

COMPETENCE AND MOTIVATION:
PATHWAYS TO RELATIONAL VERSUS COLLECTIVE STATUS

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Most social psychology and management research in the past predominantly focuses on competence as the primary pathway for status attainment. This study broadens the focus beyond competence to include motivation as another important pathway to status attainment. In doing so, this paper differentiates motivation into relationship-based motivation versus collective-based motivation. Specifically, I predict that competence, relationship-based motivation manifested by interpersonal helping, and collective-based motivation manifested by commitment to one's group will all have positive effects on status attainment. I also predict that interpersonal helping, driven by relationship-based motivation, will have a relatively stronger influence on an individual's status at an interpersonal level (i.e., relational status), while group commitment, driven by collective-based motivation, will have a relatively stronger impact on an individual's status at the group level (i.e., collective status). A two-way interaction between motivation (relationship-based or collective-based) and competence is also proposed for status attainment at its corresponding level (relational vs. collective status). Empirical results from a survey study of 282 employees and 55 teams across multiple industries in Korea support these hypotheses. The findings of this research make theoretical and empirical contributions to research on social hierarchy by providing a fundamental distinction between interpersonal and collective dynamics.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Hye Jung Yoon was born in Incheon and raised in Seoul, South Korea. Prior to enrolling at Cornell University, she earned her Bachelor's and Master's degrees in Business Administration at Seoul National University. During this period, Hye Jung developed an interest in creativity and innovation in Korean culture. When she realized that the core theories and practices in management mostly stemmed from scholarship abroad, she decided to pursue her PhD in the U.S. Hye Jung began her doctoral studies at Cornell in 2010, graduating with a PhD in management in 2016. While at Cornell, she continued research on creativity, and also initiated a series of projects on status through industry-based field studies. She has a loving family in Korea, including her parents, elder brother, and sister-in-law.

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INTRODUCTION

A social group accords value to its members who contribute to group goals. The competence and motivation of an individual are crucial elements that group members consider when they evaluate the value of that member (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). Status is generally defined as one's prestige, regard, and esteem in the eyes of others (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, Spataro, & Chatman, 2006), and is thus ascribed to individuals with social worth and values (Blader & Chen, 2012). Since an individual's competence and motivation are likely to shape his/her group members' perceptions of that person, I argue that these two elements will play a significant role as pathways to high status.

Interestingly, most empirical studies on status have predominantly focused on the role of competence in status attainment; only until recently has research begun to pay attention to motivation, especially prosocial motivation to benefit one or more others, as an antecedent of status (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009a; Willer, 2009). This dissertation will join this line of research by examining both competence and motivation simultaneously in determining one's status in work groups, and bringing motivation to the same "status" as competence in our understanding of status attainment.

There are several clear reasons for the important role motivation may play in our understanding of status attainment. First, in social cognition theory, it has been argued that group members will likely first focus on a target member's intentions toward them when they assess that individual's value (Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). Either simultaneously or sequentially, group members will then pay attention to the target person's capability, a dynamic force to pursue his/her intentions (Cuddy et al., 2011). Second, high competence does not always lead to benefits to group members and the group. Warnings against "competent jerks" prevail in today's

organizations and working groups (e.g. Casciaro & Lobo, 2005; Cuddy et al., 2008) because competent jerks can generate disruption and thus threaten a group's survival and prosperity. On the other hand, there is the stereotype of middle-level managers who remain in the same positions seemingly forever, being evaluated as "nice" but without capable of the skills required for promotion. This phenomenon suggests that we should examine not only direct effects, but also the interplay between the two major factors – i.e., motivation and competence – for status evaluations, especially judgments of an individual whose competence and prosocial motivation have a marked discrepancy.

In addition to examining effects of competence, motivation, and their interactions on status attainment, this dissertation explores the distinction between two different types of status: relational vs. collective status. Prior research on status seems to suggest that each person possesses only one status ranking within his or her group. It is generally believed that the individual differences that determine each individual's social standing within a group are transparent or obvious, and thus observable to all members (e.g., immediate stereotypical cues perceived as competence, regardless of actual competence). Hence, social hierarchy is developed quickly – at the beginning of a group formation – and is likely to linger (Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). The fundamental assumption here is that all group members contribute to the status hierarchy decision, or at least identify the hierarchy in their group by coming to a consensus about rankings (e.g. "Kate is ranked as the first in our group and every member is aware of it"). However, this assumption is often violated in group settings. More recent studies suggest that different members can have different perceptions of hierarchical rankings (Bendersky & Shah, 2012; Srivastava & Anderson, 2011). Furthermore, theories and empirical findings regarding perceived group norms clearly demonstrate the discrepancy between what group members

actually think and what group members believe they should think (i.e., there is pluralistic ignorance; Miller & Morrison, 2009, p. 741). In line with this argument, the current paper postulates that status may vary depending on who is assessing that status. Group members have different perceptions toward an individual when they evaluate that individual's status from their own perspective (i.e., the extent to which I hold a given group member in high regard) versus when they assess that individual's status in the context of the whole group (i.e., the extent to which I believe my group as a whole holds a given group member in high regard).

Hence, there are two objectives I hope to achieve in this dissertation. One is to examine effects of competence and motivation on status attainment simultaneously in one single setting. The second objective is to examine the differences and similarities between relational status and collective status.

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Underlying Assumptions in Status Research

Social hierarchies are pervasive across societies and cultures (Chen, Peterson, Philips, Podolny, & Ridgeway, 2012). Hierarchies in social groups represent a fundamental feature of these groups. Status is a primary dimension of social hierarchy. High status individuals in a social hierarchy hold multiple advantages, including more opportunities, more favorable performance evaluations, and more influence during group decision-making processes compared to others with lower rankings (e.g., Berger, Rosenholz, & Zelditch, 1980). Due to these benefits, most individuals are motivated to be highly positioned, influential, and recognized as valuable within a group (Frank, 1985).

