

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

The paradoxical relationship between sense of power and creativity: Countervailing pathways and a boundary condition

Federico Magni¹  | Yaping Gong²  | Jie (Kassie) Li³ |
Jingzhou Pan⁴ | Mingjian Zhou⁵

¹Department of Management, Technology, and Economics, ETH Zürich, Zurich, Switzerland

²Department of Management, The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong SAR, China

³Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management Area, Wilfred Laurier University, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada

⁴College of Management and Economics, Tianjin University, Tianjin, China

⁵School of Economics and Management, Harbin Institute of Technology at Shenzhen, Shenzhen, Guangdong, China

Correspondence

Mingjian Zhou, School of Economics and Management, Harbin Institute of Technology at Shenzhen, Shenzhen, Guangdong, China.
Email: mngzmj@163.com

Abstract

When sense of power helps or hinders creativity remains an unresolved question. Drawing upon the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions, we integrate two different predictions into a dual-pathway model, showing the paradoxical role that sense of power—one's perceived ability to influence others—plays in predicting creativity. Specifically, sense of power helps creativity through increased risk-taking and simultaneously hinders it through reduced perspective taking. We further propose openness to experience as a moderator of the countervailing mechanisms, such that the positive path through risk-taking is stronger and the negative path through perspective taking is weaker for individuals with higher (vs. lower) levels of openness. We test our hypotheses with three multisource and multi-wave field studies (Study 1: $n = 181$ part-time MBAs paired with peers; Study 2: $n = 128$ sales employees paired with store managers; Study 3: $n = 153$ sales employees paired with store managers). The results support our theoretical model, showing that sense of power and creativity are simultaneously connected positively through risk-taking and negatively through perspective taking, and that the overall indirect effect of sense of power on creativity is more

positive for individuals with higher (vs. lower) levels of openness to experience.

KEYWORDS

approach-inhibition theory, creativity, openness to experience, perspective taking, risk-taking, sense of power

1 | INTRODUCTION

There has been a growing realization that creativity, the generation of novel and useful ideas (Amabile et al., 1996), can be fostered by social relationships (Amabile, 1983; Liao et al., 2010; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017), and that social relationships are built around power—the influence that one person has over others through the control of resources (Emerson, 1962; Galinsky et al., 2006; Ibarra, 1993). This realization has led to burgeoning research on power and creativity. Some have examined the effect of objective power on creativity, showing that power positively relates to creativity through mechanisms such as cognitive flexibility and information processing, but only when power is perceived as stable (Sligte et al., 2011). Others have claimed that what guides individuals is rather their sense of power—their *perceived* ability to influence others (Anderson et al., 2012)—because this is more proximal to cognitive and behavioral reactions than objective power is (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Sense of power facilitates creativity through mechanisms such as affective commitment, creative self-efficacy, and reduced conformity (Galinsky et al., 2008; Zhou & He, 2020). However, these findings provide a partial picture of the relationship between sense of power and creativity.

On the one hand, the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Smith, 2013) suggest a positive effect of sense of power on creativity, in line with the past findings reported above. Individuals who feel powerful tend to take action and speak up, and they are also more motivated to pursue goals, especially challenging ones (Schmid, 2022). At the same time, they are characterized by feelings of safety and by reduced conformity to social rules, because they feel in control of the environment and of others (Anderson et al., 2012). The proactivity and disconformity typical of individuals who feel powerful drive them towards activities with uncertain outcomes (i.e., risk-taking), in turn fostering creativity (Galinsky et al., 2008; Keltner et al., 2003; Smith & Trope, 2006).

On the other hand, the goal-directed focus enabled by sense of power leads to narrow and self-directed attention, which means that individuals who feel powerful tend to pay heed to themselves and disregard others (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Overbeck & Park, 2006; Pitesa & Thau, 2013; Smith & Trope, 2006). The reduced motivation to collect information about others, typical of individuals who feel powerful (Galinsky et al., 2006, 2016; Tost et al., 2012), should reduce their attention to others' perspectives (Overbeck & Park, 2006). This, in turn, would impair divergent thinking and limit creativity (Hoever et al., 2012). Taking these two standpoints together, it appears that the relationship between sense of power and creativity is rather a complex one, as there are both positive and negative forces underlying this relationship.

Despite the counteracting forces linking sense of power and creativity, past research has predominantly focused on the positive one and has failed to integrate these two opposing forces by simultaneously examining countervailing mechanisms. This state of research is problematic, as it paints a partial and biased picture of the effect of sense of power on creativity. To embrace the complex relationship between sense of power and creativity, in the current research we draw on the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions and study both positive and negative pathways linking sense of power to creativity. In addition, in order to tackle the complexity associated with countervailing mechanisms it is theoretically important to examine when one or other mechanism is likely to prevail, we identify a moderator that might make either mechanism prevalent and, consequently, turn the overall indirect effect of sense of power on creativity more positive or negative.

In this regard, the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Smith, 2013) also guide us in addressing the question of *when* sense of power helps or hinders creativity by suggesting an interaction between power and personality in predicting outcomes. Specifically, as individuals engage with the environment around them, their personalities induce chronic goals that can synergize or misalign with—and, respectively, strengthen or weaken—the effects of sense of power (Barrick et al., 2013; Magee & Smith, 2013). Looking for a personality moderator that induces dispositional goals synergizing with the effect of sense of power on one mechanism but misaligning with its effect on the other, we identify openness to experience as a prime candidate. Openness to experience refers to the dispositional tendency to seek unconventional experiences and “encounter a wide variety of ideas, feelings, and activities” (McCrae & Greenberg, 2014, p. 223). It is theoretically relevant here because the chronic goals it engenders—seeking unconventional experiences and satisfying curiosity due to an outward orientation (McCrae, 1996)—synergize with what sense of power prompts an individual to do in the positive pathway (i.e., take risks) and, at the same time, misalign with what sense of power prompts an individual to do in the negative pathway (i.e., focus on the self). Building on this rationale, we posit that openness to experience would strengthen the indirect effect of sense of power on creativity via the positive pathway and weaken the indirect effect via the negative pathway, thus producing an overall more positive indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity.

We test and find consistent support for our hypotheses with three multisource and multi-wave field studies. In this way, we replicate and integrate existing conceptual insights about the paradoxical effect of sense of power on creativity and further extend them by identifying openness as a boundary condition. Building on the nuanced theoretical knowledge of the relationship between sense of power and creativity outlined in this research, we provide new managerial insights into how to tap into the upside while neutralizing the downside of sense of power in relation to creativity.

2 | THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Sense of power refers to one's own perception of the extent to which one is able to influence others (Anderson et al., 2012; Anderson & Galinsky, 2006), and has been identified as a psychological experience distinct from objective power (Flynn et al., 2011; Galinsky et al., 2003; Kifer et al., 2013). The approach-inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003) suggests that (sense of) power can deeply influence individuals' action and attention patterns through the activation of different neurobiological systems. In particular, people who feel powerful are relatively more approach-oriented, proactive, and agentic, and they direct attention to themselves and to achieving goals that are consistent with their personal inclinations (Guinote, 2017; Magee & Smith, 2013). Conversely, people who feel powerless are more inhibited and insecure, and thus they conform more to social norms, focus on the reduction of threats, display more controlled cognitive processes, and are more attuned to others (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky et al., 2008). Indeed, compared with individuals with a high sense of power, those who feel powerless pay more attention to outside information in order to remedy their perceived lack of control (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). Building on these arguments, next we elaborate about how the proactive agency, disconformity, and lack of attention to outside information that are engendered by a high sense of power act in opposite ways to influence one's creativity.

2.1 | Sense of power, risk-taking, and creativity

The approach-inhibition theory of power suggests that people who feel powerful are relatively more approach-oriented, agentic, and disinhibited (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003), and these tendencies are linked to risk-taking attitudes and behaviors (Glaser et al., 2016; Levenson, 1990). Indeed, past studies found a positive relationship between sense of power and creativity (Duguid & Goncalo, 2015). Sense of power was found to reduce the effect of situational influences, for example, through the generation of less conformist ideas and attitudes, as well as stronger

resistance to external conformity pressures, thus favoring creativity (Galinsky et al., 2008). Sense of power has also been linked to higher affective commitment and creative self-efficacy, both factors positively related to creativity (Zhou & He, 2020).

Building on these past findings and on the approach-inhibition theory of power, we envision a positive indirect impact of sense of power on creativity via risk-taking. The theory suggests that people with a strong sense of power are more approach- and reward-oriented, and that their inhibition system is less salient and less activated (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Inesi, 2010; Lewellyn & Muller-Kahle, 2012); hence, they are more likely to take risks. Sense of power also triggers feelings of safety and low vulnerability (Anderson et al., 2012), which orient people towards potential payoffs rather than towards threats and dangers. Sense of power also elicits nonconforming tendencies (Duguid & Goncalo, 2015; Galinsky et al., 2008). Overall, these arguments suggest that people who feel powerful take more risks when they make decisions. Risk refers to “the extent to which there is uncertainty about whether potentially significant and/or disappointing outcomes of a decision will be realized” (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992, p. 10). Risky decisions involve significant uncertainty regarding expected outcomes and dealing with sets of possible outcomes that include potentially extreme consequences (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992). Risk-taking therefore involves making decisions and taking actions that increase the uncertainty and variability of outcomes. While high sense of power favors risk-taking, people with a low sense of power are more inhibited and focus on reducing threats because they feel vulnerable. As a result, they tend to avoid risk-taking. Thus, people with a strong sense of power should be more likely than their low-sense-of-power peers to take risks (Maner et al., 2007).

Risk-taking should then enhance creativity, as suggested by research in organizational contexts (Dewett, 2007) and other domains (e.g., financial decisions, health, and social relationships; Runco, 2015; Tyagi et al., 2017). Creativity springs out of unusual, unconventional, or even extreme activities with uncertain outcomes (e.g., activities with high failure rates; Tyagi et al., 2017). Because creativity often requires experimentation and deviation from norms, employees must be willing to and actually take risks in order to be creative at work (Amabile et al., 2018). Through risk-taking, employees expose themselves to new possibilities and hence increase the chance of discovering novel ideas.

Hypothesis 1: Sense of power has a positive indirect relationship with creativity through increased risk-taking.

2.2 | Sense of power, perspective taking, and creativity

A high sense of power fosters not only risk-taking, but also a focus on one's own ideas, views, and feelings, thus leading to reduced perspective taking (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Fiske, 1993; Galinsky et al., 2008). Perspective taking refers to the deliberate and nonjudgmental consideration of and attempt to understand the views, thoughts, feelings, and motives of others (Hoever et al., 2012; Parker & Axtell, 2001). Although perspective taking has not been directly examined as a direct antecedent of creativity—let alone as a mechanism linking power and creativity, its relationship with either power or creativity can be inferred from prior studies. On the one hand, prior studies in the power literature have suggested that powerful people have “a reduced tendency to comprehend how other people see, think, and feel” (Galinsky et al., 2006, p. 1068). Sense of power reduces perspective taking because people who feel powerful pay less attention to others and perceive higher social distance from others (Blader et al., 2016; Fiske, 1993; Galinsky et al., 2016; Lammers et al., 2008). On the other hand, extant research on perspective taking has suggested that taking others' perspectives can unlock the positive effects of factors such as prosocial motivation and team diversity on creativity (Grant & Berry, 2011; Hoever et al., 2012). As we elaborate below, these two streams of research together point to a negative pathway linking sense of power and creativity through perspective taking. This negative pathway should work in parallel with the positive pathway (through risk-taking), together showing the complexity of the relationship between sense of power and creativity.

Because individuals with a strong sense of power feel in control, they rely relatively more on heuristics and are more prone to take actions aimed at achieving their goals (Guinote, 2017; Magee & Smith, 2013). In contrast, people with a

low sense of power, because their inhibition system is activated, feel a lack of control (Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Keltner et al., 2003). Therefore, they make up for their lack of control by paying more attention to others and being attuned to searching for and processing external information more rationally and diagnostically (Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Galinsky et al., 2006, 2015). Thus, individuals who feel powerless are relatively more likely to take others' perspectives, because acquiring information about others helps them make up for their perceived powerlessness (Fiske & Dépret, 1996).

In line with this argument, past research has found that people with a higher sense of power are relatively worse at perceiving networks and judging others' emotions (Galinsky et al., 2006; Simpson et al., 2011). They are also more selective and self-focused in their attention, as well as less concerned about others' ideas and experiences (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Duguid & Goncalo, 2015; Fiske, 1993; Galinsky et al., 2008); this reduces their perspective taking. Moreover, findings from neuroscience have suggested that people who are inhibition-oriented—e.g., those with a low sense of power (Keltner et al., 2003)—tend to process information more carefully and diagnostically (Peterson et al., 2008). Therefore, people who feel powerless are more likely to consider others' opinions and perspectives. A review of the link between power and perspective taking has substantiated a generally negative relationship (Galinsky et al., 2016).

