-image goals ($B = -.02$, *ns*) nor

compassionate goals ($B = .09$, *ns*) were significantly related to innovative work behavior,

whereas when organizational support for innovation was high, self-image goals and

compassionate goals were, respectively, positively ($B = .16$, $p < .05$) and negatively ($B = -.20$,

$p < .05$) related to innovative work behavior. In Canada, at low levels of organizational

support for innovation, compassionate goals ($B = -.19$, *ns*) and self-image goals ($B = .12$, *ns*)

were both unrelated to innovative work behavior, while at high levels of organizational

support for innovation, compassionate and self-image goals were, respectively, positively ($B =$

.28, $p < .05$) and negatively ($B = -.20$, $p < .05$) associated with innovative work behavior.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 are thus supported.

[Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4 about here]

Auxiliary Analyses

We performed an auxiliary analysis to test joint moderating effect of country and

organizational support for innovation on the relationship of both compassionate and self-

image goals with innovative work behavior. Our predictions would receive additional support

if organizational support and country jointly influenced the relationship of both

compassionate and self-image goals with innovative work behavior, such that at high levels of

organizational support for innovation, the relationships of both self-image and compassionate

goals with innovative work behavior significantly differ between the two countries.

Prior to conducting these post-hoc analyses, we performed a multi-group CFA to

examine the factorial invariance of the constructs across countries. Precisely, we merged the

Brazilian and Canadian samples into a common dataset, and conducted a hierarchical

procedure in which an initial baseline model was compared to a series of constrained models

that sequentially tested the equivalence of the factor loadings, factor variances, factor

covariances, and measurement errors (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Tests of invariance at

each level were conducted with the Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI, James, Mulaik, &

Brett, 1982) in addition to the fit statistics used previously. A more constrained model should

have higher PNFI values than its less constrained counterparts. Accordingly, as additional

invariance constraints are imposed, PNFI values are expected to increase if factorial

invariance is to be proven (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989). As can be seen from Table 5,

the baseline model yielded an acceptable fit to the data, which supports the invariance of the

factor patterns across countries. The introduction of invariance constraints revealed a

progressive increase in the PNFI across all the restricted models, thus providing support for

the equivalence of the structural parameters in each model.

Table 2 reports the descriptive statistics, correlations and reliabilities of the study

variables for the whole sample. We explored whether there were significant differences in the

substantive study variables between countries. Results from an independent samples t-test

revealed a significant difference between Brazil and Canada in the levels of self-image goals

($T_{[403]} = 2.12$, $p < .05$), organizational support for innovation ($T_{[294.66]} = -3.21$, $p < .01$) and

innovative work behavior ($T_{[403]} = -4.77$, $p < .01$). The Canadian sample reported higher

scores for innovative work behavior and organizational support for innovation, which is

consistent with cross-cultural research suggesting a higher innovation-orientation in

individualistic, low uncertainty avoidance and low power distance countries. Conversely, the

Brazilian sample reported higher scores for self-image goals. These results can be explained

by considering that self-image goals can imply the use of ingratiation strategies in order to

gain personal benefits (Crocker & Canevello, 2015), and that such strategies are prevalent in

collectivistic and high power distance countries (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Zaidman & Drory,

2001). With regard to compassionate goals, we did not detect a significant difference between

Brazil and Canada ($T_{[403]} = -.85$, *ns*). This result can be explained by the fact that, as prior

research on interpersonal goals has indicated (Crocker & Canevello, 2008), the support and

care implied by compassionate goals are sometimes given out of a concern for others (such as

in collectivistic and high power distance countries) and sometimes given strategically to

satisfy personal interests (such as in individualistic and low power distance countries).

[Table 5 about here]

To examine the expected three-way interaction effects on innovative work behavior,

we included country as a dummy variable (1 = Brazil, 2 = Canada) at the second step of the

regression analysis, added three additional two-way interactions terms – self-image goals X

country, compassionate goals X country, and organizational support for innovation X country

– at the third step, and the two three-way interaction terms of self-image goals X

organizational support for innovation X country and compassionate goals X organizational

support for innovation X country at the fourth step. As shown in Table 4 (Model 4), results

revealed that both the self-image goals X organizational support for innovation X country ($\beta =$

$-.11$, $p < .01$) and the compassionate goals X organizational support for innovation X country

($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$) interaction terms were significantly associated with innovative work

behavior. Figures 5 and 6 depict, respectively, the three-way interactions of self-image and

compassionate goals with organizational support for innovation and country. The relationship

of self-image and compassionate goals with innovative work behavior varied at different

conditions of the two moderators, consistently with our hypotheses. High (versus low) levels of organizational support for innovation strengthened the association between self-image goals and innovative work behavior in Brazil, as well as the relationship between compassionate goals and innovative work behavior in Canada (See Figures 5 and 6).