In considering how crucial social hierarchy is in our minds, it is no surprise that scholars have devoted a great deal of attention to the factors of status attainment (e.g. Anderson &

Kilduff, 2009a; Barkow, 1975; Berger et al., 1980; Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006; Tiedens, 2001). While individual characteristics such as gender, assertiveness, and anger (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; Tiedens, 2001; Wall & Rude, 1991) have been identified as antecedents of status attainment, many studies have concluded that perceived competence is the pathway via which those factors exert impact on status attainment (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972; Blau, 1964; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008; Ridgeway). For instance, assertive individuals are known to be highly ranked among their group members because assertiveness implies task competence as well as social competence (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009b). In a similar vein, most individual characteristics have been shown to enhance status attainment only through competence as perceived by others (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009a; Chen, Jing, & Lee, 2014; Ridgeway & Walker, 1995).

The critical assumptions underlying studies of status attainment are twofold. First, competence is a major determinant of status, and a target person's competence alone stimulates a status-conferral process since more competent group members have the potential to contribute more to the group's success, relative to less competent group members (Flynn et al., 2006; Kilduff, Anderson, & Willer, 2015). Second, status conferral is a cooperative process driven by collective consensus of various group members on the worthiness of a target member (Ridgeway, 1987). Previous studies of status assume that status rankings in a social group are generally agreed-upon by group members, and there is a significant agreement in status perceptions (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009b; Kilduff et al., 2015).

The present study calls into question these preexisting assumptions. First, a target person's competence may not be the only determinant that drives group members' status conferral. In this dissertation, I argue that status conferral by a group member depends not only

on an individual's competence, but also on that individual's prosocial motivation orientation towards others. For instance, a member's status can be enhanced when the group member is perceived as cooperative and having group-oriented intentions (Ridgeway, 1978).

Second, social identity research has suggested an important distinction between relational and collective levels of motivation toward others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Brewer & Chen, 2007). Accordingly, it is important that we distinguish status into relationship-based status vs. group-based status, depending on whether prosocial motivation is directed at an interpersonal level or at a group level.

Specifically, group members may hold different judgments about whose status is low versus high in their group, especially depending on the level of their status evaluations: their interpersonal assessments versus their perceptions of judgments about the targets by the group as a whole (Prentice & Miller, 1993). Most of the existing research on status hierarchies assumes that all group members spontaneously determine status rankings in their group based on their collectively shared agreement. In accordance with this reasoning, status scholars have typically treated status as fixed rank orders consisting of ordinal numbers (e.g. Kilduff et al., 2015) or as averages of status ratings of target members by individual group members (e.g. Tiedens, 2001). As a result, the status literature has not differentiated the status of targets in terms of interpersonal judgments (i.e., the extent to which I hold a given group member in high regard) or group judgments (i.e., the extent to which I believe my group holds a given group member in high regard) (e.g. Bendersky & Shah, 2013; Piazza & Castellucci, 2014).

Nevertheless, given that status is an index of social worth bestowed upon a target by others (Blader & Chen, 2012), status is inherently a subjective construct involving relationships between a target and evaluators. Hierarchical rank consensually perceived by group members is

not conceptually the same as an aggregate of a single member's status evaluation of a given target member, based on his/her dyadic relationships with the target. The present dissertation attempts to examine the distinction between relational status (which represents one's status evaluated in the scope of an evaluator's relationships with the target) and collective status (which represents one's status evaluated in the scope of others in general; Brewer & Chen, 2007; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). This dissertation assumes that there might be status disagreement among group members, which leads to the discrepancy between the two perceived levels of status. In other words, I posit that people make two levels of status judgment towards a group member: their personal status judgment of the group member based on his/her dyadic interactions versus their perception about the extent to which all group members together accord the target member with respect and status. Consequently, status determinants may have different impacts on each type of status (relational vs. collective).

Competence-based Perspectives on Status Attainment

The competence-based perspective states that the conferral of high status is mainly driven by a target person's competence as perceived by evaluators (Ridgeway, 1978). Perceived competence denotes evaluators' beliefs about a target person's capacity to achieve a desired outcome (Ridgeway, 1991). This competence-based argument has been mainly supported by two theories: (1) status characteristics theory, and (2) functionalist theories of social hierarchy.

Many studies have investigated individual characteristics as predictors of status attainment, such as gender, physical attractiveness, height, muscularity, big five personality, emotion, dominance, and aggression (e.g. Anderson et al., 2001; Anderson & Kilduff, 2009b; Blaker & van Vugt, 2014; Eagly, 1987; Melwani & Barsade, 2011; Tiedens, 2001). Despite the wide variety of individual characteristics that have been shown to stimulate the status conferral

process, competence has been identified as the main pathway linking each of those individual characteristics and status attainment (Cuddy et al., 2008). Status characteristics theory (Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977) provides a theoretical framework to explain why particular individuals gain more respect and esteem in the eyes of others in a social context. According to status characteristics theory, status attainment derives from the extent to which individuals are perceived to possess status characteristics, defined as traits valued in the given setting (Berger et al., 1977). Demographic characteristics and individual attributes are likely to lead to stereotyping about a target person's value and competence (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Therefore, individuals gain status when they possess certain characteristics, either related overtly or stereotypically to competence.

Many studies have provided empirical evidence to support this argument. For instance, Tiedens (2001) found that politicians who expressed anger were likely to win elections, compared to politicians who expressed sad or apologetic emotions, since angry candidates were perceived as more confident and determined to tackle adverse situations. Anderson and Kilduff (2009b) also provide intriguing findings, namely that individuals who have trait dominance gain more influence from others because they are perceived as more competent, judged from their expansive postures or verbal expressions of confidence. Similarly, Chen et al. (2014) report that votes for dominant-looking politicians are likely to increase when they are perceived as more intelligent, competent, and accomplished. In fact, these authors reveal the role of perceived competence as full mediation, bridging the relationship between candidates' dominance characteristics and their electoral success only through competence (Chen et al., 2014). Extensive literature also demonstrates that men are likely to gain high status because their gender attributes have been historically evaluated as signaling more competence in general than

women's (Eagly, 1987). The same mechanisms are applied to the status dynamics among group members who are physically attractive and members who are not (Anderson et al., 2001).