In line with prior studies (Galinsky et al., 2006, 2008), we conceptualize perspective taking as an information-seeking behavior (Herrera et al., 2018; Todd et al., 2012). As such, it should relate positively to creativity, because the ability to be creative stems from the consideration of different perspectives and divergent thinking (McCrae, 1987), as well as from information searching and coding (Amabile, 1983; Baer, 1998). Indeed, creativity is an inherently social and collaborative process, and creative production relies on the combination and integration of previously separate information, ideas, and perspectives (Amabile, 1983; Amabile et al., 2018; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Michalko, 2011). These arguments are also supported by the design thinking literature, according to which taking the perspective of others is a critical step in the creative production process (Mayseless et al., 2018; Owen, 2007). Broadening one's horizons by attempting to understand others' perspectives fosters divergent thinking and helps one see things from different points of view, thus paving the way for the combination of different perspectives. So, when people engage in perspective taking, they are exposed to a rich array of viewpoints and knowledge on a given topic, and thus they increase their domain-relevant knowledge (Amabile, 1983). The increased knowledge provides them with the necessary ingredients to mix diverse viewpoints and recombine them into novel solutions, thereby enhancing their creativity. Furthermore, the very *attempt* to take others' perspectives should boost creativity, because such an attempt means that one has, to some extent, already unfrozen existing mental frames and opened oneself to divergent and flexible thinking. To summarize, a high sense of power leads to reduced perspective taking, which in turn impedes creativity by impairing divergent thinking and reducing the amount of information available.

Hypothesis 2: Sense of power has a negative indirect relationship with creativity through decreased perspective taking.

2.3 | Openness to experience as a moderator

Hypotheses 1 and 2 together identify sense of power as a stimulus for behaviors with opposite effects on creativity: increased risk-taking and reduced perspective taking, the former fostering and the latter impairing creativity. To further unpack the paradoxical indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity, we look for a factor that could enhance (or diminish) the likelihood that one's sense of power (or lack thereof) would be directed towards a certain behavior (e.g., more risk-taking, less perspective taking), and could eventually steer the effect of sense of power towards higher (or lower) creativity.

The approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions suggest that the effects of power are contingent upon individuals' characteristics, particularly personality traits (Keltner et al., 2003). Indeed, "chronic goals com[ing]

from stable individual differences (e.g., values, personality traits, self-concept) ... can moderate the effects of power" (Magee & Smith, 2013, p. 176). Essentially, we theorize that personality-induced chronic goals can steer the effect of sense of power toward or away from a specific behavior (e.g., more risk-taking, or less perspective taking), depending on whether the goals are aligned or misaligned with such a behavior. When personality-induced chronic goals align with what sense of power prompts an individual to do, individuals are more likely to engage in that behavior. In contrast, when personality-induced chronic goals are misaligned with the effect of power on a certain behavior, individuals are less likely to engage in it.

This alignment rationale is akin to other interactionist perspectives. For example, the knowledge activation perspective suggests that knowledge is activated when it is aligned with a stimulus (Higgins, 1996), and the trait activation perspective suggests that traits are activated and unleashed in the presence of congruent contextual stimuli (Judge & Zapata, 2015; Tett et al., 2021). These interactionist perspectives based on alignment and misalignment are particularly critical when the main factor has potentially countervailing effects—as is the case with sense of power and on creativity. For instance, one prior study based on the alignment rationale showed that agreeableness can relate both positively and negatively to job performance, and one pathway outweighs the other depending on whether the effect of agreeableness aligns or misaligns with job characteristics such as requirements for social skills or competitiveness (Judge & Zapata, 2015). Building on a similar rationale, in the current research we examined the alignment and misalignment between the effects of sense of power on behavioral tendencies and personality, as well as how these moderated effects trickle down to creativity.

This raises the question of which personality trait is theoretically relevant to our model. Openness to experience is a prime candidate in this regard. By definition, openness captures intellectual curiosity, a broad range of interests, tolerance for uncertainty, and fascination with new experiences (Feist, 1998; George & Zhou, 2001; McCrae, 1987). It prompts an approach orientation and propels an individual to be adventurous and achieve personal growth through the pursuit of new experiences; it elicits intellectual curiosity and prompts the consideration of others' viewpoints (Barrick et al., 2013; McCrae, 1987). These chronic goals induced by openness critically steer sense of power towards or away from a certain direction, primarily because they are at the same time aligned with sense of power in the pathway linking it to creativity through increased risk-taking and misaligned with sense of power in the pathway linking it to creativity through reduced perspective taking. We articulate the alignment and misalignment rationale below.

2.3.1 | Openness moderates the positive pathway

Earlier we theorized that individuals who feel powerful tend to take risks because they are approach- and reward-oriented, and they feel secure and disinhibited. This rationale underlying the main effect of power on risk-taking aligns with the goals induced by openness. Specifically, high openness induces goals such as seeking adventures and new experiences, as well as making individuals more tolerant of uncertainty and unconventionality (Barrick et al., 2013; McCrae, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1997). This synergizes with the approach orientation induced by a high sense of power. That is, when individuals are highly open and inherently pursue these goals, they are more likely to act on their sense of power and take risks, because doing so aligns with their personality-induced dispositional goals. Because of this alignment, high openness should strengthen the positive effect of sense of power on risk-taking (see Magee & Smith, 2013). In a nutshell, individuals with a high level of openness are more likely to tap into and act on their sense of power and engage in trait-consistent risk-taking behavior. In line with Hypothesis 1, this synergetic effect on risk-taking should in turn trickle down to creativity.

Hypothesis 3: Openness to experience moderates the first stage of the positive indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity through increased risk-taking, such that the relationship between sense of power and risk-taking and, in turn, creativity is more positive when openness is higher rather than lower.

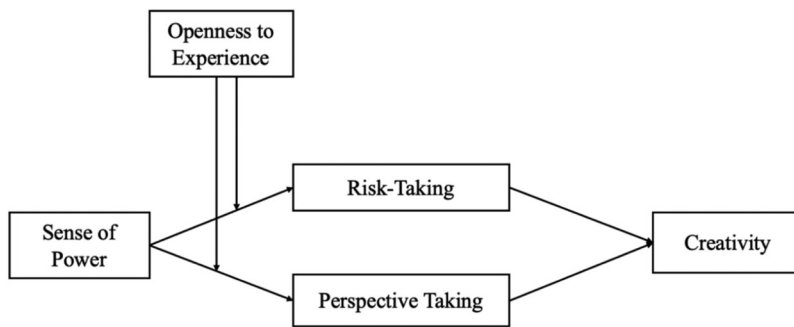


FIGURE 1 Theoretical model

2.3.2 | Openness moderates the negative pathway

According to Hypothesis 2 individuals who feel powerful are less likely to take others' perspectives; they instead focus on their own perspectives and seek little diagnostic information from others. These self-focused tendencies induced by a high sense of power misalign with the goals induced by openness, such as widening one's interests, embracing intellectual curiosity, and seeking new experiences and perspectives (McCrae, 1987). Highly open individuals who are driven by these goals would be less likely to tap into and act on sense of power by limiting their attention to their own experiences and perspectives, because doing so would be inconsistent with the goals. When individuals have both a high level of openness and a strong sense of power, tension exists between directing attention to oneself and expressing interest in others. Whereas a high level of sense of power may drive individuals to disregard others' experiences and perspectives, if they also have a high level of openness, they are less motivated to do so because such disregard contradicts their openness-induced chronic goals. Because of this misalignment, we expect openness to weaken the negative impact of sense of power on perspective taking (see Magee & Smith, 2013). In turn, the mitigating effect of high openness on the negative sense-of-power–perspective taking relationship would reduce the influence of this pathway on creativity.

Hypothesis 4: Openness to experience moderates the first stage of the negative indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity through decreased perspective taking, such that the relationship between sense of power and perspective taking and, in turn, creativity is less negative when openness is higher rather than lower.

We present the overall research model in Figure 1. Then we present Study 1, in which we test Hypotheses 1 and 2 regarding the countervailing mechanisms (risk-taking and perspective taking) linking sense of power and creativity. Next, we present Studies 2 and 3, in which we replicate the mediating effects and further test the moderated mediation Hypotheses 3 and 4. In line with the current standards of methodological transparency, we make all analyses, codes, and results available at <https://osf.io/96c85/>.

3 | STUDY 1

3.1 | Methods

3.1.1 | Sample and procedure

We collected data in 2019 from full-time employees who were taking MBA courses at a university in northern China. Focal participants who signed the consent form were asked to nominate and provide the contact information of one

coworker with whom they frequently interacted at work. Participants completed surveys at three time points, with one month between each wave of data collection. At Time 1, focal participants reported their own sense of power and the control variables, and the nominated coworkers reported the quality of their relationship with the focal participant. At Time 2, focal participants reported their perspective taking and risk-taking. At Time 3, the nominated coworkers rated the focal participants' creativity at work. All participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, that their responses were for academic research only and would not be shared with anyone outside the research team, and that any resulting publication would use aggregated data and no information would enable individual identification. Responses from different sources (employees and coworkers) and different times were matched using a roster provided by the organization; this roster was destroyed after matching the responses.

We distributed surveys to 259 participants and received 224 completed responses at Time 1 and, of those, 207 completed responses at Time 2. From the 207 nominated coworkers, we received 181 responses at Time 3, which allowed us to create our final sample of dyads. The 181 focal participants in the final sample were, on average, 32.7 years old, 44% were male, and more than 93% had at least a bachelor's degree, whereas the 181 nominated coworkers were, on average, 32.15 years old, 47% were male, and more than 84% had at least a bachelor's degree. We checked for potential nonrespondent bias and found that Time 2 respondents and nonrespondents did not differ significantly in their sense of power ($t(222) = .36, p = .72$), nor were they different in terms of gender ($t(222) = -.18, p = .86$), education ($t(222) = -1.32, p = .19$), organizational tenure ($t(214) = -.19, p = .85$), rank ($t(222) = .09, p = .93$), or coworker-reported relationship quality ($t(201) = -.36, p = .72$). Similarly, the participants who received a coworker rating of creativity at Time 3 did not differ from those who did not in terms of risk-taking ($t(205) = -.96, p = .34$) or perspective taking ($t(205) = -.33, p = .75$).

3.1.2 | Measures

We used Chinese scales when available and otherwise followed the standard back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980) to translate English scales into Chinese: One bilingual assistant translated the scales from English to Mandarin Chinese and another bilingual assistant back-translated the scales from Mandarin Chinese to English. Both were unaware of our research question. Then, a third bilingual assistant compared the original English scales with the back-translated English scale. The third bilingual researcher discussed any discrepancies with the authors to settle on a proper translation. Participants responded on five-point Likert scales. The full scales (both English and Chinese versions) are provided in Appendix A.

Sense of power. We measured sense of power with the eight-item scale from Anderson et al. (2012). Respondents rated the items based on their experiences and feelings at work. A sample item is: "If I want to, I get to make the decisions." Cronbach's alpha was .75.

Risk-taking. Assessments of risk-taking used in past research involve either experimental tasks (Lejuez et al., 2002), vignettes and negotiations (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006), or measures specific to a particular domain, such as ethics, recreational activities, financial decisions, health, or sexual behaviors (Blais & Weber, 2006; Dohmen et al., 2011; Nicholson et al., 2005). However, risk-taking in those domains cannot easily be generalized to workplace contexts (Hanoch et al., 2006; Weber, 2010). In view of the inadequacy of prior measures in our context, we developed a measure that would adequately capture risk-taking in the workplace while avoiding any potential confounding overlap with creativity. Based on Sitkin and Pablo's (1992) theoretical framework of risk-taking and the relevant literature (March & Shapira, 1987; Nicholson et al., 2005), the first two authors generated a total of nine items in English to capture the attitudinal (i.e., willingness) and behavioral components of risk-taking. The scale was developed and validated following established practices (Hinkin, 1995, 1998), using data from three independent samples in the process. Table 1 presents an overview of the samples, including participants, sample size, and the measured variables.

TABLE 1 Overview of samples used in the risk-taking scale development process

Sample	N	Variables	Analysis	Participants	Location
1	312	Risk-taking (initial nine-item scale)	Phase 1: Item Reduction (EFA)	Full-time employees	China
2	443	Risk-taking (seven-item scale)	Phase 2: Psychometric Properties (CFA)	Full-time employees	China
3	586	Risk-taking (seven-item scale) Risk-taking (Andrews & Smith, 1996) Risk-taking (investment scenario) CWB	Phase 3: Convergent and Discriminant Validity	MTurk (employed adults)	USA

Abbreviations: CWB, counterproductive work behaviors.; OCB, organizational citizenship behavior.