[Figures 5 and 6 about here]

Following Dawson and Richter (2006), a slope difference test was conducted to test the significance of slope differences. Results of these analyses are reported in Table 6. The positive relationship between self-image goals and innovative work behavior that resulted from the combination of high organizational support for innovation and Brazil was significantly different from the negative relationship between self-image goals and innovative behavior resulting from the combination of high organizational support for innovation and Canada ($t = -3.26$, $p < .01$). Similarly, the positive relationship between compassionate goals and innovative behavior issued from the combination of high organizational support for innovation and Canada was significantly different from the negative and non-significant relationship between compassionate goals and innovative work behavior stemming from the combination of high organizational support for innovation and Brazil ($t = 2.69$, $p < .01$). Taken together, these results provide additional support for Hypotheses 1 and 2.

[Table 6 about here]

Discussion

The present study extends current, limited knowledge on the relationship between interpersonal goals and innovative work behavior by investigating the joint, intervening role of the organizational context and the country. Consistent with our predictions, we found that in Brazil, a more collectivistic, higher power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance country, when compared to Canada, employees holding self-image goals were more likely than those with compassionate goals to engage in innovative work behaviors when high levels

of support for innovation were provided by the organization. Conversely, in Canada, a country where a more individualistic, lower power distance and lower uncertainty avoidance culture is prevalent, when compared to Brazil, the same innovation-supportive organizational conditions were more likely to enhance a positive relationship between compassionate goals, rather than self-image goals, and innovative work behavior. These findings provide important theoretical and practical implications, as we further discuss.

Theoretical implications

This study challenges the predominant hypothesis that self-focused goals have costs, and other-focused goals have benefits (Crocker et al., 2017). Consistently, our results suggest that in organizational settings, both types of interpersonal goals can have either beneficial or costly consequences for employee engagement in innovative behaviors, and that to understand such effects more deeply, it is important to consider the role of the organizational context and the broader country simultaneously. Indeed, we found that when the same high innovation-supportive conditions were provided by the organization, being driven by compassionate goals made employees significantly less innovative in Brazil than in Canada. At the same time, when employees holding compassionate goals perceived extensive support for innovation, they were more likely to engage in innovative behaviors in Canada than in Brazil. As such, our findings disclose a first important way to conciliate the prior perspectives on the role of self- and other-focused orientations in employee innovation by suggesting that the value of either factor in motivating people to engage in innovative activities at work is entirely dependent on the support (high versus low) that organizations belonging to countries with potentially different cultural values provide for innovation. These new insights stress the importance of jointly considering diverse organizational and cultural configurations to further enhance theory building on interpersonal goals and innovation at work.

Our study also revealed that the positive effects of Brazil and Canada in enhancing the benefits of, respectively, self-image goals and compassionate goals to innovative behavior vanished when perceived support for innovation was low. These findings thus provide important new knowledge on the role of organizational support in innovation. Indeed, prior research has mainly investigated this organizational factor as a determinant of innovative behaviors (e.g., Yuan & Woodman, 2010). By proposing and demonstrating that organizational support for innovation moderates the interpersonal goals-innovative behavior relationship in different countries, our research highlights its role as a boundary condition that shapes the effects of specific, potentially different cultural configurations on the decision of employees holding different interpersonal goals to engage in innovative actions.

Hence, overall, our findings suggest that the organizational context and the country play an important synergistic role in shaping the benefits and costs of interpersonal goals to employee innovativeness (Zhou & Su, 2010). Prior to our investigation, only Nouri and colleagues (2015) adopted such an integrative approach to examine how the social context (i.e., working under a supervisor and in the presence of peers) and cross-country differences jointly influence students' creative behavior. These authors showed that Chinese students working under a supervisor produced fewer original ideas than those working alone, whereas American students generated a lower number of ideas when working in the presence of peers than when working alone. Our study extends the previous research by considering not only the creative component of innovation but also its application-oriented aspects (i.e., idea promotion and implementation). Considering how the context and the country affect the whole spectrum of innovative behavior, rather than solely its creative inputs, is an essential research endeavor since effective innovations depend on developing novel and useful ideas beyond their initial states through promotion and implementation-related actions (Anderson et al., 2014). Moreover, unlike Nouri et al.'s (2015) study, the present investigation did not

consider the context X country influence in isolation but in conjunction with individual differences in interpersonal goals. We found that the joint effect of organizational support for innovation and country on employee innovative behavior varied significantly between employees holding compassionate goals and those holding self-image goals. This finding thus highlights that interindividual differences might play an important role in shaping the organization- and country-related influences on employee innovativeness.