Despite starting from different status characteristics, past research all points to the important role that a target member's perceived competence plays to gain status conferral by others.

The functionalist perspective, in contrast, assumes that status hierarchy is established and reinforced by reflecting each member's contribution to a group (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Status characteristics theory has mostly focused on the link between individual qualities and perceived competence, and not specifically concentrated on whether these qualities can get translated to a contribution to a group. Functionalist theories of hierarchy, on the other hand, situate such dynamics in a group context. The functionalist perspective focuses on whether these individual qualities become connected to the achievement of group goals via their competence, and then by association, achievement of individual goals of group members. Accordingly, the functional theories of hierarchy have also supported the notion that competence is the main driving force for status attainment, and have investigated the role of a member's competence specifically in task-group settings. During the status conferral process, not only past or current contributions of a member, but also his/her potential contributions to a group are evaluated (Berger et al., 1980). When target members are expected to produce future performance on group tasks (Torelli, Leslie, Stoner, & Puente, 2014), they are awarded with respect and admiration. Conversely, when group members are perceived to lack such qualities, they are appointed to low status positions (Berger et al., 1980). Likewise, confidence is known to signal better performance and success, especially in task-oriented groups (Bandura, 1977).

A review paper by Anderson and Kilduff (2009a) explores various systematic behaviors that individuals adopt to improve their social standing; most of these behaviors intend to increase

the perception of the individuals' competence by their groups. To be more specific, the authors argue that group members can gain high standing by demonstrating competence, hence enhancing their value in the perception of others, e.g. through possession of technical expertise, general cognitive abilities, communication skills, or leadership skills (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009a; Ridgeway, 1987). As such, competence has been considered as the primary basis of status hierarchy in social groups and organizations (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). The link between competence and status has also been argued to be universal, empirically supported across samples from several countries (Cuddy et al., 2009).

Inherent in the above argument and the predominant focus in the past research on competence as the underlying mechanism which fosters one's status attainment is that competent individuals are naturally inclined to make contributions to their group. Nevertheless, possession of high competence alone does not necessarily guarantee that the individual is also willing to help the group complete its task or pursue its collective goals. We often observe individuals who are highly competent but not participative in the enhancement of group performance as enthusiastically as they focus on the improvement of their individual performance. In addition, individuals with technical expertise or high intelligence do not necessarily have empathic concerns for others (Fiske et al., 2002). Cuddy and her colleagues provide the cases of "competent but cold" people; these individuals might have a high level of capability in their work skills, but they are perceived to lack motivations toward others (Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). Likewise, individuals with great task competence can also demonstrate disruptive qualities for their coworkers to work with (see Casciaro & Lobo, 2005). Beeson (2009) provides examples of middle level managers who are often deselected for promotion despite high

performance, because they lack interpersonal skills, treating others with insensitivity and prioritize individual goals over company goods (Beeson, 2009, p. 103).

The substantial examples in both prior research and actual organizations imply that a target person's motivation toward others should be treated as another key factor for status attainment distinct from competence. Indeed, a series of research by Ridgeway and her colleagues provide preliminary evidence regarding the important role of group-oriented motivation in the status attainment process (Ridgeway, 1987; Ridgeway, 1991; Ridgeway & Diekema, 1992; Ridgeway & Johnson, 1990). Nevertheless, few studies in the status literature have paid attention, if at all, to the role of other-oriented motivation. In this dissertation, I argue that motivational direction of a social actor should be considered a pivotal status antecedent along with his or her competence.

Role of Other-oriented Motivations: Relational and Collective Motivation

An individual's motivations toward others have been known to be a fundamental criterion that people use when they make judgments about targets (Cuddy et al., 2011). From an evolutionary point of view, people should be vigilant about the individual's other-oriented motivation for their own survival. People make a quick judgment over which behaviors to take toward the individual as a friend or foe based on the person's general orientation toward helping others. Whether the individual has positive or negative intentions toward others also signals the directions of the individual's use of resources (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). Therefore, an individual strongly motivated to help others will convey the positive or negative values of the person, consequently impacting colleagues' willingness to confer status on the person.

Furthermore, status conferral is inherently a social process (Blau, 1964). A target person can attain status only when others bestow status upon the target, which is thus reliant on other

group members' subjective perceptions toward the target of appraisal (Blader & Chen, 2012; Hays, 2013). As one's status attainment originates externally, the status construct involves a more other-focus rather than self-focus, and is relatively more of a property of colleagues in the same group as evaluators (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). The relationships between the target person and evaluators will influence their decisions on status rankings. As a consequence, individuals striving for status draw their attention outward and stay attuned to others (Blader & Chen, 2012). This implies that when individuals direct their efforts to comprehend the perspectives and needs of their group members, they are likely to accomplish high status. Given the characteristics of status construct, a person with a high level of other-oriented motivation is likely to make good impressions on the evaluators, which is expected to lead to the favorable perceptions about the target person.

Distinction between Relational and Collective Status

According to various literatures in organizational and social psychology, there are at least two types of other-oriented motivation depending on its level of focus: relational motivation and collective motivation. An individual with other orientation can be motivated to provide help to specific coworkers in need at the interpersonal level, or can be motivated to make contributions to organizations or workgroups as a whole at the collective/group level (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Simpson & Willer, 2015). Accordingly, relational versus collective motivation may exert differential impact on status attainment depending on whether status under consideration is at a relational level (e.g. how much I hold this group member with high regard) or at a collective level (e.g. how much I believe my group holds this group member with high regard; Johnson, Groff, & Taing, 2009).