Sample 1 included 312 full-time Chinese employees. Respondents participated voluntarily. All measures (rated on a seven-point Likert scale) were translated into Chinese following Brislin's (1980) translation and back-translation procedure. Sample 2 included 443 full-time Chinese employees (61% were male, mean age = 32.97 years, age $SD = 11.78$). Participation was voluntary. All measures (rated on a five-point Likert scale) were translated into Chinese following Brislin's (1980) translation and back-translation procedure. Sample 3 included 586 US participants recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk; 61.6% were male, mean age = 35.86 years, age $SD = 9.27$) (Buhrmester et al., 2011). We only allowed employed respondents to participate, as we deemed it necessary to validate our workplace risk-taking items using working adults. All measures were presented in the original English version.

With Sample 1, we performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the nine original risk-taking items, with principal axis factoring extraction and using an oblique rotation because we expected the two subscales (willingness to take risk and risk-taking behaviors) to be correlated (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). A comprehensive consideration of multiple sources of the information in EFA outputs—including the latent root criterion (i.e., extracting factors with eigenvalues higher than 1.0), the cumulative amount of variance explained (which should be higher than 60%), and the scree test (Hair et al., 2010)—pointed to the extraction of three factors: two consistent with our expectation, and an additional one featuring two items. Following Hinkin's (1998) suggestion, we dropped these two items¹ because, when we forced the extraction of two factors to represent willingness to take risk and risk-taking behaviors in line with our theoretical model, the two items originally loading on the third factor had little shared variance with the other items (extracted communalities were .04 and .05, respectively) and they featured unacceptable factor loadings (below .4) with both extracted factors, which instead mapped along the remaining items as predicted. We then reran the EFA with the remaining seven items, and the comprehensive considerations mentioned above (latent root criterion, scree test, total variance explained) pointed to the extraction of two factors (total variance explained = 60.30%). All seven items clearly loaded on the intended factor and had factor loadings larger than .4, as reported in Table 2. We therefore retained the seven items.

Using R lavaan, we performed a set of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) for the newly developed scales with Sample 2. Because willingness to take risk and risk-taking behaviors are two theoretical components constituting an overall risk-taking construct—the two components were highly correlated in both Sample 2 ($r = .59, p < .001$) and Sample 3 ($r = .68, p < .001$)—we conducted a second-order CFA with willingness to take risk and risk-taking behaviors as the first-order factors and overall risk-taking as the second-order factor. All items loaded on their intended factor and all loadings were higher than .6, and the two first-order factors were strongly correlated with the second-order factor (willingness to take risk: $r = .87$; risk-taking behaviors: $r = .92$). The model fit was acceptable ($\chi^2(12) = 60.46, p < .001, CFI = .96, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .10$).² Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha of the overall seven-item

TABLE 2 Exploratory factor analysis results (risk-taking scale validation, sample 1)

Items	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Risk-taking behaviors		
1. I engage in activities with uncertain outcomes.	.06	.61
2. I embrace decision goals that are difficult to achieve.	.03	.70
3. I pursue activities that could generate extreme outcomes.	.08	.60
4. I engage in riskier activities compared to my colleagues.	.28	.41
Willingness to take risk		
5. I am willing to take risks in making decisions.	.74	.13
6. I am willing to take risks while performing tasks.	.89	.09
7. I am more willing to take risks than my colleagues.	.61	.13

Note: $n = 312$. In the survey instructions, items were introduced with “In my current job...”

scale was .84, supporting the use of the entire risk-taking scale as a higher-order construct with two subdimensions (willingness and behaviors). Therefore, we adopted the seven-item risk-taking scale in our analysis.

Next, we examined the nomological network of the newly developed risk-taking scale with Sample 3. To test convergent validity, we used Andrews and Smith's (1996) three-item scale, which measures risk-taking attitudes in the context of marketing a new product (a sample item is “I like to play it safe when I'm developing ideas to market this product”; Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$). This scale and our newly developed scale were positively correlated ($r = .53$, $p < .001$) but distinct, as a CFA of the scale items showed that a two-factor model with our scale and theirs fit the data significantly better than a one-factor model did ($\Delta\chi^2(20) = 211.71$, $p < .001$).

We also assessed risk-taking specifically in a financial decision-making scenario. We instructed the participants to make investment decisions by answering two questions.³ The participants' answers to the questions were both positively correlated with our developed scale ($r = .17$, $p < .001$ and $r = .27$, $p < .001$, respectively), but less strongly than with the scale by Andrew and Smith (1996). That was expected, because financial risk-taking should not be as relevant to risk-taking at work as the risk-taking measure for marketing a new product.

To test discriminant validity, we asked participants to rate counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), which we measured with a 12-item scale adopted from Bennett and Robinson (2000) (measured on a five-point Likert scale from *never* to *every day*; a sample item is “I came in late without permission”; Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$). We expected CWB to be positively related to risk-taking, because when workers engage in deviant behaviors—e.g., stealing materials from the organization or not respecting work shifts—they put themselves at risk of receiving reprimands and punishments (Penney & Spector, 2005). Nonetheless, we did not expect a strong correlation because CWB and risk-taking are distinct constructs. Results showed that CWB indeed had a small positive correlation with our risk-taking scale ($r = .22$, $p < .001$). A CFA showed that a two-factor model with risk-taking and CWB fit the data significantly better than a one-factor model did ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1863.10$, $p < .001$), supporting the discriminant validity of our risk-taking measure. In Study 1, we thus measured risk-taking with the newly developed seven-item scale. The scale exhibited great reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$).

Perspective taking. Respondents reported their perspective taking at work with the four-item scale from Grant and Berry (2011). A sample item is: “I regularly seek to understand others' viewpoints.” Cronbach's alpha was .95.

Creativity. Coworkers rated the focal participants' creativity at work using the four-item scale from Farmer et al. (2003). A sample item is “This coworker seeks new ideas and ways to solve problems.” Cronbach's alpha was .93. Each nominated coworker was knowledgeable about the focal participant's daily work and was thus well situated to eval-

uate the participant's creativity. Peer-rated creativity has commonly been used as an alternative to or in conjunction with supervisor-rated creativity (e.g., Amabile et al., 2004; Harris et al., 2014).

Controls. We controlled for basic demographic information, including education and organizational tenure (measured in months), because these variables affect experience, knowledge, and skills, which in turn influence creativity (Amabile et al., 1996; Simonton, 2017). We did not control for age because of potential collinearity with organizational tenure.⁴ We also controlled for gender, because creativity could be more strongly attributed to masculine attributes, and thus a focal person's gender may affect others' ratings of his or her creativity (Proudfoot et al., 2015). Moreover, to check the predictive validity of sense of power above and beyond objective power, we controlled for the participants' rank as a measure of objective power in an organization (Gong et al., 2009). To assess objective power consistently across the whole sample, we asked the participants to report whether they had employees working under them, and accordingly we computed a binary variable (i.e., whether the participants held or did not hold a supervisory role). Finally, we controlled for the relationship quality between the participants and their coworker-raters, as reported by the coworkers (sample item: "How would you describe your relationship with [participant name]?" rated on a scale from 1 = *acquaintance* to 5 = *very close friend*), because the halo effect could cause the quality of that relationship to influence coworkers' evaluations of the participants (Allen & Rush, 1998; Landy & Farr, 1980).

3.1.3 | Analytical strategy

One of the authors checked the backgrounds of the MBA participants and ascertained that they were from different firms, so the data were not nested. We therefore ran linear regressions with R lavaan to simultaneously test the mediations of risk-taking and perspective taking in the relationship between sense of power and coworker-rated creativity. Using those results, we computed with R semTools 5000-bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (CIs), which we used to test our mediation hypotheses (Mackinnon et al., 2004). In addition, we checked the total indirect effect through risk-taking and perspective taking together to check whether either path was dominant. Significance was indicated by the CI not containing zero (Liu et al., 2012).

3.2 | Results and discussion

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics, scale reliabilities, and correlations among the variables. Table 4 presents the regression results. As expected, sense of power related positively to risk-taking ($b = .40, SE = .11, p < .001$) and negatively to perspective taking ($b = -.37, SE = .12, p = .003$). Both risk-taking ($b = .15, SE = .07, p = .03$) and perspective taking ($b = .31, SE = .06, p < .001$) were positively related to creativity. The bootstrapping results showed that the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via risk-taking was positive ($b = .06$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.004, .130]), thus supporting Hypothesis 1. The indirect relationship between the sense of power and creativity via perspective taking was negative ($b = -.11$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.211, -.036]), thereby supporting Hypothesis 2. The total indirect relationship through risk-taking and perspective taking was not significant ($b = -.05$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.169, .052]). As a robustness check, we re-tested the models after excluding the control variables and all the hypothesized relationships remained supported.

The results from Study 1 thus showed support for the countervailing mechanisms—risk-taking and perspective taking—linking sense of power and creativity. In Study 2 we extend Study 1 by testing the moderated mediation proposed in Hypotheses 3 and 4 and we cross-check the results of Study 1, which are based on coworker-rated creativity, by using supervisor-rated creativity. Moreover, we test our hypotheses measuring creativity with a more context-sensitive measure. We also replicate the mediation relationships by testing them in a sales context.

TABLE 3 Descriptive statistics, zero-order correlations, and reliabilities (Study 1)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	.44	.50	—								
2. Education	3.20	0.60	−.02	—							
3. Organizational tenure ^a	80.37	153.58	.09	−.13 [†]	—						
4. Rank	.36	.48	.10	.12 [†]	.17 [*]	—					
5. Relationship quality	3.41	1.17	−.03	−.08	.06	.04	—				
6. Sense of power	3.31	0.47	.05	.07	.11	.33 ^{***}	.13 [†]	.75			
7. Risk-taking	2.76	0.72	.13 [†]	.23 ^{***}	.10	.20 ^{***}	.17 [*]	.31 ^{***}	.89		
8. Perspective taking	3.77	0.76	.08	−.06	.07	−.11	.12	−.24 ^{**}	.11	.95	
9. Creativity	3.96	0.70	−.03	.11	−.00	.09	.26 ^{***}	.27 ^{***}	.31 ^{***}	.29 ^{***}	.93

Notes: n = 181. The reliabilities of the scales are in bold and are noted on the diagonal. Gender: female = 0, male = 1. Education: high school = 1, junior college = 2, bachelor's degree = 3, master's degree or above = 4. Rank: non-supervisor = 0, supervisor = 1. Relationship quality: acquaintance = 1, know him/her well = 2, friend = 3, good friend = 4, very close friend = 5.

^aMeasured in months.
[†] $p < .10$; $*$ $p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$.

TABLE 4 Hierarchical regression results (Study 1)

	Risk-taking			Perspective taking			Creativity		
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	SE		B	SE		B	SE	
Intercept	1.97 ^{***}	(.40)		.49	(.56)		3.33 ^{***}	(.44)	
Gender	.17	(.10)		.16	(.10)		.14	(.11)	
Education	.27 ^{**}	(.09)		.26 ^{**}	(.08)		-.04	(.09)	
Organizational tenure	.00	(.00)		.00	(.00)		.00	(.00)	
Rank	.21 [†]	(.11)		.09	(.11)		-.20 [†]	(.12)	
Relationship quality				—	—		—	—	
Sense of power				.40 ^{***}	(.11)		-.37 ^{**}	(.12)	
Risk-taking									
Perspective taking									
R ²	.10			.16			.03		
							.08		
							.06		
							.14		
							.24		
							.15 [*]		
							.31 ^{***}		
							.31 ^{***}		
							.14		
							.06		
							.14		
							.24		

Notes: n = 181. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; non-binary independent variables were grand mean centered; standard error estimates are in parentheses. Gender: female = 0, male = 1. Education: high school = 1, junior college = 2, bachelor's degree = 3, master's degree or above = 4. Rank: non-supervisor = 0, supervisor = 1. Relationship quality: acquaintance = 1, know him/her well = 2, friend = 3, good friend = 4, very close friend = 5.

[†] $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$.

4 | STUDY 2

4.1 | Methods

4.1.1 | Sample and procedure

We collected data in 2020 from a branded company that operates more than 200 stores in the eastern and southern parts of China. The primary business of the company is selling clothing, leather products, bags, and suitcases. All stores operating under this brand have the same hierarchical structure, with one store manager supervising up to 10 store employees. All the stores are managed by the headquarters, following standard human resource practices (e.g., sales rewards) and corporate culture. This organizational structure allowed us to minimize firm- and store-level extraneous influences.

Supervisors and employees who agreed to participate in our study provided contact information and were sent questionnaires directly. At Time 1, employees reported their sense of power and demographic information. At Time 2 (approximately 2 months later), employees self-reported perspective taking, risk-taking, openness to experience,⁵ and leader-member exchange (LMX), and supervisors rated employees' individual creativity. All participants were informed that participation was voluntary, that their responses were for academic research only and would not be shared with anyone outside the research team, and that no information in the publication could identify any specific individual. We matched responses from different sources and different times through a roster provided by the organization, which was then destroyed.