Practical implications

Our findings have important practical implications for how to spur innovation among employees that differ in the desired relational outcomes they aim to pursue in their work environment. Our study revealed that other-oriented and self-oriented goals can both have the potential to energize and inhibit employee engagement in innovative actions. Accordingly, managers should be aware of the conditions in which it would be worth emphasizing the pursuit of either compassionate or self-image goals. In this respect, our results indicate that providing extensive support for innovation is a necessary condition to motivate innovative behaviors among both compassionate and self-image people. However, in the case of employees holding self-image goals, this condition was shown to enhance innovative work behavior only in a more collectivistic, higher power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance country (Brazil), whereas in the case of employees holding compassionate goals, the same beneficial effect occurred uniquely in a more individualistic, lower power distance and lower uncertainty avoidance country (Canada). From a practical standpoint, and following a self-presentation perspective, this result suggests that in Brazil, organizations expecting self-image employees to invest in innovative activities should provide higher status or more privileged group positions for the pursuit of risky pathways to innovation and the achievement of radically novel innovative outcomes. Instead, in Canada, those organizations expecting compassion-oriented employees to behave innovatively should stress the pursuit or more

incremental and less risky approaches to innovation, and prize such approaches through social rewards such as participation to social events that help them develop high-quality connections with other people.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Several words of caution should be acknowledged in interpreting the present findings. First, since the measures of the substantive variables came from the same source, our results might be contaminated by common method bias. However, as recommended by methodologists (Podsakoff et al., 2012), we adopted procedural remedies (i.e., temporal separation between measurements) to alleviate such bias. Moreover, while the adoption of multisource ratings would be recommended in future studies to counteract method bias, it is worth noting that in the case of innovative work behavior, the use of other ratings may not be necessary. Indeed, employees have more information than supervisors or peers about the background of their work tasks (Janssen, 2000) and about the degree to which they have generated or championed their ideas (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2009). Research has also shown that the self-report ratings of innovation-related behaviors are consistent with other ratings (e.g., Janssen, 2000). Thus, the use of self-ratings to examine employee innovative work behavior was justifiable. Second, although we controlled for the effects of innovative behavior at Time 1 on the dependent variable at Time 2, the time-lagged nature of our study did not allow us to rule out potential reciprocal relationships between interpersonal goals and innovative behavior. Accordingly, longitudinal studies should be conducted in the future to provide more robust evidence of the hypothesized causal effects of interpersonal goals on innovative work behavior.

A third limitation of this research is the low response rate of participants from the Canadian sample, which threatened the generalizability of our results. The low response rate observed in the Canadian sample can be explained by the characteristics of the sample.

Research has indeed shown that response rate is lowest in organizational studies where healthcare or various sectors were included and where participants in managerial positions were solicited (Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Cycyota & Harrison, 2002). In the case of the present study, compared to the Brazilian sample, the Canadian sample comprised a higher rate of participants that belonged to healthcare (49.1% in Canada versus 6% in Brazil) or various, non-specified (25.4% in Canada versus 6% in Brazil) sectors, and that occupied managerial positions (18% in Canada versus none in Brazil). Future tests of the moderated relationships proposed in this study should be carried out on a more representative sample in order to enhance the generalizability of the findings from the present research.

Furthermore, our study theorized cross-cultural differences in terms of individualism-collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance to explain the cross-national variations in the moderating effects of organizational support for innovation on the relationship between interpersonal goals and innovative work behavior. Though such cross-cultural variations between the two surveyed countries – i.e., Brazil and Canada – have been empirically documented (e.g., Hofstede, 2001), our study did not measure the extent to which Brazilian and Canadian respondents embraced individualistic-collectivistic, power distance and uncertainty avoidance values. Accordingly, we could not determine whether the two samples effectively represented two significantly different cultures, with the Brazilians sharing more collectivistic, higher power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance values than did the Canadians. Future research should thus include direct measures of individualism-collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance among participants from countries that differ in these cultural dimensions. In this way, it would be possible to determine with greater accuracy whether the cross-national effects reported by the present study do effectively reflect cross-cultural variations.

Finally, we based our theoretical arguments on the assumption that employees with self-image and compassionate goals would pursue, respectively, a riskier and a more conservative approach to innovation, respectively. However, these different innovative pathways and the respective innovation-related outputs were not empirically assessed in our study. Accordingly, in order to gain a more nuanced understanding of the differential effects of interpersonal goals on innovation in different organizational and cultural contexts, future studies could extend current findings by examining the specific cognitive processes that reflect riskier and more cautious approaches to innovation, such as convergent and divergent thinking (De Dreu, 2010; Shen, Hommel, Yuan, Chang, & Zhang, 2018), as well the corresponding outcomes resulting from these approaches, such as radical and incremental innovation (Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011; Sheng & Chien, 2016). To this end, a worthy research avenue would imply developing and testing a dual pathway model in which self-image and compassionate goals indirectly influence radical and incremental forms of innovation via divergent and convergent cognitive processes, respectively, and the organizational context and the country moderate these indirect effects.