A few previous studies emphasized the importance of a target person's *collective* motivation, demonstrating that individuals who strive for status are likely to gain it especially when they signal their commitment to the group through their selfless motives (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009a). Group members are likely to confer high status on a target person when the person contributes to enhancing the value or goal of the group (Ridgeway, 1978); in order to succeed as a collective entity, a group encourages its group members to contribute to the group, even when it costs members' personal investment or sacrifice of their self-interests (Anderson et al., 2006). Therefore, to attain status, an individual needs to signal not only high ability to perform well, but also his or her willingness to help the group accomplish group goals (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). For example, Willer (2009) shows that when university cohorts contribute an initial endowment to a public fund (which later would be equally distributed to each group member) rather than keep it to themselves, they are allocated with higher status and influence. The fundamental assumption underlying these mechanisms is that group-oriented or cooperative group members have more value for the group, compared to members with a low level of group-oriented motivation (Ridgeway, 1982). People who contribute toward their group are likely to be perceived as more trustworthy (Hardy & van Vugt, 2006; van Vugt & Hardy, 2010), and they are likely to be chosen more frequently as interaction partners and leaders within their group (Willer, 2009).

In addition to pointing out the importance of collective/group-oriented motivation, recent studies have also begun to provide theoretical argument and empirical evidence that a target person's *relational* motivation also plays a significant role in the person's status attainment. Flynn and his colleagues (2006) demonstrate that a seemingly altruistic motive helps individuals achieve higher status. That is, individuals who provide more help to others are likely to gain

higher status from their group members. This is because an individual's helping behavior is perceived as proactive generosity, which signals that the help-provider voluntarily sacrifices his or her time, effort or resources for other group members (Flynn et al., 2006). In return, help-recipients reciprocate by conferring high status on help-providers. Unlike collective motivation or group-oriented commitment, which refers to support for the goals and values of the group, relational motivation is a dyadic-focused form of other-oriented motivation (Ellemers, de Gilder, & van den Heuvel, 1998). There is a fundamental difference between an individual's devotion to the group and his or her willingness to confer benefits and wellbeing on specific others. Accordingly, a group member might have relatively high status at the group level but relatively low status in the mind of a particular individual group member, and vice versa (Ellemers et al., 1998). Given the distinction between relational and collective motivations, I expect that they exercise differential impact on group members' status conferral process on a target member at their corresponding levels.

The distinction between a relational focus and a collective focus can be also applied to the construct of status itself. A foundational belief that has been held in social hierarchy research is that status is basically a consensual construct. The literature in social hierarchy has suggested that status conferral is a stable and widely agreed-upon process driven by group members (e.g. Ridgeway, 1987; Anderson & Kilduff, 2009a). According to preexisting studies on status, all group members tend to be accurately aware of their own rankings as well as others', and they unanimously consent to status hierarchical structures regardless of their individual preference toward each rank (Berger et al., 1980; Ridgeway, 1987). However, there is no perfect consensus (Anderson, Ames, & Gosling, 2008; Kilduff et al., 2015). In fact, status researchers have started to investigate whether one's status is always agreed-upon by all members of a group (Anderson

et al., 2008). Recent studies on status conflict (e.g. Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Bendersky & Shah, 2012) and status change (e.g. Pettit, 2012; Pettit, Sivanathan, Gladstone, & Marr, 2013) provide both theoretical arguments and empirical evidence that status conferral is a more fluid and flexible process. Moreover, recent research on status enhancement theory (e.g. Anderson, Brion, Moore, & Kennedy, 2012; Kennedy, Anderson, & Moore, 2013) implicitly suggests that status rankings in a group that are held in each group member's mind do not necessarily coincide with one another.

Furthermore, despite its collective notion generally accepted in the status literature, most of existing studies on status hierarchies have not necessarily measured status at a clear collective level. To my awareness, there have been at least three different ways in which status has been empirically assessed. First, studies assessed status as a single, ordinal dimension of ranking among group members (Pettit, 2012). Second, some other studies have measured status with simple aggregates of status evaluations by each of the group members at an interpersonal level, i.e., the extent to which the individual group member him/herself holds the target member in high regard (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). In fact, in many studies of status, determinants of status attainment are viewed as dynamics at the dyadic level based on a relational motive (e.g. "How much do *you* respect this person?", Bendersky & Shah, 2013; Willer, 2009; "*Some people are afraid of me*", Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010; "Rank" is quantified as the duration of visual attention by each participant, Cheng, Tracy, Foulsham, Kingston, & Henrich, 2013). Third, a few other studies have followed the collective notion of status with regard to its measurement, interpreting the status conferral process as group dynamics based on the collective agreement (e.g. The amount of status, influence, and prominence in the [group], Anderson & Kilduff,

2009b; Anderson et al., 2006; Ridgeway, 1991). Hence, empirically the level of focus has been inconsistent and thus quite confusing.

Considering the notion of status, social standing ascribed to a target by others (Chen et al., 2012), the target's status is essentially rooted in social judgments made by others (Blader & Chen, 2012). The implicit assumption here is that others can be multiple group members in a collective/group context, or others may also represent a counterpart in a dyadic social exchange (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Hence, the meaning of status rankings can be quite different depending on the level of focus: relational or collective. Accordingly, antecedents of status attainment or consequences may differ. Therefore, I expect that a social actor makes a clear distinction between a target member's relational status in the view of a single evaluator and the target's collective status in the scope of the group as a whole. The conceptualized notion of the distinction between two types of status is depicted in Figure 1.

Given the distinction between relational and collective status, I posit that relational motivation such as interpersonal helping will have greater impact on relational status than on collective status. In contrast, collective motivation such as group commitment will be more impactful on collective status attainment. This dissertation therefore explores antecedents of status attainment by making distinction between relational status and collective status in groups (Brewer & Chen, 2007; Brewer & Gardner, 1996), and proposes that the status attainment mechanism is through the interplay of individuals' competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment.