We obtained access to 85 stores and distributed questionnaires to all their 204 employees. We received completed questionnaires from 161 employees at Time 1. Of these, 133 employees completed the Time 2 questionnaires. Data from five employees were removed because we did not receive a measure of their creativity rated by direct supervisors. Therefore, our final sample included 128 employees with matched supervisor ratings of their creativity. The participants in the final sample were all female, had high school or junior college education, and their average age was 33.35 years old. The supervisors were all female and had the same educational level because they had been internally promoted from salesperson positions. We checked for non-respondent bias and found that Time 2 respondents and nonrespondents did not differ in their organizational tenure ($t(159) = -.75, p = .45$) or sense of power ($t(159) = .67, p = .50$). Employees in the final sample and those missing Time 3 supervisor-rated creativity did not differ in their risk-taking ($t(131) = 1.21, p = .23$) or perspective taking ($t(131) = 1.17, p = .24$).

4.1.2 | Measures

We used Chinese scales when available and back-translated other scales between English and Chinese (Brislin, 1980). Participants and supervisors responded on five-point Likert scales. We used the same scales as in Study 1 to measure the participants' sense of power (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$), risk-taking (Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$), and perspective taking (Cronbach's $\alpha = .96$). Openness was measured with the 10-item scale from John and Srivastava (1999). A sample item is "I see myself as someone who is curious about many different things." Cronbach's alpha was .87.

As in Study 1, we controlled for the participants' organizational tenure (measured in years) and the quality of the supervisor-employee relationships to account for potential biases in supervisor-rated creativity. Relationship quality was assessed with Scandura and Graen's (1984) seven-item LMX scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). Because of the sample's characteristics—all female employees with very similar educational levels and the same rank—we did not include gender, education, or rank as controls.

Creativity. Study 2 was conducted in sales contexts. After in-depth discussions with the company involved, we deemed it desirable to capture creativity in the sales context in a more nuanced way than existing scales would allow.

TABLE 5 Exploratory factor analysis results (creativity scale validation)

Items	Factor loading
1. Work is creative. ^a	.80
2. Work is original and practical. ^a	.77
3. Work is adaptive and practical. ^a	.61
4. Uses creativity to acquire new customers.	.86
5. Uses creativity to maintain the loyalty of current customers.	.84
6. Comes up with creative means and channels to sell products.	.89
7. Comes up with new and useful methods for promotions and sales.	.87
8. Suggests customized and personalized product packages for different customers.	.80
9. Suggests novel and practical ways to manage the store inventory.	.81
10. Utilizes new and appropriate ways to manage after-sales services.	.85

Notes: $n = 128$. In the survey instructions, items were introduced with "This person('s)..."

^aFrom Oldham and Cummings' (1996) creativity measure.

In line with the extant literature (e.g., Gong et al., 2009), to ensure that we would capture creativity both specifically to the sales context and generally, we decided to integrate an existing generic creativity scale—the three-item measure from Oldham and Cummings (1996)—with additional items that would capture creativity specifically in the sales context. As a first step, the second and third authors performed focus group interviews with employees and supervisors in three of the company's stores, asking what they considered to be examples of creativity in their jobs. The focus group interview led to seven items that were combined with the three existing items to form a 10-item scale.

Using the Study 2 sample, we performed an EFA on the 10-item creativity scale. We used principal axis factoring. The EFA results suggested one factor with an eigenvalue above 1.0, explaining 69.29% of the variance. The scree plot line steeply veered and then leveled off after extracting one factor. The factor loadings, reported in Table 5, were all larger than .6, well above the .4 threshold. Thus, all items were retained within a one-factor structure.

To provide additional evidence to validate the new scale, we recruited an additional sample of salespersons using a snowball sampling method, and we asked them to rate their own creativity with the 10 items. We contacted 10 salespersons whose work was to sell clothes or home decorations in different companies as an initial data source. They—and the subsequent participants—were asked to nominate individuals who performed the same type of jobs to participate in this study. The sample size continuously increased until it reached the recommended standard for factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998; Hoelter, 1983). There were 216 participants in the snowball sample (75.9% were female, mean age = 35.04 years, age $SD = 9.28$). We conducted CFA on this sample to examine whether the 10 items adequately represented one construct. Most fit indices suggested that the single-factor model adequately fit the data ($\chi^2(35) = 225.28, p < .001$, CFI = .94, TLI = .92, SRMR = .02, RMSEA = .16). We acknowledged that sometimes RMSEA and CFI give different indications of model fit and a subpar RMSEA in one sample does not preclude the validity of a scale (Lai & Green, 2016), especially as CFI and SRMR are more informative in the context of CFA (Shi et al., 2022).

The factor loadings of the items were very high—all were above .88. We concluded that the 10 items could be combined to create an overarching scale to measure creativity in the sales context.

To further validate the 10-item scale and to show its convergence with Farmer et al. (2003) four-item creativity scale used in Study 1, we recruited two additional samples via Prolific (Palan & Schitter, 2018): one of salespersons ($n = 249$, $M_{age} = 38.18$, $SD_{age} = 11.75$, 56% female), and the other of sales supervisors ($n = 250$, $M_{age} = 38.37$, $SD_{age} = 11.11$, 50% female). We specifically sampled salespersons to ensure that the scale items would be meaningful to participants. These participants were asked to rate others' creativity (a coworker in the case of the salespersons sample, and a subordinate in the case of the sales supervisors sample). We first tested the validity of the 10-item scale with CFA. In both sales samples, the one-factor models for the ratings of others' creativity had an acceptable-to-good

fit to the data (sales employee sample: $\chi^2(35) = 82.97, p < .001, CFI = .97, TLI = .97, SRMR = .03, RMSEA = .07$; sales supervisor sample: $\chi^2(35) = 59.58, p = .006, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, SRMR = .03, RMSEA = .05$). These results supported the validity of our new scale for creativity.

Then, we checked whether the new scale and the four-item scale used in Study 1 exhibited convergent validity. The two scales were highly correlated in both samples ($r = .90, p < .001$ in the employee sample and $r = .82, p < .001$ in the supervisor sample). Moreover, CFA results in both samples suggested that a one-factor model with all 14 items (the four items in Study 1 creativity scale plus the ten items in the new creativity scale) had an acceptable fit to the data (sales employee sample: $\chi^2(77) = 200.24, p < .001, CFI = .95, TLI = .95, SRMR = .03, RMSEA = .08$; sales supervisor sample: $\chi^2(77) = 186.58, p < .001, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .08$), and a two-factor model (separating the Study 1 scale and the new scale) did not fit significantly better (sales employee sample: $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 2.33, p = .13$; sales supervisor sample: $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 2.34, p = .13$). The Fornell and Larcker (1981) test also suggested that the two scales were not distinct, as in both samples the average variance extracted (.600 and .526, respectively) was lower than the squared correlation of the two factors (.815 and .677, respectively). These results support the convergent validity of the two scales. Based on all these results, we measured supervisor-rated employee creativity with the newly developed and validated 10-item scale in Study 2. The scale exhibited excellent reliability in Study 2 (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$).

4.1.3 | Analytical strategy

Because our data were nested within stores, we employed the “cluster” and “type = complex” Mplus syntax to analyze the data (Muthén & Muthén, 2016). In this way, we accounted for the multilevel nature of our data (i.e., employees nested in stores and thus sharing a supervisor), as the standard errors were adjusted using a sandwich estimator (Liu et al., 2015; Rogers, 1993; White, 1980). We simultaneously ran regressions on each of the two mediators with the control variables and sense of power and on the dependent variable with all predictors to check for mediation. Then, we added openness and the interaction term as predictors in the simultaneous regressions on each mediator and on the dependent variable to check the moderated mediation. We grand-mean centered sense of power and openness to avoid collinearity issues in the estimation of interaction effects (Dalal & Zickar, 2012). To test the hypotheses, we estimated 5000-bootstrap 95% CIs in the mediation and moderated mediation indices based on the regression results using R MASS (Preacher & Selig, 2012).

4.2 | Results and discussion

Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics, scale reliabilities, and correlations among the variables. The regression results in Table 7 show that sense of power was positively related to risk-taking ($\gamma = .40, SE = .08, p < .001$) and negatively related to perspective taking ($\gamma = -.30, SE = .10, p = .002$). Moreover, both risk-taking ($\gamma = .26, SE = .10, p = .01$) and perspective taking ($\gamma = .17, SE = .06, p = .007$) were positively related to creativity, in line with our theorization. The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via risk-taking was positive and significant ($\gamma = .10$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.018, .212]), supporting Hypothesis 1. The indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via perspective taking was negative and significant ($\gamma = -.05$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.105, -.010]), supporting Hypothesis 2. The total indirect relationship through risk-taking and perspective taking together was not significant ($\gamma = .05$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.048, .162]).

The moderation of openness on the relationship between sense of power and risk-taking was significant ($\gamma = .38, SE = .12, p = .001$), and the interaction pattern is depicted in Figure 2a. The relationship between sense of power

TABLE 6 Descriptive statistics, zero-order correlations, and reliabilities (Study 2)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Organizational tenure ^a	3.24	2.54	—						
2. LMX	3.43	0.54	.15 [†]	.86					
3. Sense of power	2.45	.63	.00	.11	.92				
4. Openness	3.23	0.43	.02	.35 ^{***}	−.09	.87			
5. Risk-taking	2.90	0.54	.07	.16 [†]	.47 ^{***}	.19 [*]	.85		
6. Perspective taking	3.39	0.78	.17 [†]	.11	−.24 ^{**}	.36 ^{***}	.09	.96	
7. Creativity	3.72	0.51	.12	.10	.11	.23 ^{**}	.32 ^{***}	.29 ^{**}	.95

Notes: $n = 128$. The reliabilities of the scales are in bold and are noted on the diagonal.

Abbreviation: LMX, leader–member exchange.

^aMeasured in years.

[†] $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$.

and risk-taking was positive both when openness was high (1 *SD* above mean; $\gamma = .59$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$) and when it was low (1 *SD* below mean; $\gamma = .27$, $SE = .08$, $p = .001$), but it was significantly stronger in the former than in the latter case. Consistently, the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via risk-taking was positive when openness was high ($\gamma = .17$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.034, .305]) and marginally positive when openness was low ($\gamma = .08$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.002, .154]). Overall, the moderation of openness in the indirect relationship through risk-taking was significant ($\gamma = .11$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.023, .227]), supporting Hypothesis 3.

The moderation of openness on the relationship between sense of power and perspective taking was also significant ($\gamma = .44$, $SE = .17$, $p = .011$), and the interaction pattern is depicted in Figure 2b. The relationship between sense of power and perspective taking was negative when openness was low ($\gamma = -.43$, $SE = .14$, $p = .002$) and nonsignificant when openness was high ($\gamma = -.06$, $SE = .10$, $p = .55$). The indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via perspective taking was marginally negative when openness was low ($\gamma = -.12$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.259, .011]) and not significant when openness was high ($\gamma = -.02$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.103, .069]). The indirect relationship was significantly moderated by openness ($\gamma = .07$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.008, .152]), supporting Hypothesis 4.

The total indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity, including both paths through risk-taking and perspective taking, was marginally positive when openness was high ($\gamma = .15$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.004, .309]) and not significant when openness was low ($\gamma = -.05$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.176, .080]). Openness moderated the total indirect relationship between the sense of power and creativity through risk-taking and perspective taking together ($\gamma = .18$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.069, .333]), suggesting that the total indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity is more positive when the focal person's openness to experience is higher (vs. lower). As a robustness check, we re-tested the models after excluding the control variables and all the hypothesized relationships remained supported.