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Table 1

National Cultural Dimensions of the Hofstede's (2001) Study by Country

Dimensions	Minimum	Maximum	Brazil	Canada
Individualism	6	91	38	80
Power distance	11	104	69	39
Uncertainty avoidance	8	112	76	48

Table 2

Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Brazil (N = 291)							
Hypothesized four-factor model	121.46*	48	–	–	.93	.07	.05
Three-factor models							
Combining self-image goals and compassionate goals	199.46*	51	78.00*	3	.85	.10	.08
Combining organizational support for innovation and innovative work behavior	304.92*	51	183.46*	3	.74	.13	.09
Two-factor model (self-image goals and compassionate goals vs. organizational support for innovation and innovative work behavior)	373.33*	53	251.87*	5	.68	.14	.11
One-factor model	566.25*	54	444.79*	6	.48	.18	.16
Canada (N = 114)							
Hypothesized four-factor model	73.14*	48	–	–	.94	.07	.06
Three-factor models							
Combining self-image goals and compassionate goals	101.30*	51	28.16*	3	.89	.09	.09
Combining organizational support for innovation and innovative work behavior	169.61*	51	96.47*	3	.74	.14	.12
Two-factor model (self-image goals and compassionate goals vs. organizational support for innovation and innovative work behavior)	195.19*	53	122.05*	5	.68	.15	.14
One-factor model	283.26*	54	210.12*	6	.49	.19	.18

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. * $p < 01$.
Given the self-report nature of our data, a Harman's single-factor test was conducted to examine the likelihood of common method bias (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Results indicated that the single factor explained 29% and 12% of variance in the Brazilian and Canadian samples, respectively, suggesting that common method bias is unlikely to substantially affect the findings of the present study.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Brazil (N = 291)													
1. Industry sector	–	–	–										
2. Gender	–	–	–.03	–									
3. Age	38.23	9.64	.06	.09	–								
4. Educational level	–	–	–.02	–.32**	.11	–							
5. Organizational tenure	9.27	7.21	.10	.22**	.63**	–.07	–						
6. Innovative work behavior (Time 1)	2.79	0.76	–.14*	–.08	–.11	.06	–.13**	(.91)					
7. Compassionate goals (Time 1)	4.20	0.48	.12*	–.08	.12*	.08	.02	.30**	(.79)				
8. Self-image goals (Time 1)	3.84	0.77	.02	.14*	–.06	–.17**	–.09	.23**	.38**	(.84)			
9. Organizational support for innovation (Time 1)	2.85	1.20	–.15*	–.13*	–.12*	.07	–.25**	.43*	.18**	.13*	(.86)		
10. Innovative work behavior (Time 2)	2.82	0.78	–.14*	–.07	–.11	.08	–.15**	.76**	.22**	.21**	.44**	(.91)	
Canada (N = 114)													
1. Industry sector	–	–	–										
2. Gender	–	–	–.25**	–									
3. Age	38.39	10.70	–.06	.04	–								
4. Educational level	–	–	–.17	–.02	–.16	–							
5. Organizational tenure	8.85	8.06	–.09	–.04	.58**	–.20*	–						
6. Innovative work behavior (Time 1)	3.23	0.82	–.00	.09	–.03	.04	.02	(.93)					
7. Compassionate goals (Time 1)	4.25	0.54	–.04	.15	–.03	–.13	–.03	.29**	(.77)				
8. Self-image goals (Time 1)	3.66	0.76	.02	.03	–.08	–.08	.02	.32**	.38**	(.81)			
9. Organizational support for innovation (Time 1)	3.19	0.84	–.02	.28**	–.10	–.10	–.14	.27**	.30**	.18	(.88)		
10. Innovative work behavior (Time 2)	3.22	0.75	–.01	.08	–.02	–.04	.06	.71**	.21**	.21**	.37**	(.93)	
Brazil and Canada (N = 405)													
1. Industry sector	–	–	–										
2. Gender	–	–	–.09	–									
3. Age	38.27	9.94	.02	.07	–								
4. Educational level	–	–	–.03	.00	.01	–							
5. Organizational tenure	9.16	7.45	.04	.14*	.61**	–.05	–						
6. Innovative work behavior (Time 1)	2.91	0.80	–.10	–.07	–.08	–.17**	–.09	(.92)					
7. Compassionate goals (Time 1)	4.22	0.50	.07	–.02	.07	–.02	.00	.30**	(.78)				
8. Self-image goals (Time 1)	3.79	0.77	.02	–.07	–.07	.00	–.06	.22**	.37**	(.83)			
9. Organizational support for innovation (Time 1)	2.94	1.12	–.12*	–.06	–.11*	–.09	–.22**	.40**	.21**	.12**	(.87)		
10. Innovative work behavior (Time 2)	2.93	0.79	–.10*	–.06	–.08	–.16**	–.09	.76**	.24**	.18**	.44**	(.92)	
11. Country	–	–	–.01	–.17*	.01	–.80**	–.02	.25**	.04	–.10*	.14**	.23**	–