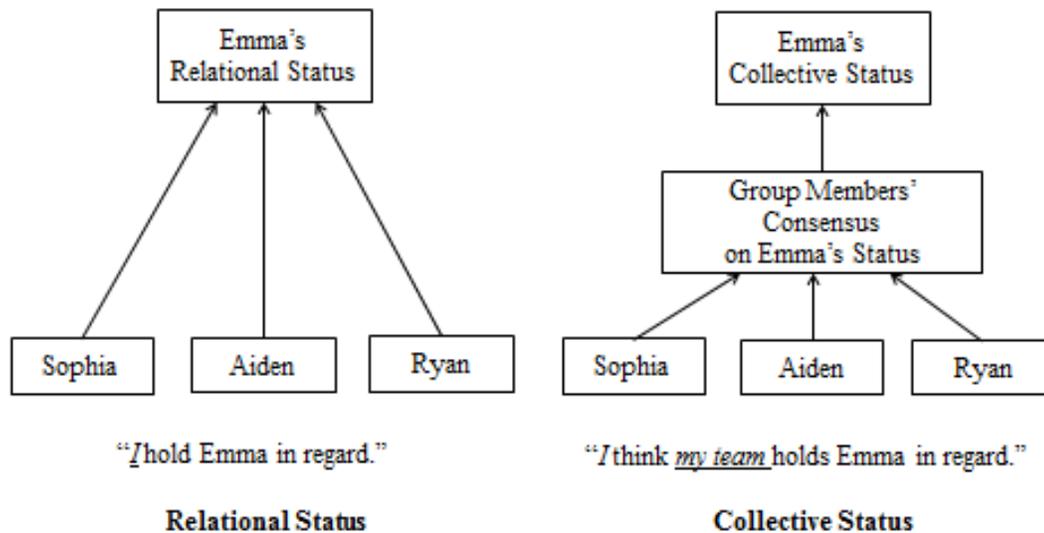


Figure 1. The Conceptual Distinction between Relational and Collective Status

HYPOTHESES

The present study postulates positive main effects of competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment on two levels of status: relational and collective status. I adopt the functionalist perspective of social hierarchy (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009b; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), maintaining that high status is awarded to a group member who makes more contributions to the group; therefore, demonstration of one's value to the group is the key strategy to attaining status at the collective level. Similarly, at the dyadic level, high status is likely to be awarded to an exchange counterpart who is interpersonally helpful and competent. For this reason, I suggest that competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment are positively related to relational and collective status, even though the relative weight of each antecedent's effect will

differ depending on the level of status. Specifically, interpersonal helping will have a greater impact on relational status while group commitment will exert more influence on collective status.

While both competence and other-oriented motivations (interpersonal helping and group commitment in my research design) are expected to have direct effects on one's status attainment, the current study also predicts that there will be interactions between competence and other-oriented motivations; such that the effect of other-oriented motivations will be pronounced when a person possesses high level of competence. Specifically, I argue that given the work group context, competence should be deemed as the most important determinant in group members' status rankings of others in the group (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005; Hogan & Holland, 2003). In fact, members with low competence but with high group commitment will not deliver highly qualified contributions to other colleagues or to the group. On the other hand, a member with high competence is likely to attract evaluators' attention to the competent individual's other-oriented intentions, because the competent member with low other-oriented motivations can be perceived as a potential threat to other group members or the group (Cuddy et al., 2011). For instance, so-called "competent jerks" are considered as untrustworthy and thus, difficult to work with (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005). For this reason, I expect the effect of other-oriented motivations (helping vs. group commitment) to be stronger when competence is high than when competence is low.

Accordingly, I propose the following set of hypotheses for relational vs. collective status in the current research:

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived competence will have a positive main effect on relational status.

Hypothesis 1b: Perceived competence will have a positive main effect on collective status.

Hypothesis 2a: Interpersonal helping will have a stronger positive effect on relational status than on collective status.

Hypothesis 2b: Group commitment will have a stronger positive effect on collective status than on relational status.

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived competence will interact with interpersonal helping on relational status such that the positive effect of interpersonal helping will be stronger when perceived competence is high than low.

Hypothesis 3b: Perceived competence will interact with group commitment on collective status such that the positive effect of group commitment will be stronger when perceived competence is high than low.

Figure 2 organizes the hypotheses proposed above.

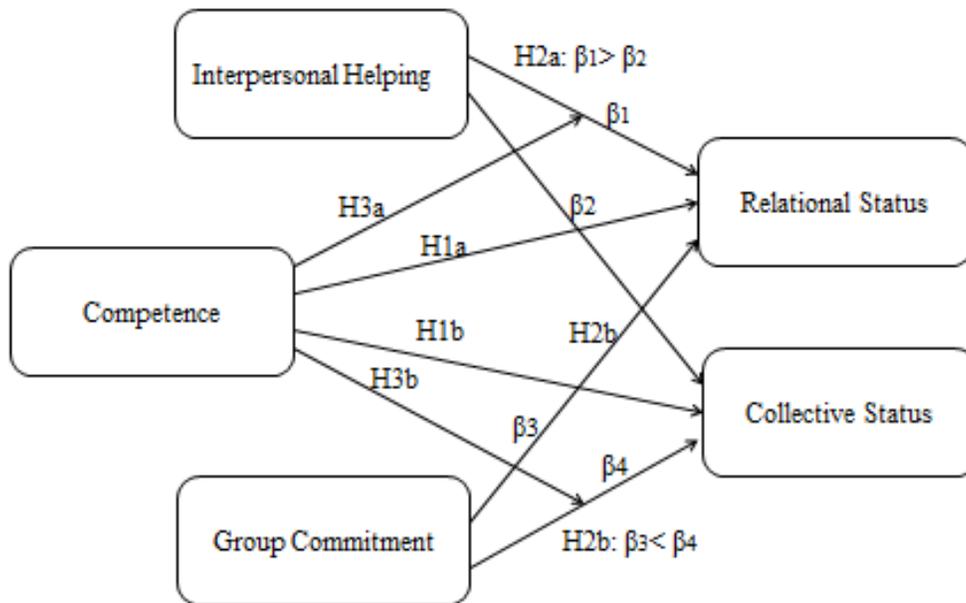


Figure 2. The Hypothesized Model

METHODS

My hypotheses were tested using data collected via a longitudinal survey process. Most status research to date has been mainly conducted in a laboratory setting or undergraduate college dormitories by randomly assigning participants to small task groups and asking them to rate a target's status after limited short-term interactions. To my knowledge, none has been carried out in an actual work setting. Thus, the field study in this research work will be one of the first examining status antecedents in the organizational setting. As will be presented, empirical results from this field study (with a sample from Korea) lend strong support for the hypotheses proposed above.