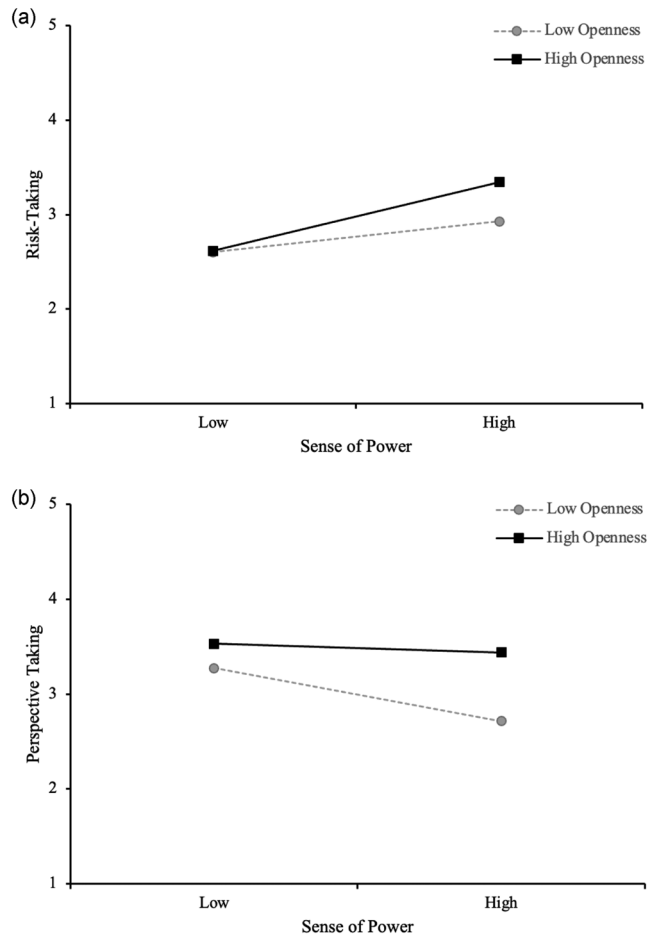
The results of Study 2 were in line with our hypotheses and with Study 1: Risk-taking and perspective taking paradoxically mediated the relationship between sense of power and creativity—the former positively and the latter negatively—and openness to experience amplified the pathway through risk-taking and weakens the one through perspective taking, overall making the indirect relationship more positive. In addition, we generalized our findings to a different organizational context—sales. With Study 3 we further test our hypotheses, and extend our findings by measuring perspective taking rated by coworkers—rather than by the self—to mitigate concerns about potential self-reporting biases.

TABLE 7 Multilevel hierarchical regression results (Study 2)

	Risk-taking			Perspective taking			Creativity		
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	SE		B	SE		B	SE	
Intercept	2.85***	(.07)		2.85***	(.07)		3.22***	(.10)	3.22***
Organization tenure	.02	(.01)		.02	(.01)		.05*	(.02)	.06**
LMX	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sense of power (SOP)	.40***	(.08)		.43***	(.08)		-.30***	(.10)	-.25*
Openness				.28*	(.12)			(.16)	.60***
SOP × openness				.38*	(.12)			(.17)	.44*
Risk-taking									
Perspective taking									
R ²	.23			.35			.09		.24
							.03		.15
									.20

Notes: n = 128. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. SOP and openness were grand mean centered.
Abbreviations: LMX, leader-member exchange.
† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

FIGURE 2 (a) Simple slopes for the moderation of openness to experience on the relationship between sense of power and risk-taking (Study 2). (b) Simple slopes for the moderation of openness to experience on the relationship between sense of power and perspective taking (Study 2)



5 | STUDY 3

5.1 | Methods

5.1.1 | Sample and procedure

For our Study 3, in 2021 we collected data from a branded company in China, the primary business of which is selling jewelry. All stores operating under this brand are consistently managed by the headquarters, following the same hierarchical structure, human resources practices (e.g., sales rewards), and corporate culture. Supervisors and employees who agreed to participate in our study provided their contact information, and we sent questionnaires to them directly. At Time 1, employees reported their sense of power, openness to experience, and demographic information. At Time 2 (approximately one month later), employees answered questions regarding their own risk-taking and their team members' perspective taking. At Time 3 (1 month after Time 2), employees rated their LMX, while supervisors rated employees' individual creativity. All participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, that their responses were for academic research only and would not be shared with anyone outside the research team, and that no information in the publication of this research could lead to the identification of any specific individual. We followed the same procedure as in the previous studies to match the responses from different sources (employees and managers), at different times, and with different targets (e.g., team members' measures of others' perspective taking).

We obtained access to 34 stores and distributed questionnaires to all 222 employees at all time points. We received completed questionnaires from 189 employees at Time 1 and from 175 of those employees at Time 2. Of the latter, 158 responded at Time 3. Data from one employee were removed because we did not receive any rating of that employee's perspective taking by any team member, and data from four additional employees were removed because we did not receive supervisors' ratings of their creativity. Therefore, our final sample included 153 employees with matched supervisor ratings of their creativity and team members' ratings of their perspective taking. Twenty percent of the employees were male, their average age was 33.70 years, and 41% had a high school diploma, 36% had a junior college degree, and 8% had at least a bachelor's degree. We checked for potential nonrespondent bias and found that Time 2 respondents and nonrespondents did not differ significantly in terms of gender ($t(187) = -0.11, p = .91$), organizational tenure ($t(187) = -1.46, p = .15$), sense of power ($t(187) = -1.50, p = .14$), or openness ($t(187) = .04, p = .97$), whereas nonrespondents were marginally more educated than respondents ($t(187) = 1.88, p = .06$).⁶ Moreover, Time 3 respondents and nonrespondents—for the rating of LMX—did not differ in risk-taking ($t(173) = .41, p = .68$) or other-rated perspective taking ($t(172) = -.67, p = .51$), nor did those who received a supervisor rating of creativity and those who did not (risk-taking: $t(173) = 1.45, p = .15$; other-rated perspective taking: $t(172) = -.75, p = .46$).

5.1.2 | Measures and analytical strategy

Employees responded on five-point Likert scales to the items that were used in the previous studies, and supervisors rated employees' creativity with the same 10-item scale as in Study 2. The scales measuring sense of power (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$), openness (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$), risk-taking (Cronbach's $\alpha = .78$), and supervisor-rated creativity (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$) exhibited good-to-excellent reliability. We adopted a round-robin approach (Joshi, 2014; Klein et al., 2004) to measure other-rated perspective taking. Based on the roster, we customized the questionnaires and asked participants to rate the perspective taking of each of their teammates. For example, in a four-member team, member A rated the three other team members, B, C, and D; member B rated A, C, and D; and so on. Hence, A received ratings from B, C, and D; B received ratings from A, C, and D; and so on. Then, the ratings of a focal employee (e.g., A) provided by teammates (e.g., B, C, and D) were averaged to compute the focal employee's (e.g., A's) perspective taking. With the round-robin dyadic-level raw scores, we examined within-individual interrater agreement ($r_{wg(j)}$), the intra-class correlation (ICC1), and the reliability of the team mean (ICC2). These values, reported and described in Appendix B, suggested that multiple teammates' ratings of a focal employee could be aggregated to the focal employee level. Then, we tested our hypotheses at the employee level, at which point we controlled for participants' gender, education, organizational tenure (measured in months), and relationship quality with their supervisor (LMX, Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$), as in previous studies. The analytical strategy was akin to that employed in Study 2.

5.2 | Results and discussion

Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics, scale reliabilities, and correlations among the variables. The regression results, presented in Table 9, were consistent with previous studies and the hypotheses: Sense of power was positively related to risk-taking ($\gamma = .34, SE = .07, p < .001$) and negatively related to perspective taking ($\gamma = -.32, SE = .06, p < .001$), and both risk-taking ($\gamma = .45, SE = .09, p < .001$) and perspective taking ($\gamma = .66, SE = .17, p < .001$) were positively related to creativity. The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via risk-taking was positive ($\gamma = .15$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.078, .238]), supporting Hypothesis 1. The indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via perspective taking was negative ($\gamma = -.21$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.382, -.087]), supporting Hypothesis 2. The overall indirect relationship through risk-taking and perspective taking together was not significant ($\gamma = -.06$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.227, .093]).

TABLE 8 Descriptive statistics, zero-order correlations, and reliabilities (Study 3)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	.08	.27	—								
2. Education	1.58	0.64	.08	—							
3. Organizational tenure ^a	44.84	41.30	−.14 [†]	−.11	—						
4. LMX	3.80	0.61	.03	.03	.02	.92					
5. Sense of power	3.05	0.54	.16 [†]	.06	−.01	.12	.80				
6. Openness	3.41	0.62	.06	.04	.05	.15 [†]	.08	.91			
7. Risk-taking	2.80	0.52	.32 ^{***}	.07	−.05	.02	.39 ^{***}	.17 [*]	.78		
8. Perspective taking	3.79	0.41	−.12	.05	−.10	.15 [†]	−.43 ^{***}	.15 [†]	−.15 [†]	.98 ^b	
9. Creativity	3.44	0.51	.18 [*]	.07	−.08	.11	.00	.55 ^{***}	.50 ^{***}	.54 ^{***}	.90

Notes *n* = 153. The reliabilities of the scales are in bold and are noted on the diagonal. Gender: female = 0, male = 1. Education: high school = 1, junior college = 2, bachelor's degree = 3, master's degree or above = 4.

^aMeasured in months.

^bThe reliability of perspective taking was computed based on the dyad-level (round-robin) raw scores (*n* = 982).

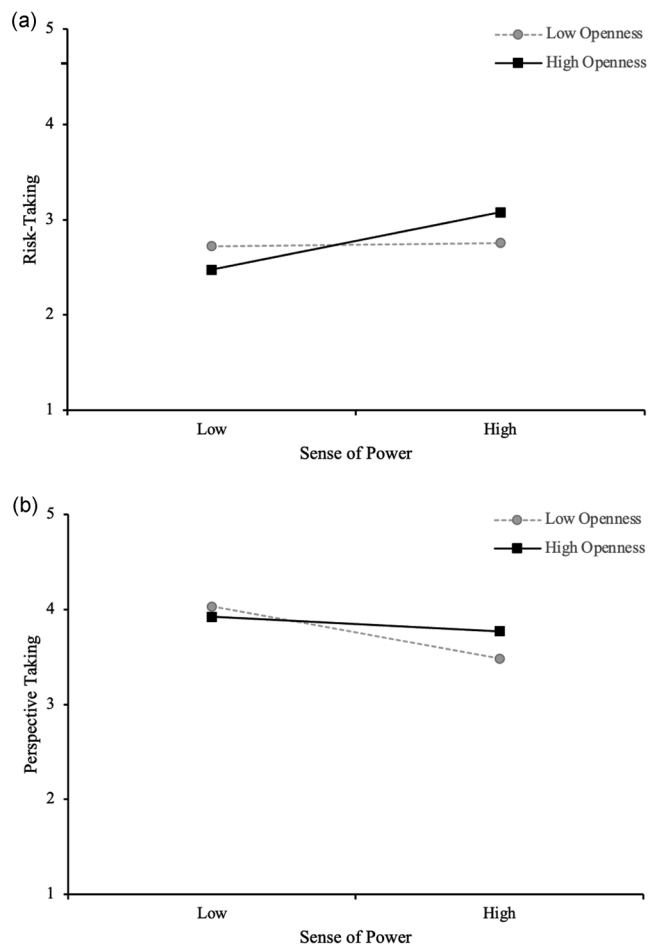
[†] *p* < .10; * *p* < .05; *** *p* < .001.

TABLE 9 Multilevel hierarchical regression results (Study 3)

	Risk-taking				Perspective taking				Creativity					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Intercept	2.72 ^{***}	(.11)	2.76 ^{***}	(.10)	3.77 ^{***}	(.09)	3.80 ^{***}	(.09)	3.15 ^{***}	(.29)	−.27	(.55)	−.02	(.51)
Gender	.52 ^{***}	(.12)	.55 ^{***}	(.11)	−.11	(.10)	−.09	(.10)	.40 [†]	(.21)	.23	(.18)	.14	(.14)
Education	.03	(.06)	−.01	(.06)	.05	(.05)	.02	(.05)	.03	(.08)	−.01	(.07)	.02	(.07)
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.00	(.00)	−.00	(.00)	−.00	(.00)	.00	(.00)	.00	(.00)	.00	(.00)
LMX	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	.04	(.07)	−.04	(.06)	−.09	(.07)
Sense of power (SOP)	.34 ^{***}	(.07)	.31 ^{***}	(.08)	−.32 ^{***}	(.06)	−.35 ^{***}	(.05)	−.05	(.09)	.02	(.14)	.02	(.10)
Openness			.03	(.08)			.07	(.05)			−	−	.41 ^{***}	(.07)
SOP× openness			.47 [*]	(.21)			.32 ^{**}	(.12)			−	−	−.49 [*]	(.17)
Risk-taking											.45 ^{***}	(.09)	.46 ^{***}	(.09)
Perspective taking											.66 ^{***}	(.17)	.64 ^{***}	(.14)
R ²	.22		.29		.20		.28		.03		.30		.45	

Notes: n = 153. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. SOP and openness were grand mean centered. Gender: female = 0, male = 1. Education: high school = 1, junior college = 2, bachelor's degree = 3, master's degree or above = 4. Abbreviation: LMX, leader–member exchange. [†] $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$.

FIGURE 3 (a) Simple slopes for the moderation of openness to experience on the relationship between sense of power and risk-taking (Study 3). (b) Simple slopes for the moderation of openness to experience on the relationship between sense of power and perspective taking (Study 3)



The moderating effect of openness on the relationship between sense of power and risk-taking was significant ($\gamma = .47$, $SE = .21$, $p = .023$). The simple slopes representing the interaction pattern are shown in Figure 3a. The relationship between sense of power and risk-taking was positive when openness was high ($\gamma = .59$, $SE = .18$, $p = .001$) and not significant when openness was low ($\gamma = .02$, $SE = .12$, $p = .872$). Consistently, the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via risk-taking was positive when openness was high ($\gamma = .27$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.086, .462]) and not significant when openness was low ($\gamma = .01$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.112, .129]). The moderating effect of openness on the indirect relationship through risk-taking was significant ($\gamma = .21$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.030, .419]), supporting Hypothesis 3.