Note. Internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) are reported in parentheses along the diagonal. For Industry sector, 1 = manufacturing- intensive industries, and 2 = knowledge- intensive industries. For Gender, 1 = female, and 2 = male. For Educational level, 1 = primary school, 2 = secondary school, 3 = college, 4 = undergraduate, 5 = postgraduate, and 6 = Ph.D. For Country, 0 = Brazil, 1 = Canada.
$*p < .05$; $**p < .01$.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Results for Innovative Work Behavior

Variables	Brazil (N = 291)			Canada (N = 114)			Brazil and Canada (N = 405) (auxiliary analyses)			
	1	*2*	*3*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*
Step 1										
Industry sector	−.03	−.02	−.01	−.01	−.01	−.02	−.03	−.02	−.02	−.02
Gender	.01	.03	.03	.02	−.04	−.02	−.01	.00	−.00	.00
Age	.00	−.00	.01	−.06	−.06	−.05	−.01	−.02	−.02	−.01
Education	.03	.05	.05	−.06	−.03	−.02	−.04	.01	.02	.03
Organizational tenure	−.05	−.02	−.03	.08	.11	.14	−.02	.02	.02	.03
Innovative work behavior (Time 1)	.75**	.69**	.69**	.71**	.66**	.73**	.74**	.68**	.68**	.70**
Step 2										
Compassionate goals		−.03	−.03		.06	.04		.01	−.02	−.03
Self-image goals		.06	.07		−.07	−.05		.02	.06	.06
Organizational support for innovation (OSI)		.13**	.14**		.20*	.24**		.15**	.14**	.14**
Country								.09	.09	.08
Step 3										
Compassionate goals X OSI			−.10*			.19*			−.02	−.09*
Self-image goals X OSI			.10*			−.16*			.04	.09*
Compassionate goals X Country									.04	.04
Self-image goals X Country									−.07	−.06
OSI X Country									.03	.05
Step 4										
Compassionate goals X OSI X Country										.13**
Self-image goals X OSI X Country										−.11**
R^2	.58	.59	.60	.51	.55	.59	.58	.60	.60	.62
ΔR^2		.01*	.01*		.04*	.04*		.02**	.01	.02**

Note. Except for the Total R^2 and ΔR^2 rows, entries are standardized regression coefficients. Given the high correlation between innovative work behavior at Time 1 and that at Time 2, we assessed the likelihood of multicollinearity by estimating the tolerance (which should be higher than 0.10; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) and the variance inflation factor (which should be below 10; Hair et al., 2010) in each sample as well as in the overarching dataset. The lowest tolerance values ranged between .29 and .60, and the variance inflation indices ranged between 1.66 and 3.48, thus indicating the absence of multicollinearity in our study.
*p < .05; **p < .01.

Table 5

Auxiliary Analyses: Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Testing for Invariance across Countries

Model	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta \chi^2$	$\Delta\,df$	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR	PNFI
Baseline	237.31*	96	–	–	.94	.90	.08	.06	.65
Equivalence of factor loadings	258.65*	104	21.34*	8	.93	.89	.08	.08	.70
Equivalence of factor variances and covariances	288.51*	113	51.20*	17	.92	.87	.09	.08	.74
Equivalence of measurement errors	394.16*	125	156.85*	29	.88	.83	.10	.10	.78

Note. $N = 405$. CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; PNFI = parsimonious normed fit index.

* $p < .01$.

Table 6

Auxiliary Analyses: Slope Difference Tests

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
Self-image goals and innovative work behavior	
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. High OSI and Brazil (2)	−3.26**
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. Low OSI and Canada (3)	−1.99*
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	−0.75
High OSI and Brazil (2) vs. Low OSI and Canada (3)	0.41
High OSI and Brazil (2) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	2.88**
Low OSI and Canada (3) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	1.36
Compassionate goals and innovative work behavior	
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. High OSI and Brazil (2)	2.69*
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. Low OSI and Canada (3)	1.45
High OSI and Canada (1) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	0.28
High OSI and Brazil (2) vs. Low OSI and Canada (3)	−0.17
High OSI and Brazil (2) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	−3.86**
Low OSI and Canada (3) vs. Low OSI and Brazil (4)	−1.97

Note. $N = 405$. OSI = organizational support for innovation.