Sample and Procedures

I collected three rounds of data from 17 organizations that represent various industries in Korea. The surveys were first written in English and then translated into Korean using the back-translation process (Brislin, 1983). In the first round (Time 1), I distributed the survey instruments to 320 employees in 60 teams, of which 60 were team managers and 260 of their direct reports. Following Shin, Kim, Lee, and Bian (2012), the current study defined a work team as a group of members that followed three criteria: (1) formed a functional department unit in the organization, (2) worked together and interacted with each other on a permanent basis, and (3) reported directly to the same team manager. All the employees were aware of their team boundaries and who were their team members. The respondents evaluated all of their team members on the main variables of this study. After completing the surveys, the respondents mailed them directly to the researcher (me in this case). Participation was voluntary, and the respondents were assured of anonymity. I received 55 valid team manager surveys and 233 valid subordinate surveys which made the response rate of the first round 90%. Six months later (Time 2), I went back to the same companies for data collection of the main independent variables (interpersonal helping, group commitment, and competence) . I targeted the respondents and the teams that completed the first wave of data collection and received 282 surveys, of which 227 were from subordinates and 55 from team managers (a total sample size response rate of 88%). At Time 3 (another six months later), I went back to the same participants to assess dependent variables of my focus: relational vs. collective status, measures of which were counter-balanced.

Overall, the average team size was 5.13 members (ranging from 3 to 11), and team members' average tenure was around 5.90 years. This sample represented 17 organizations comprised of 10 manufacturing firms (59%; 29 teams; subsample size = 135), 4 R&D

organizations (23%; 16 teams; subsample size = 88), 2 research institutes (12%; 9 teams; subsample size = 51), and 1 media organization (6%; 1 team; subsample size = 8). The number of teams from each company ranged between 1 and 9 with an average of 3.24. The participants included 18.8% of females. Participants' mean age was 32.61 years (SD = 6.38), and had a mean company tenure of 5.90 years (SD = 5.67). The majority held a bachelor's degree (48.9%) or some form of graduate degrees (37.4%), and only a small number of participants (4.4%) were high school graduates¹.

Measures

Each item was rated with a six-point Likert scale (ranging from *strongly disagree/ not at all to strongly agree/ to a great extent*).

Respondents rated all of their team members on each variable based on their perception. At Time 1, participants completed surveys including their own demographic information which were used as control variables in the analyses below. Six months later (Time 2), participants rated each team member's interpersonal helping, competence, commitment based on their perception. At Time 3, respondents were once again asked to evaluate each team member's status on the two levels: relational status and collective status.

Interpersonal Helping. The measure of interpersonal helping was based on the five items ($\alpha = .86$) used in Flynn et al. (2006). The items are: "This person is willing to help me when needed", "This person asks for help from others but does not reciprocate in turn (reverse coded)", "This person is flexible and tries to accommodate others' needs", "This person is not

¹The demographics of employees at the different levels are as follows: 21.6 % of the subordinates were female; their average age was 31 years, and their average organizational tenure was 4 years. Of the team managers, 7.3 percent were female; their average age was 48 years, and their average organizational tenure was 23.83 years.

effective at giving helpful/constructive feedback to others (reverse coded)", and "This person is unwilling to sacrifice his/her self-interest for the good of others".

Competence. Competence entails the possession of skills, intelligence, confidence, and capabilities that bring about desired outcomes (Cuddy et al., 2008). Following this notion, I measured a target person's competence with the six items ($\alpha = .94$) that were developed by Cuddy et al. (2009). The items are: "As viewed by you, how *capable* is this person?", "As viewed by you, how *efficient* is this person?", "As viewed by you, how *competent* is this person?", "As viewed by you, how *confident*² is this person?", "As viewed by you, how *skillful* is this person", and "As viewed by you, how *intelligent* is this person?".

Group commitment. With regard to commitment, participants evaluated each team member with five items that were developed as team-oriented commitment by Ellemers et al. (1998). I assessed commitment with five items ($\alpha = .91$): "This person is prepared to do additional chores, when this benefits the team", "This person tries to invest effort into a good atmosphere in the team", "This person seems to feel at home among the colleagues at work", "In the work, this person lets him/herself guided by the goals of the team", and "When there is social activity in the team, this person usually helps to organize".

Relational and collective status. One's status conferred by the whole group (collective status) and one's status conferred by a specific evaluator (relational status) were measured with four items each ($\alpha = .96$; $\alpha = .97$, respectively) based on the definition of status (Blader & Chen, 2012); the items for collective status were "My teammates regard this person with great esteem", "My teammates hold this person in high regard", "This person has high status in our team", and "In our team, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position". The items for

² With regard to face validity, I checked reliability for the competence measure without a confidence item ($\alpha = .95$) The results demonstrated consistent patterns, showing that this measure predicts status with or without a confidence item ($\alpha = .95$; $\beta = .51$, $p < .001$ on collective status; $\beta = .16$, $p < .001$ on relational status).

relational status were: “In my eyes, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position”, “I hold this person in high regard”, “I hold this person with great esteem”, and “This person has high status in my mind”.

Additional Variables and Measures

The distinction between power and status has gained a great deal of attention in recent research, but has not been tested in the field. In addition, warmth, other than competence, was one other primary construct in the interpersonal perception literature (Fiske et al., 2002; Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007). For this reason, I added measures of these two constructs in the dissertation for exploratory purposes.

Power. Power was measured with three items ($\alpha = .95$); the items are: “This person holds a great deal of power within our team”, “This person is one of the most powerful individuals in our team”, and “This person controls resources that are important to our team”.