The moderating effect of openness on the relationship between sense of power and perspective taking was also significant ($\gamma = .32$, $SE = .12$, $p = .008$). The simple slopes are shown in Figure 3b. The relationship between sense of power and perspective taking was negative when openness was low ($\gamma = -.55$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$) and not significant when openness was high ($\gamma = -.15$, $SE = .09$, $p = .10$). The indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity via perspective taking was negative when openness was low ($\gamma = -.25$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.412, −.092]) and not significant when openness was high ($\gamma = -.07$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.153, .017]). The indirect relationship was significantly moderated by openness ($\gamma = .20$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.048, .416]), supporting Hypothesis 4.

The total indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity, including the two paths through risk-taking and perspective taking, was positive when openness was high ($\gamma = .21$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.005, .407]) and negative when openness was low ($\gamma = -.24$, bootstrapped 95% CI [−.435, −.052]). Openness moderated the total indirect

relationship between sense of power and creativity through risk-taking and perspective taking together ($\gamma = .41$, 95% bootstrapped CI [.161, .730]). This suggests that the indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity was more positive when the focal person's openness was high than when it was low. As a robustness check, we re-tested the models after excluding the control variables and all the hypothesized relationships remained supported.

The results of Study 3, in line with those from previous studies, supported our hypotheses: Sense of power enhanced individuals' creativity by increasing their risk-taking, while at the same time reducing it by limiting their perspective taking. As predicted, openness amplified the positive pathway and weakened the negative one, making the former dominant over the latter.

6 | GENERAL DISCUSSION

In the current research, we investigated and tested countervailing mechanisms linking sense of power and creativity. Although the two proposed mechanisms rest on existing theoretical arguments, juxtaposing the negative mechanism (i.e., sense of power reduces creativity by hindering perspective taking) with the positive mechanism (i.e., sense of power enhances creativity by boosting risk-taking) in a single model allowed us to integrate existing conceptual insights and to directly expose the double-edged-sword nature of sense of power in predicting creativity (Fleischmann et al., 2019; Hirsh et al., 2011; Lammers et al., 2010). Our theoretical arguments are at the same time embedded in and extending theories of power (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Smith, 2013).

6.1 | Implications for theory and research

Building on the countervailing mechanisms, we extend the literature by identifying openness as a pivotal boundary condition that can determine the relative importance of the underlying positive and negative forces linking sense of power and creativity. The new insight is that high levels of openness increase the relative magnitude of the positive pathway over the negative pathway. The higher the level of one's openness, the more likely that the pathway through risk-taking overshadows—or is not dominated by—the one through perspective taking, thus resulting in sense of power exerting a more positive impact on creativity overall. This insight provides an explanation for the divergent predictions regarding the relationship between sense of power and creativity embedded in extant theory. In this way, we elaborate and extend the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Smith, 2013). Although power theories have hinted that personality might moderate the effects of power, we have known little about which personality traits would in practice exert this moderating effect by favoring or hindering approach- and inhibition-oriented actions in a given context. Our research identifies openness as a prime personality boundary condition of the indirect effects of sense of power on creativity, because it synergizes with power in incentivizing risk-taking—fostering an approach orientation—but misaligns with power in affecting perspective taking—hampering an inhibition orientation.

A more incremental contribution is that our results point to a paradoxical indirect relationship between sense of power and creativity. Whereas the two indirect links have been implicitly suggested by past research (Dewett, 2007; Galinsky et al., 2015; Keltner et al., 2003), we contribute to the literature by testing them simultaneously and assessing their relative strengths, finding them to be of comparable magnitude. This finding responds to the scholarly call to extend paradox theory from the organizational to the individual level (Waldman et al., 2019) and opens new avenues for applying a paradox theory lens to the study of sense of power and creativity in organizations. In this way, our study goes beyond extant research on the indirect link between sense of power and creativity—which has tested mechanisms going in the same direction (e.g., Zhou & He, 2020)—by testing countervailing mechanisms, thereby explicitly demonstrating the paradoxical nature of this relationship.

Finally, our study offers broader implications for research on sense of power in organizational contexts above and beyond the study of creativity. Indeed, other outcomes may be similarly affected by sense of power through the mechanisms we have analyzed. In particular, sense of power may impact workplace outcomes such as job performance and effectiveness via risk-taking and/or perspective taking in jobs where risk-taking is key—such as in the financial domain (Kirchler et al., 2018)—and in jobs that require perspective taking—such as customer relations (Parker & Axtell, 2001). Even more importantly, by highlighting the paradoxical effects of sense of power on relevant organizational outcomes, we extend approach-inhibition theory and other theories of power and show the previously disregarded dark side of sense of power. Identifying openness to experience as a lever that might pull one or the other path into the spotlight further contributes to the literature. For instance, sense of power could be linked to better job performance when combined with higher levels of openness that mitigate the reduction in perspective taking and amplify the increase in risk-taking in contexts such as R&D and sales.

6.2 | Implications for practice

Our findings offer useful managerial implications. Managers should be aware of the nuanced relationship between sense of power and creativity, as a strong sense of power leads to less perspective taking and, in turn, can decrease creativity. This is particularly important when employees work in teams, as communication and mutual understanding are key to smooth team functioning. Reducing perspective taking might compromise not only individual creativity, but also other potential performance outcomes at individual and team levels by exacerbating conflict and impairing information elaboration. We thus recommend that managers complement the eventual measures they take to enhance employees' sense of power with measures aimed at boosting perspective taking, especially in contexts where obtaining information and perspectives from others is key.

Second, managers should be aware that sense of power has a positive impact on creativity through risk-taking, and more so when the focal individual has high levels of openness. Thus, managers should ensure that increased risk-taking is desirable for the organization and is in line with its mission and operations. Enhanced risk-taking can be desirable among workers who are expected to leverage uncertainty and are allowed to fail, such as those operating in R&D. However, for other employees, high levels of risk-taking might be undesirable, especially if taking risks does not align with the organization's interests or when there are strict standards or routines to follow. In those cases, it is appropriate for managers to not excessively bolster employees' sense of power—and perhaps even to control it—to avoid encouraging undesirable behaviors. Finally, the effectiveness of working on employees' sense of power depends on their openness. Although arousing employees' sense of power is something that managers can do to influence their employees' creativity, managers will reap more benefits by doing so with employees who are high in openness.

6.3 | Limitations and future research directions

Our study has limitations. First, we could not establish causality despite our multi-study, multisource, and multi-wave research design. For instance, it is possible that being creative at work leads individuals to feel a higher sense of power because creative accomplishments are known to boost confidence and are linked to higher risk-taking (Tyagi et al., 2017). We call for experimental designs—possibly field experiments—to provide more direct causal evidence.

Second, samples from two studies were not gender-balanced, with the Study 2 sample entirely composed of women and the Study 3 sample including only 20% men. Therefore, we encourage future studies to test these relationships in more diverse samples, including more gender-balanced and male-dominated contexts. Moreover, some key constructs (i.e., sense of power, risk-taking, and perspective taking) were rated by the same source, posing a potential issue of common method bias. Even though we adopted temporal separation in all studies (Podsakoff et al.,

2003), and in Study 3 we additionally used other-rated perspective taking to mitigate this issue, our findings remain subject to the influence of common method bias.

Third, we conducted our research in a high-power-distance cultural context (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004). Power is more critical in such contexts, and thus it might exert a stronger influence on work outcomes there than in low-power-distance contexts (Farh et al., 2007). This means that the hypothesized results—in particular, the effects of power on relevant behaviors and outcomes—might be stronger in high-power-distance contexts. However, because we focused on sense of power (rather than on objective power), and the psychological experience of power is a universal phenomenon, we reason that our theoretical model should be generalizable to other contexts, including low-power-distance cultures. Nonetheless, future research should examine power distance as a potential boundary condition.

Our study also offers implications for further research. First, future research may explore other possible mediating mechanisms. For instance, our theoretical model does not include affective variables. One possible explanation of the positive relationship between sense of power and creativity found in Study 1 even when controlling for risk-taking and perspective taking is that sense of power may engender positive affect and in turn enhance creativity (Amabile et al., 2005; Anderson et al., 2012). Cognitive mechanisms could also operate in parallel with our proposed paths. For example, people who feel powerful tend to process information more abstractly, which can help their creativity by enabling them to see previously unseen connections, but they also see things more selectively, which can limit their creativity by stifling information gathering and processing (Guinote, 2007, 2017; Magee & Smith, 2013).

Finally, we note that openness to experience might moderate the second-stage effects (i.e., from risk-taking and perspective taking to creativity) as well. We did not hypothesize these relationships because our theoretical framework only guided us to theorize how openness to experience moderates the effect of the sense of power on behaviors, but we consider the analysis of second-stage moderation effects as an interesting direction for future research.

7 | CONCLUSIONS

With this research, we build on the approach-inhibition theory of power and its extensions to develop an integrated dual-pathway model linking sense of power and creativity. Both risk-taking and perspective taking mediate the relationship between sense of power and creativity, but in opposite ways—the former positively and the latter negatively. Openness amplifies the positive indirect impact of sense of power on creativity via risk-taking, at the same time reducing its negative indirect impact via perspective taking. We advance research on sense of power and creativity by identifying openness as a condition that can meaningfully sway the paradoxical impact of sense of power on creativity in a more desirable direction.

ORCID

Federico Magni  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3797-8155>

Yaping Gong  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8248-0017>

ENDNOTES

¹ The items were: “I pursue activities with sure outcomes” and “I avoid pursuing anything considered risky.”

² The single-order, two-factor model also showed a good fit: $\chi^2(13) = 60.46$, $p < .001$, CFI = .96, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .09), but it was not significantly better than the model with risk-taking as a second-order factor.

³ The two questions were: (1) “You have to choose how to pay the interest on a loan you got. You can choose whether to pay a fixed amount or a variable amount per month based on factors beyond your control (e.g., stock exchange movements). Please select your preferred interest payment scheme among the following: (a) Pay \$500 per month; (b) 50% probability of paying \$600 per month and 50% probability of paying \$400 per month; (c) 50% probability of paying \$750 per month and 50% probability of paying \$250 per month.” (2) “You have \$10,000 of savings, and you can decide what to do with this money. You can either decide to keep it as cash in the bank, or whether to choose one of several investment opportunities.

Each opportunity comes with the possibility of either gaining or losing money. All investment opportunities have the same expected value of \$10,000 (assume there is no interest rate in the bank nor in the investments). Please select your preferred investment profile: (a) No investment: Keep \$10,000 in the bank; (b) 50% probability of ending up with \$12,000 and 50% probability of ending up with \$8,000; (c) 50% probability of ending up with \$14,000 and 50% probability of ending up with \$6,000; (d) 50% probability of ending up with \$16,000 and 50% probability of ending up with \$4,000; (e) 50% probability of ending up with \$18,000 and 50% probability of ending up with \$2,000."

⁴We found that age and organizational tenure were moderately correlated ($r = .30, p < .001$); we thank our associate editor for noting this and pointing to the potential collinearity. Running the analyses including age as a covariate, the significance patterns remained unchanged.

⁵Although first-stage moderators are usually measured at Time 1, we measured openness at Time 2. Because openness is a stable personality trait with little or no sizeable variations across time (Schwaba et al., 2018), we deemed this to be appropriate.