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Figure 1. Brazil: Interaction between self-image goals and organizational support for innovation (OSI) in predicting innovative work behavior.
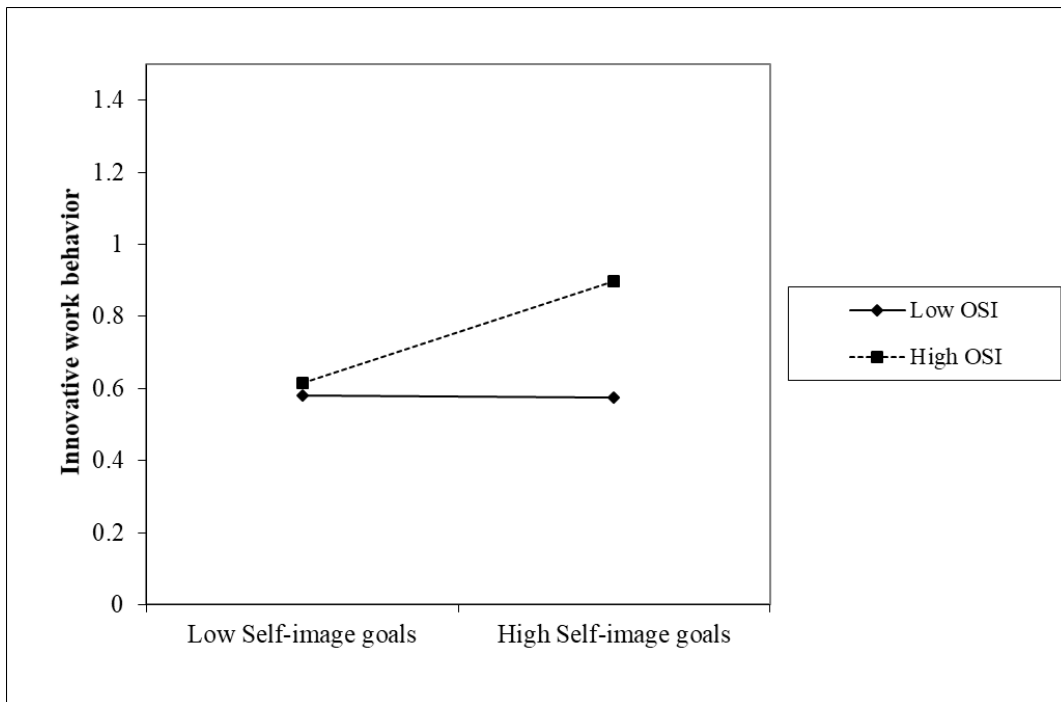