Warmth. My conjecture for the role of warmth is that it might serve as an alternative pathway, other than competence, for the effects of other-oriented behaviors such as interpersonal helping and group commitment. Warmth was measured with the six items in Cuddy et al. (2009; $\alpha = .98$). The items are: “As viewed by you, how *friendly* is this person?”, “As viewed by you, how *well-intentioned* is this person?”, “As viewed by you, how *trustworthy* is this person?”, “As viewed by you, how *warm* is this person?”, “As viewed by you, how *good-natured* is this person?”, “As viewed by you, how *sincere* is this person?”.

Control variables. I included education level, organizational level, gender, work tenure, and age of the respondents. Level of education was assessed using four categories (0= “high school,” 1 = “2-year college,” 2 = “4-year college,” and 3 = “graduate degree”). Organizational

level included four categories, coded 0 = “frontline employee”, 1 = “first-level manager”, 2 = “middle-level manager”, 3 = “senior manager”. Gender was coded with two categories (0 = “female”, and 1 = “male”). Age and work tenure of the participants were measured in years.

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and inter-scale correlations among the constructs examined.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	32.61	6.38												
2. Tenure	5.90	5.67	.82***											
3. Gender	.81	.39	.33***	.18**										
4. Education	2.29	.77	.10	.01	.05									
5. Org Level	1.05	1.04	.83***	.76***	.21**	.33***								
6. Competence	4.28	.79	.24***	.19**	.18**	-.06	.20**	($\alpha = .94$)						
7. Helping	4.48	.60	.004	.03	-.02	-.09	-.003	.38***	($\alpha = .86$)					
8. Commitment	4.19	.81	.14*	.13*	.16**	-.13*	.09	.75***	.53***	($\alpha = .91$)				
9. Relational Status	4.10	.73	.17**	.13*	.02	-.02	.15*	.48***	.79***	.50***	($\alpha = .97$)			
10. Collective Status	4.08	.82	.25***	.19**	.16**	-.09	.19**	.89***	.49***	.87***	.58***	($\alpha = .96$)		
11. Warmth	4.45	.80	.10†	.09	.09	-.11	.06	.74***	.51***	.87***	.48***	.84***	($\alpha = .98$)	
12. Power	3.67	.96	.47***	.40***	.18**	.07	.46***	.54***	.02	.34***	.19**	.48**	.21***	($\alpha = .95$)

Note. $N = 282$. Gender is coded as 0 = ‘female’, 1 = ‘male’; Education as 0 = ‘high school’, 1 = ‘2-year college’, 2 = ‘4-year college’, 3 = ‘graduate degree’; Org level as 0 = ‘frontline employee’, 1 = ‘first-level manager’, 2 = ‘middle-level manager’, 3 = ‘senior manager’. † $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Reliability coefficients are shown in parentheses on the diagonal\

ANALYSES

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to verify the empirical distinctiveness of the present measures. This CFA included the five latent factors (including competence, interpersonal helping, group commitment, relational status, and collective status) indicated by 24 items that were rated by the respondents. The hypothesized measurement model exhibited an acceptable fit with the observed data ($\chi^2 (df = 229) = 596.29, p < .001$; CFI = .96, GFI = .86, RMR = .026, RMSEA = .076). This five-factor model exhibited a significantly better fit than any alternative three-factor and four-factor models (χ^2 difference test, all $p < .001$). In the hypothesized three-factor model, all items loaded significantly on their corresponding latent factors (all $\beta > .76, p < .001$), indicating the convergent validity of the present measures.

Empirical Distinctiveness of Relational versus Collective Status

As a pretest, I also checked if the two types of status perceptions were empirically distinct from each other. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the eight items designed to measure the two status evaluations using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. As reported in Table 2, this procedure resulted in the distinctive two factors as initially expected. The results of the exploratory factor analysis clearly showed that relational status and collective status were distinguishable.

**Table 2. Scale Items Developed to Measure the Two Types of Status
And Their Factor Loadings**

Factor	Item	Factor loading	
		1	2
Relational status	In my eyes, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position.	.25	.84
	I hold this person in high regard.	.23	.88
	I hold this person with great esteem.	.23	.91
	This person has high status in my mind.	.20	.91
Collective status	In our team, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position.	.89	.26
	My teammates hold this person in high regard.	.90	.23
	My teammates regard this person with great esteem.	.89	.23
	This person has high status in our team.	.86	.20

Note. Factor loadings for items included in each of the two factors are indicated by bold fonts.

Social Relations Models

In this section, I tested (1) the main effects of competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment on relational vs. collective status, and (2) the interaction effect between competence and interpersonal helping as well as the interaction effect between competence and group commitment. To test the effects of interpersonal helping, group commitment, and competence on relational status and collective status based on a round-robin design, the dataset was analyzed with the software program SOREMO to implement a *Social Relations Model* (Kenny & Livi, 2009; Kenny & La Voie, 1984). The SRM analyses were conducted based on the syntax developed by Kenny and Livi (2009). In the current sample, every group member evaluates every other member who was involved in the same task-oriented team (Kenny & Livi, 2009). The Social Relations Model includes five different types of variance source: group (team), perceiver (evaluator), target (individual), relationship (dyad), and error (Kenny & Livi, 2009).

$$Y_{i,j,k} = G_k + P_{ik} + T_{jk} + R_{i,jk}$$

In this equation, $Y_{i,j,k}$ is the evaluation that person i makes of person j in group k . G_k is the group effect that represents the average rating in the group k ; P_{ik} is the perceiver effect for person i in group k , defined as the general evaluation tendency that person i makes toward others; T_{jk} is the target effect for person j in group k , the general ratings that other evaluators make for the person j ; and $R_{i,jk}$ is a residual term that includes the relationship effect and error.

SOREMO calculates target variance, which reflects the level of consensus among group members about a target person's quality or attribute. Since target variance represents the role of a target person on group member ratings, a higher level of target variance can be interpreted as a higher consensus of a target's characteristics among multiple evaluators. In more specific terms, relative target variance reflects the magnitude of consensus on the specific variable among group members (Back & Kenny, 2010). It represents the extent to which the variable can be explained as the proportion of total variance that can be accounted for by targets (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009b, p. 494).