⁶Given that education was not significantly related to any outcome of interest, this marginal difference should not affect our findings. Moreover, removing education from the statistical models left significance patterns unchanged.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge the financial support from the Research Grants Council of Hong Kong (project 16501418) and from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (project 71872124). We declare no conflict of interest. Our research has obtained ethics board approval from the Committee for Research Practices of the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (#366). We would like to thank Ganqi Tang for his continued feedback on this paper and Petra Schmid for her advice on power theories.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data are not made publicly available to respect the non-disclosure agreements we took with our participants, according to which we should not make their responses public. We instead make publicly available all the analyses, codes, and outputs, which can be accessed at: <https://osf.io/96c85/>.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 247–260. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.247>
- Amabile, T. M. (1983). The social psychology of creativity: A componential conceptualization. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45(2), 357–376. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.45.2.357>
- Amabile, T. M., Barsade, S. G., Mueller, J. S., & Staw, B. M. (2005). Affect and creativity at work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 50(3), 367–403. <https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.2005.50.3.367>
- Amabile, T. M., Collins, M. A., Conti, R., Phillips, E., Picariello, M., Ruscio, J., & Whitney, D. (2018). *Creativity in context: Update to the social psychology of creativity*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429501234>
- Amabile, T. M., Conti, R., Coon, H., Lazenby, J., & Herron, M. (1996). Assessing the work environment for creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(5), 1154–1184. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256995>
- Amabile, T. M., Schatzel, E. A., Moneta, G. B., & Kramer, S. J. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *Leadership quarterly*, 15(1), 5–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.003>
- Anderson, C., & Berdahl, J. L. (2002). The experience of power: Examining the effects of power on approach and inhibition tendencies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(6), 1362–1377. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.6.1362>
- Anderson, C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2006). Power, optimism, and risk-taking. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(4), 511–536. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.324>
- Anderson, C., John, O. P., & Keltner, D. (2012). The personal sense of power. *Journal of Personality*, 80(2), 313–344. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00734.x>
- Andrews, J., & Smith, D. C. (1996). In search of the marketing imagination: Factors affecting the creativity of marketing programs for mature products. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 33(2), 174–187. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3152145>
- Baer, J. (1998). The case for domain specificity of creativity. *Creativity Research Journal*, 11(2), 173–177. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326934crj1102_7
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Li, N. (2013). The theory of purposeful work behavior: The role of personality, higher-order goals, and job characteristics. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(1), 132–153. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0479>
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 349–360. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349>

- Blader, S. L., Shirako, A., & Chen, Y.-R. (2016). Looking out from the top: Differential effects of status and power on perspective taking. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 42(6), 723–737. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167216636628>
- Blais, A.-R., & Weber, E. U. (2006). A domain-specific risk-taking (DOSPERT) scale for adult populations. *Judgment and Decision Making*, 1(1), 33–47. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t13084-000>
- Bliese, P. D. (1998). Group size, ICC values, and group-level correlations: A simulation. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(4), 355–373. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819814001>
- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. In H. M. Triandis, & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 349–444). Allyn & Bacon.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's mechanical turk. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3–5. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691610393980>
- Chen, G., Bliese, P. D., & Mathieu, J. E. (2005). Conceptual framework and statistical procedures for delineating and testing multilevel theories of homology. *Organizational Research Methods*, 8(4), 375–409. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428105280056>
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1996). *Creativity: Flow and the psychology of discovery and invention*. Harper Collins.
- Dalal, D. K., & Zickar, M. J. (2012). Some common myths about centering predictor variables in moderated multiple regression and polynomial regression. *Organizational Research Methods*, 15(3), 339–362. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428111430540>
- Dewett, T. (2007). Linking intrinsic motivation, risk taking, and employee creativity in an R&D environment. *R&D Management*, 37(3), 197–208. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9310.2007.00469.x>
- Dohmen, T., Falk, A., Huffman, D., Sunde, U., Schupp, J., & Wagner, G. G. (2011). Individual risk attitudes: Measurement, determinants, and behavioral consequences. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 9(3), 522–550. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1542-4774.2011.01015.x>
- Duguid, M. M., & Goncalo, J. A. (2015). Squeezed in the middle: The middle status trade creativity for focus. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 109(4), 589.
- Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-Dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, 27(1), 31. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2089716>
- Fabrigar, L. R., & Wegener, D. T. (2012). Factor analysis assumptions. In L. R. Fabrigar, & D. T. Wegener (Eds.), *Exploratory factor analysis* (pp. 88–103). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:osobl/9780199734177.003.0004>
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4(3), 272–299. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989x.4.3.272>
- Farh, J. L., Hackett, R. D., & Liang, J. (2007). Individual-level cultural values as moderators of perceived organizational support-employee outcome relationships in China: Comparing the effects of power distance and traditionality. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(3), 715–729. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.25530866>
- Farmer, S. M., Tierney, P., & Kung-McIntyre, K. (2003). Employee creativity in Taiwan: An application of role identity theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(5), 618–630. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30040653>
- Feist, G. J. (1998). A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2(4), 290–309. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0204_5
- Fiske, S. T. (1993). Controlling other people: The impact of power on stereotyping. *American Psychologist*, 48(6), 621–628. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.48.6.621>
- Fiske, S. T., & Depret, E. (1996). Control, interdependence and power: Understanding social cognition in its social context. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 7(1), 31–61. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779443000094>
- Fiske, S. T., & Neuberg, S. L. (1990). A continuum of impression formation, from category-based to individuating processes: Influences of information and motivation on attention and interpretation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 23(1), 1–74. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0065-2601\(08\)60317-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0065-2601(08)60317-2)
- Fleischmann, A., Lammers, J., Conway, P., & Galinsky, A. D. (2019). Paradoxical effects of power on moral thinking: Why power both increases and decreases deontological and utilitarian moral decisions. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 10(1), 110–120. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550617744022>
- Flynn, F. J., Gruenfeld, D., Molm, L. D., & Polzer, J. T. (2011). Social psychological perspectives on power in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 56(4), 495–500. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839212440969>
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104>
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 453–466. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.3.453>
- Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Ena Inesi, M., Gruenfeld, D. H., Inesi, M. E., Gruenfeld, D. H., Ena Inesi, M., & Gruenfeld, D. H. (2006). Power and perspectives not taken. *Psychological Science*, 17(12), 1068–1074. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01824.x>

- Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Gruenfeld, D. H., Whitson, J. A., & Liljenquist, K. A. (2008). Power reduces the press of the situation: Implications for creativity, conformity, and dissonance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(6), 1450–1466. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012633>
- Galinsky, A. D., Rucker, D. D., & Magee, J. C. (2015). Power: Past findings, present considerations, and future directions. In M. Mikulincer, P. R. Shaver, J. A. Simpson, & J. F. Dovidio (Eds.), *APA handbook of personality and social psychology, Volume 3: Interpersonal relations* (pp. 421–460). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14344-016>
- Galinsky, A. D., Rucker, D. D., & Magee, J. C. (2016). Power and perspective-taking: A critical examination. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 67, 91–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2015.12.002>
- George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 513–524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.513>
- Glaser, L., Stam, W., & Takeuchi, R. (2016). Managing the risks of proactivity: A multilevel study of initiative and performance in the middle management context. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(4), 1339–1360. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0177>
- Gong, Y., Huang, J.-C., & Farh, J. L. (2009). Employee learning orientation, transformational leadership, and employee creativity: The mediating role of employee creative self-efficacy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 765–778. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.43670890>
- Grant, A. M., & Berry, J. W. (2011). The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(1), 73–96. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.59215085>
- Guinote, A. (2007). Power affects basic cognition: Increased attentional inhibition and flexibility. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 43(5), 685–697. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2006.06.008>
- Guinote, A. (2017). How power affects people: Activating, wanting, and goal seeking. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 68(1), 353–381. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010416-044153>
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*. Prentice Hall.
- Hanoch, Y., Johnson, J. G., Wilke, A., Harris, T. B., Li, N., Boswell, W. R., Zhang, X., Xie, Z., & Hinkin, T. R. (2006). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Personnel Psychology*, 17(4), 300–304. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01702.x>
- Harris, T. B., Li, N., Boswell, W. R., Zhang, X. A., & Xie, Z. (2014). Getting what's new from newcomers: Empowering leadership, creativity, and adjustment in the socialization context. *Personnel Psychology*, 67(3), 567–604. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12053>
- Herrera, F., Bailenson, J., Weisz, E., Ogle, E., & Zak, J. (2018). Building long-term empathy: A large-scale comparison of traditional and virtual reality perspective-taking. *PLoS ONE*, 13(10), 1–37. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0204494>
- Higgins, E. T. (1996). Activation: Accessibility, and salience. *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles*. pp. 133–168.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, 21(5), 967–988. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639502100509>
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 104–121. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819800100106>
- Hirsh, J. B., Galinsky, A. D., & Zhong, C.-B. (2011). Drunk, powerful, and in the dark: How general processes of disinhibition produce both prosocial and antisocial behavior. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(5), 415–427. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691611416992>
- Hoelter, J. W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 11(3), 325–344. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124183011003003>
- Hoever, I. J., van Knippenberg, D., van Ginkel, W. P., & Barkema, H. G. (2012). Fostering team creativity: Perspective taking as key to unlocking diversity's potential. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(5), 982–996. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029159>
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Sage Publications.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage.
- Ibarra, H. (1993). Network centrality, power, and innovation involvement: Determinants of technical and administrative roles. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3), 471–501. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256589>
- Inesi, M. E. (2010). Power and loss aversion. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 112(1), 58–69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.01.001>
- James, L. R. (1982). Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67(2), 219–229. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.2.219>
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(1), 85–98. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.1.85>

- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The big five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin, & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 102–138). Guilford.
- Joshi, A. (2014). By whom and when is women's expertise recognized? The interactive effects of gender and education in science and engineering teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 59(2), 202–239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839214528331>
- Judge, T. A., & Zapata, C. P. (2015). The person-situation debate revisited: Effect of situation strength and trait activation on the validity of the big five personality traits in predicting job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(4), 1149–1179. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0837>
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265–284. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.110.2.265>
- Kifer, Y., Heller, D., Perunovic, W. Q. E., & Galinsky, A. D. (2013). The good life of the powerful. *Psychological Science*, 24(3), 280–288. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797612450891>
- Kirchler, M., Lindner, F., & Weitzel, U. (2018). Rankings and risk-taking in the finance industry. *The Journal of Finance*, 73(5), 2271–2302. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jofi.12701>
- Klein, K. J., Lim, B.-C., Saltz, J. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2004). How do they get there? An examination of the antecedents of centrality in team networks. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(6), 952–963. <https://doi.org/10.5465/20159634>
- Lai, K., & Green, S. B. (2016). The problem with having two watches: Assessment of fit when RMSEA and CFI disagree. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 51(2–3), 220–239. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2015.1134306>
- Lammers, J., Gordijn, E. H., & Otten, S. (2008). Looking through the eyes of the powerful. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(5), 1229–1238.
- Lammers, J., Stapel, D. A., & Galinsky, A. D. (2010). Power increases hypocrisy. *Psychological Science*, 21(5), 737–744. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797610368810>
- Landy, F. J., & Farr, J. L. (1980). Performance rating. *Psychological Bulletin*, 87(1), 72–107. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.87.1.72>
- Lejuez, C. W., Read, J. P., Kahler, C. W., Richards, J. B., Ramsey, S. E., Stuart, G. L., Strong, D. R., Brown, R. A., Read, J. P., Kahler, C. W., Ramsey, S. E., Stuart, G. L., Strong, D. R., Brown, R. A., Richards, J. B., Ramsey, S. E., Stuart, G. L., Strong, D. R., & Brown, R. A. (2002). Evaluation of a behavioral measure of risk taking: The balloon analogue risk task (BART). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 8(2), 75–84. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-898x.8.2.75>
- Levenson, M. R. (1990). Risk taking and personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(6), 1073–1080. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.58.6.1073>
- Lewellyn, K. B., & Muller-Kahle, M. I. (2012). CEO power and risk taking: Evidence from the subprime lending industry. *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, 20(3), 289–307. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8683.2011.00903.x>
- Liao, H., Liu, D., & Loi, R. (2010). Looking at both sides of the social exchange coin: A social cognitive perspective on the joint effects of relationship quality and differentiation on creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(5), 1090–1109. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.54533207>
- Liu, D., Zhang, Z., & Wang, M. (2012). Mono-level and multilevel mediated moderation and moderated mediation: Theorizing and test. In X.-P. Chen, A. Tsui, & L. Farh (Eds.), *Empirical methods in organization and management research* (2nd ed., pp. 545–579). Peking University Press.
- Liu, Y., Wang, M., Chang, C.-H. H., Shi, J., Zhou, L., & Shao, R. (2015). Work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and displaced aggression toward others: The moderating roles of workplace interpersonal conflict and perceived managerial family support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(3), 793–808. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038387>
- Mackinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 39(1), 99–128. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr3901_4
- Magee, J. C., & Smith, P. K. (2013). The social distance theory of power. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 17(2), 158–186. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868312472732>
- Maner, J. K., Gailliot, M. T., Butz, D. A., & Peruche, B. M. (2007). Power, risk, and the status quo: Does power promote riskier or more conservative decision making? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(4), 451–462. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167206297405>
- March, J. G., & Shapira, Z. (1987). Managerial perspectives on risk and risk taking. *Management Science*, 33(11), 1404–1418. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.33.11.1404>
- Mayseless, N., Saggat, M., Hawthorne, G., & Reiss, A. (2018). Creativity in the twenty-first century: The added benefit of training and cooperation. In H. Plattner, C. Meinel, & L. Leifer (Eds.), *Design thinking research* (pp. 239–249). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-60967-6_12
- McCrae, R. R. (1987). Creativity, divergent thinking, and openness to experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(6), 1258–1265. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.6.1258>
- McCrae, R. R. (1996). Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 122(3), 323–337. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.120.3.323>

- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1997). Conceptions and correlates of openness to experience. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 825–847). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-012134645-4/50032-9>
- McCrae, R. R., & Greenberg, D. M. (2014). Openness to experience. In D. K. Simonton (Ed.), *The Wiley handbook of Genius* (pp. 222–243). Wiley Press. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118367377.ch12>
- Michalko, M. (2011). *Cracking creativity—the secrets of creative genius*. Ten Speed Press. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ws.1999.07948cae.005>
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. (2016). Mplus. In *The comprehensive modelling program for applied researchers: User's guide* 5.
- Nicholson, N., Soane, E., Fenton-O'Creevy, M., & Willman, P. (2005). Personality and domain-specific risk taking. *Journal of Risk Research*, 8(2), 157–176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1366987032000123856>
- Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(3), 607–634. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256657>
- Overbeck, J. R., & Park, B. (2006). Powerful perceivers, powerless objects: Flexibility of powerholders' social attention. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 99(2), 227–243. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.10.003>
- Owen, C. (2007). Design thinking: Notes on its nature and use. *Design Research Quarterly*, 2(1), 16–27.
- Palan, S., & Schitter, C. (2018). Prolific. Ac—A subject pool for online experiments. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance*, 17, 22–27.
- Parker, S. K., & Axtell, C. M. (2001). Seeing another viewpoint: Antecedents and outcomes of employee perspective taking. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1085–1100. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3069390>
- Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(7), 777–796. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.336>
- Perry-Smith, J. E., & Mannucci, P. V. (2017). From creativity to innovation: The social network drivers of the four phases of the idea journey. *Academy of Management Review*, 42(1), 53–79. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0462>
- Peterson, C. K., Gable, P., & Harmon-Jones, E. (2008). Asymmetrical frontal ERPs, emotion, and behavioral approach/inhibition sensitivity. *Social Neuroscience*, 3(2), 113–124. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17470910701612736>
- Pitesa, M., & Thau, S. (2013). Compliant sinners, obstinate saints: How power and self-focus determine the effectiveness of social influences in ethical decision making. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(3), 635–658. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0891>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Preacher, K. J., & Selig, J. P. (2012). Advantages of monte carlo confidence intervals for indirect effects. *Communication Methods and Measures*, 6(2), 77–98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19312458.2012.679848>
- Proudfoot, D., Kay, A. C., & Koval, C. Z. (2015). A gender bias in the attribution of creativity: Archival and experimental evidence for the perceived association between masculinity and creative thinking. *Psychological Science*, 26(11), 1751–1761. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797615598739>
- Rogers, W. (1993). Regression standard errors in clustered samples. *Stata Technical Bulletin*, 13, 19–23.
- Runco, M. A. (2015). Meta-creativity: Being creative about creativity. *Creativity Research Journal*, 27(3), 295–298. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2015.1065134>
- Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 428–436. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.428>
- Schmid, P. C. (2022). The effort investment theory of power. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 52(3), 145–157. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12823>
- Schwaba, T., Luhmann, M., Denissen, J. J. A., Chung, J. M., & Bleidorn, W. (2018). Openness to experience and culture-openness transactions across the lifespan. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 115(1), 118–136. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pssp0000150>
- Shi, D., DiStefano, C., Maydeu-Olivares, A., & Lee, T. (2022). Evaluating SEM model fit with small degrees of freedom. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2020.1868965>
- Simonton, D. K. (2017). Creative productivity across the life span. In J. A. Plucker (Ed.), *Creativity and innovation: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 119–132). Prufrock Press Inc.
- Simpson, B., Markovsky, B., & Steketee, M. (2011). Power and the perception of social networks. *Social Networks*, 33(2), 166–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2010.10.007>
- Sitkin, S. B., & Pablo, A. L. (1992). Reconceptualizing the determinants of risk behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(1), 9–38. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1992.4279564>
- Sligte, D. J., de Dreu, C. K. W., & Nijstad, B. A. (2011). Power, stability of power, and creativity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 47(5), 891–897. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2011.03.009>

Smith, P. K., & Trope, Y. (2006). You focus on the forest when you're in charge of the trees: Power priming and abstract information processing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(4), 578–596. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.4.578>

Tett, R. P., Toich, M. J., & Ozkum, S. B. (2021). Trait activation theory: A review of the literature and applications to five lines of personality dynamics research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 8(1), 199–233. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012420-062228>

Todd, A. R., Galinsky, A. D., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2012). Perspective taking undermines stereotype maintenance processes: Evidence from social memory, behavior explanation, and information solicitation. *Social Cognition*, 30(1), 94–108.

Tost, L. P., Gino, F., & Larrick, R. P. (2012). Power, competitiveness, and advice taking: Why the powerful don't listen. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 117(1), 53–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.10.001>

Tyagi, V., Hanoch, Y., Hall, S. D., Runco, M., & Denham, S. L. (2017). The risky side of creativity: Domain specific risk taking in creative individuals. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00145>

Waldman, D. A., Putnam, L. L., Miron-Spektor, E., & Siegel, D. (2019). The role of paradox theory in decision making and management research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 155, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2019.04.006>

Weber, E. U. (2010). Risk attitude and preference. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science*, 1(1), 79–88. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcs.5>

White, H. (1980). A heteroskedasticity-consistent covariance matrix estimator and a direct test for heteroskedasticity. *Econometrica*, 48(4), 817–838. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1912934>

Zhou, H., & He, H. (2020). Exploring role of personal sense of power in facilitation of employee creativity: A dual mediation model based on the derivative view of self-determination theory. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 13(1), 517–527. <https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S257201>

How to cite this article: Magni, F., Gong, Y., Li, K. J., Pan, J., & Zhou, M. (2024). The paradoxical relationship between sense of power and creativity: Countervailing pathways and a boundary condition. *Personnel Psychology*, 77, 441–474. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12557>

APPENDIX A

Scale Items for Key Variables

English Items	Chinese Items
Sense of Power (Anderson et al., 2012)	
The following statements are about your own experiences and feelings at work. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement.	以下各题是关于您本人在工作中的经历和感受。请指出，您在多大程度上同意各句描述。
1. I can get others to listen to what I say.	1. 我能让他人听从于我。
2. I can get others to do what I want.	2. 我能让他人按照我的想法做事。
3. I think I have a great deal of power.	3. 我觉得自己有很大的权力。
4. If I want to, I get to make the decisions.	4. 只要我想，我就有权做决定。
5. (R) My wishes do not carry much weight.	5. (R) 我的想法无足轻重。
6. (R) Even if I voice them, my views have little sway.	6. (R) 即使我表达了意见，我的观点也没有什么影响力。
7. (R) My ideas and opinions are often ignored.	7. (R) 我的观点和意见经常被忽略。
8. (R) Even when I try, I am not able to get my way.	8. (R) 就算我努力尝试，我也无法让他人按照我的方式做事情。

(Continues)

Risk-taking (developed for this research)

The following statements are about your work activities and behaviors, which include but are not limited to decision making. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement.

以下各题是关于您在工作中的活动和行为,包括但不限于工作决策。请指出,您在多大程度上同意各句描述。

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. I engage in activities with uncertain outcomes. | 1. 我从事结果不确定的活动。 |
| 2. I embrace decision goals that are difficult to achieve. | 2. 我接受难以达成的决策目标。 |
| 3. I pursue activities that could generate extreme outcomes. | 3. 我从事可能产生极端结果的活动。 |
| 4. I engage in riskier activities compared to my colleagues. | 4. 与同事相比,我从事风险更高的活动。 |
| 5. I am willing to take risks in making decisions. | 5. 我愿意冒风险去做决定。 |
| 6. I am willing to take risks while performing tasks. | 6. 我愿意在执行任务时冒风险。 |
| 7. I am more willing to take risks than my colleagues. | 7. 我比同事更愿意冒风险。 |

Perspective Taking (Grant and Berry, 2011)

The following statements are about your work activities and behaviors, which include but are not limited to decision making. Please indicate to what extent you would agree with each statement.

以下各题是关于您在工作中的活动和行为,包括但不限于工作决策。请指出,您在多大程度上同意各句描述。

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 1. I frequently try to take other people's perspectives. | 1. 我经常尝试从别人的角度看问题。 |
| 2. I often imagine how other people are feeling. | 2. 我经常思考别人的感受。 |
| 3. I make an effort to see the world through others' eyes. | 3. 我努力从他人的视角看事情。 |
| 4. I regularly seek to understand others' viewpoints. | 4. 我经常试着理解别人的观点。 |

Creativity (Farmer et al., 2003) [Study 1]

The following statements are about the colleague's (name) workplace behaviors and outcomes. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement.
Comparing to others, this colleague (name) ...

以下各题是关于这位同事(姓名)的工作行为和成果。请指出,您在多大程度上同意各句描述。
相比于其他人,这位同事(姓名).....

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. ... tries new ideas or methods first. | 1.率先尝试新的想法和方法。 |
| 2. ... seeks new ideas and ways to solve problems. | 2.寻求新的想法和办法来解决问题。 |
| 3. ... generates ground-breaking ideas related to the field. | 3.在工作领域中产生开创性的想法。 |
| 4. ... is a good role model for creativity. | 4.是一个富于创造力的典型代表。 |

Openness to Experience (John & Srivastava, 1999) [Study 2 and Study 3]

The following statements are about yourself in daily work and life. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement.
I see myself as someone who...

以下各题是关于您本人的日常工作和生活。请指出,您在多大程度上同意各句描述。**我认为我自己是一位这样的人.....**

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. ... is original, comes up with new ideas. | 1.有独创性,能想出新颖的主意。 |
| 2. ... is curious about many different things. | 2.对很多事物都有好奇心。 |
| 3. ... is ingenious, a deep thinker. | 3.心思巧妙,思考深邃。 |
| 4. ... has an active imagination. | 4.有丰富的想象力。 |

(Continues)

5. ... is inventive.	5.有创造力。
6. ... values artistic, aesthetic experiences.	6.重视艺术和审美体验。
7. (R) ... prefers work that is routine.	7(R).....偏向于常规的、按部就班的工作。
8. ... likes to reflect, play with ideas.	8.喜欢思考,想出各种各样的主意。
9. (R) ... has few artistic interests.	9(R).....对艺术、审美没有什么兴趣。
10. ... is sophisticated in art, music, or literature.	10.对艺术、音乐、典籍等很精通。
Creativity (1–3 Oldham and Cummings (1996); 4–10 developed for the context) [Study 2 and Study 3]	
The following statements are about the employee's (name) workplace behaviors and outcomes. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement. Comparing to others ...	以下各题是关于这位店员(姓名)的工作行为和成果。请指出,您在多大程度上同意各句描述。 相比于其他人.....
1. This employee's work is creative.	1. 这位店员的工作有创造力。
2. This employee's work is original and practical.	2. 这位店员的工作是原创的且实用的。
3. This employee's work is adaptive and practical.	3. 这位店员根据实际需要调整和改进他/她的工作方式。
4. This employee uses creativity to develop new customers.	4. 这位店员运用新方法,来开发新客户。
5. This employee uses creativity to maintain the loyalty of current customers.	5. 这位店员运用新方法,来维持现有客户的忠诚度。
6. This employee comes up with creative means and channels to sell products.	6. 这位店员提出有创意的办法或者渠道来销售产品。
7. This employee comes up with new and useful methods for promotion and sales.	7. 这位店员提出既新颖又实用的促销方案。
8. This employee suggests customized and personalized product packages for different customers.	8. 这位店员为不同的客户提供定制的个性化产品。
9. This employee suggests novel and practical ways to manage the store inventory.	9. 这位店员想出又好又新的库存管理方法。
10. This employee utilizes new and appropriate ways to manage after-sales services.	10. 这位店员采用新颖和适当的方法处理售后服务。

Note: (R) denotes reverse-coded items.

APPENDIX B

Aggregation Analysis for Perspective Taking (Study 3)

In Study 3, the focal employee's perspective taking was rated by teammates. Before averaging the teammates' ratings to compute the focal person's other-rated perspective taking, we checked whether it would be appropriate to aggregate the ratings to the focal individual level. In particular, we found that the mean of the $r_{wg(j)}$ values was .92. Although thirteen cases had an $r_{wg(j)}$ lower than the recommended level of .70 (James et al., 1984), we followed recommendations by Chen et al. (2005) and retained all available cases for analysis. Then we ran analyses by deleting cases with relatively low $r_{wg(j)}$ on a case-by-case basis and found that all the hypotheses remained supported. Such results suggested high agreements among teammates' ratings of a focal employee's perspective taking. The ICC1 value was .75, suggesting that the ratios of between-focal-employee-variance to total variance were comparable to or exceeded the recommended standard (James, 1982). The ICC2 value was .95. Given that the average number of raters for each focal employee is 6.42 (SD = 3.45), these values are fair and acceptable (Bliese, 1998). Taken together, these results justified the aggregation of (i.e., averaging) teammates' ratings of the focal employee's perspective taking.