Figure 2. Brazil: Interaction between compassionate goals and organizational support for innovation (OSI) in predicting innovative work behavior.
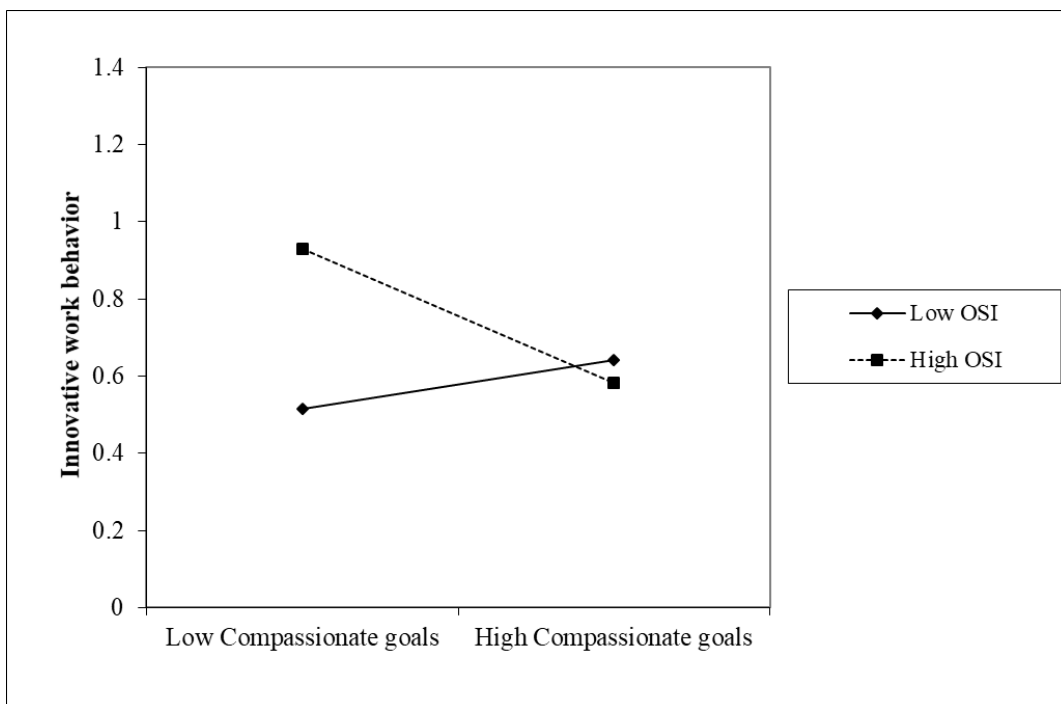
Figure 3. Canada: Interaction between self-image goals and organizational support for innovation (OSI) in predicting innovative work behavior.
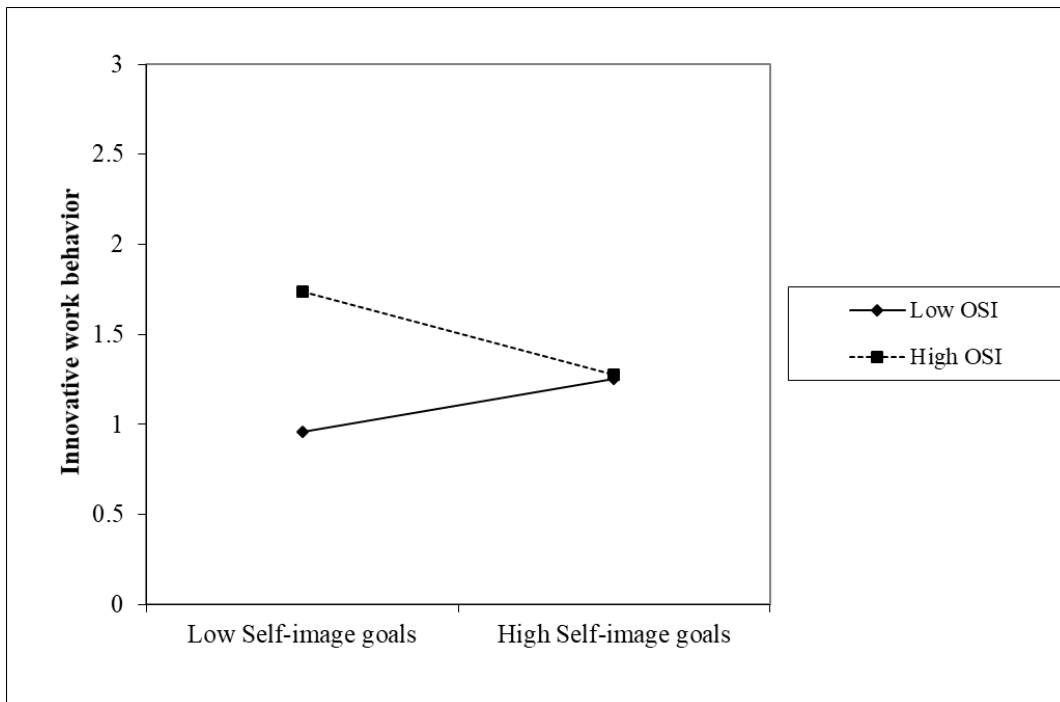

Figure 4. Canada: Interaction between compassionate goals and organizational support for innovation (OSI) in predicting innovative work behavior.
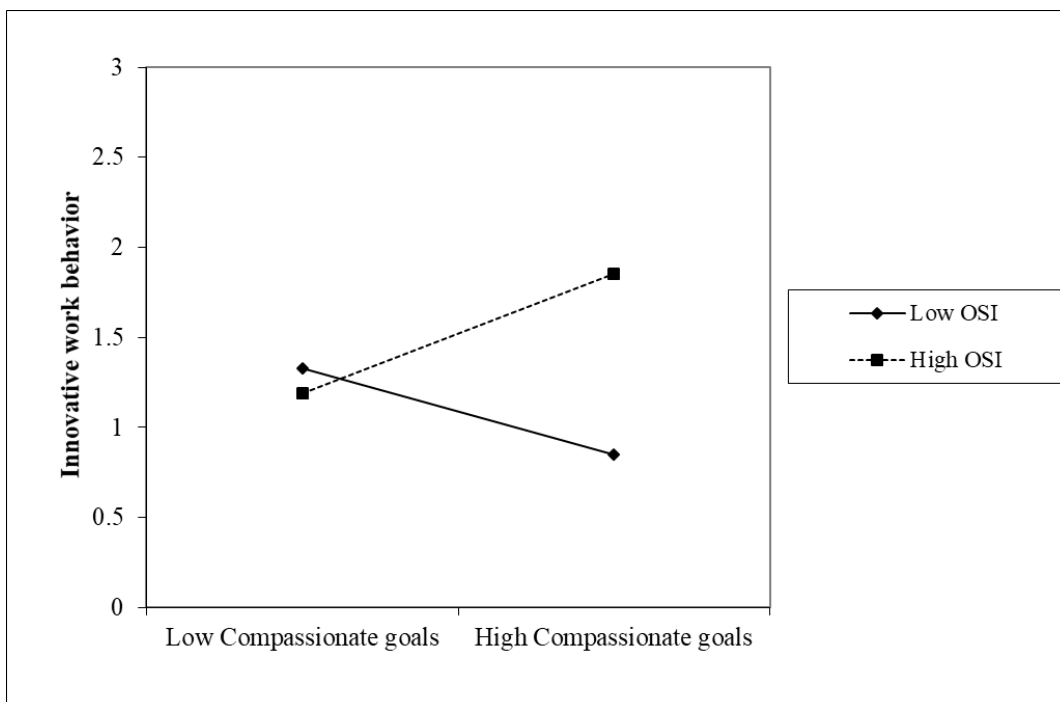
Figure 5. Auxiliary analyses: interaction of self-image goals, organizational support for innovation (OSI) and country in predicting innovative work behavior. At high OSI and Canada (slope 1), $B = -.21$, $p < .05$; at high OSI and Brazil (slope 2), $B = .15$, $p < .05$; at low OSI and Canada (slope 3), $B = .22$, *ns*; at low OSI and Brazil (slope 4), $B = -.01$, *ns*.
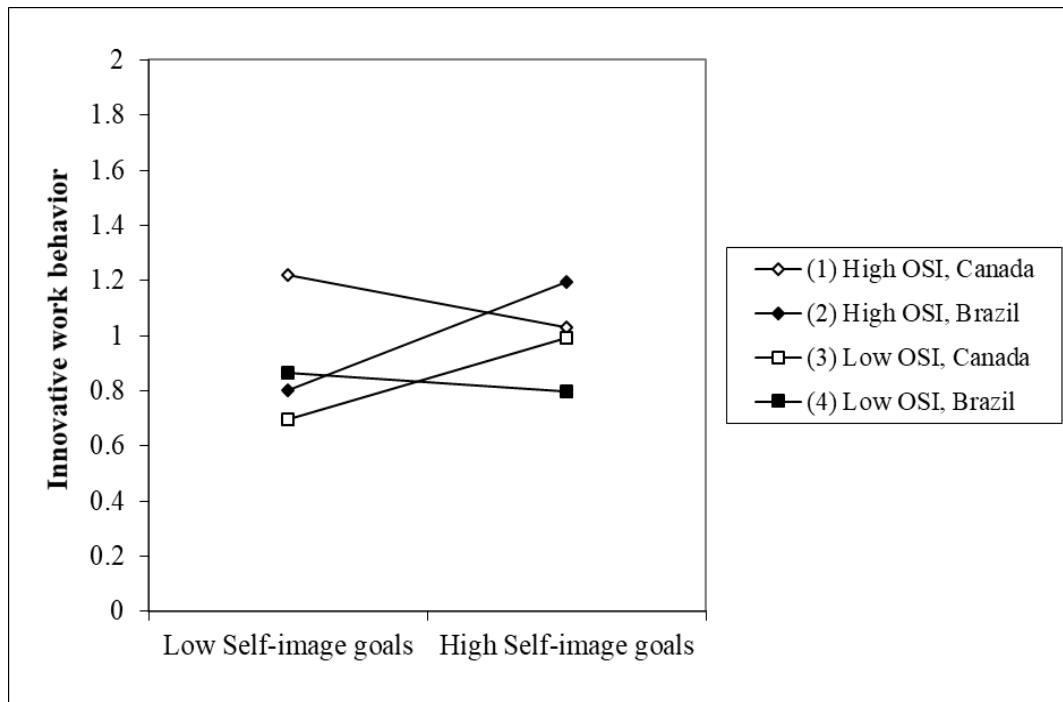

Figure 6. Auxiliary analyses: Interaction of compassionate goals, organizational support for innovation (OSI) and country in predicting innovative work behavior. At high OSI and Canada (slope 1), $B = .28$, $p < .05$; at high OSI and Brazil (slope 2), $B = -.19$, *ns*; at low OSI and Canada (slope 3), $B = -.33$, *ns*; at low OSI and Brazil (slope 4), $B = .07$, *ns*.