Since the variables in this dataset were rated by different evaluators per target and per team, a type of an intra-class correlation used in this research is ICC(1) (Landers & Nelsen, 2013). Relative target variance calculated by SOREMO is basically the same value as ICC(1) here, which represents an effect size estimate revealing the extent to which judge's ratings were affected by targets (LeBreton & Senter, 2007, p.823). When a value of ICC(1) is higher than .25, it is usually considered as a "large" effect or high level of consensus among raters about a ratee's specific attribute (LeBreton & Senter, 2007). With the variance partitioning analysis, the relative target variance, in other words, ICC(1) was shown to be significant for the status items on each level of status (on average .39 for collective status; .27 for relational status for each scale;

Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). Moreover, the target effects of these items for each measure were also highly correlated with each other ($\alpha = .97$ for collective status; $\alpha = .96$ for relational status). Therefore, I was able to aggregate these items into one overall indicator of status which represented two distinctive measures of status within a group.

Robustness Check: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

In order to check the effects of status antecedents on relational status, I also ran a multiple linear regression analysis. Since the variables were structured in a round robin design, I ran the analysis with the whole dataset first. The results are depicted in Table 2 on the column Robustness Check: Relational Status. This analysis is theoretically appropriate for the measurement of relational status, because it represents a single target member tied to a single evaluator. The problem here is that because of the inherent nature of a round-robin design of the current data, a simple linear regression analysis fails to capture certain degrees of dependence among the observations from a given team. This problem could have been reduced if an intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC) were smaller than 5%, since smaller ICCs represent that an analysis for the grouped data, such as Social Relations Model would unnecessary (Bliese, 2000). However, as reported above, ICCs of the present variables are much higher than 5%. Indeed, the given ICCs are higher than .25. It means that conducting a multiple linear regression cannot capture team interdependence.

As an alternative analysis, I also used a **Random Thing Picker** (<http://andrew.hedges.name/experiments/random/pickone.html>) and selected one evaluator per one target person as a random representative of evaluators. For instance, when there are five teammates for a target person, I input the numbers (one, two, three...) in the Random Thing Picker, and if the team member two was selected randomly, the dyad between the target person

and the team member two (the evaluator two) was formed, removing the rest of the dyads between the target and the other evaluators. Then I reran 30 rounds of multiple regression analyses, making sure to use a random thing picker for each round to check the robustness of the given findings. As a result, the main effects of competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment demonstrated consistent robustness across 30 rounds: competence plays a positive role, interpersonal helping plays a significantly important (and positive) role, and group commitment barely has any role in the attainment of relational status. However, the predicted two-way interactions did not demonstrate a consistent pattern of statistical significance. The problem with this methodology is that massive data points are eliminated, and that the team interdependence issue is still not entirely solved.

RESULTS

Consistent with initial expectations, the results showed that all the predictors discussed above – competence, commitment, and helping – were positively related to collective status ($\beta = .52, t(1101) = 27.22, p < .001$; $\beta = .44, t(1101) = 23.86, p < .001$; $\beta = .04, t(1154) = 2.55, p = .01$, respectively). On the other hand, both competence and helping were positively associated with relational status ($\beta = .16, t(992) = 6.18, p < .001$; $\beta = .78, t(1264) = 34.84, p < .001$, respectively), whereas the effect of commitment was insignificant. (*n.s.*, $t(1190) = .58, p = .56$). Therefore, hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported: perceived competence helps a member attain both levels of status from group members. The empirical findings using Social Relations Model are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Effects of Competence and Motivations on Relational and Collective Status

Variables	DV		
	SRM	SRM	Robustness Check
	Relational Status	Collective Status	Relational Status
Step 1: Control variables			
Age	.02	.03	.13*
Tenure	-.001	-.001	.01
Gender	-.06	.17	.02
Education	-.07	-.17*	-.06†
Org Level	.05	-.07	-.003
Step 2: Main effects			
Competence	.16***	.52***	.17***
Helping	.78***	.04**	.69***
Commitment	.02	.44***	.01
Step 3: Two-way Interaction			
Competence*Helping	.06*	.01	.04
Competence*Commitment	.07***	.02†	-.03
Helping*Commitment	-.05*	.02*	.08***

Note. $N = 282$. † $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. SRM represents Social Relations Model.

To test hypotheses 2a and 2b, the current data was stacked by incorporating relational status and collective status into the same column, which was labeled as *Response*. Each level of status was marked distinctively as in a newly created variable, *Type*. In order to check whether there existed relatively differential impact of group commitment vs. interpersonal helping on relational versus collective status, the interaction terms were entered between the variable *Type* and all the other control variables and independent variables. The SRM analysis demonstrated that both two-way interaction effects between *Type* and group commitment, and between *Type*

and interpersonal helping were statistically significant ($F(1, 2107) = 245.83, p < .001$; $F(1, 2107) = 992.50, p < .001$, respectively). These results indicated that the effects of group commitment and interpersonal helping were significantly different depending on each level of status. Specifically, on the dependent variable of collective status, the effect of group commitment was stronger ($\beta = .44, SE = .02$), relative to its effect on the dependent variable of relational status ($\beta = .04, SE = .02$). In contrast, the impact of interpersonal helping was much greater on relational status ($\beta = .78, SE = .02$) than on collective status ($\beta = .02, SE = .02$). Therefore, Hypotheses 2a and 2b were supported accordingly.

To test hypothesized interaction effects (Hypotheses 3a and 3b), the relevant interaction terms were entered after the main effects were controlled. The two-way interaction effect of commitment and competence was shown to be significant for relational status ($\beta = .07, t(1271) = 4.04, p < .001$). For collective status, the two-way interaction effect of commitment and competence approached but did not quite achieve significance ($\beta = .02, t(1165) = 1.93, p = .051$). The two-way interactions of helping and competence were shown to be statistically significant for relational status, but insignificant for collective status ($\beta = .06, t(1153) = 2.12, p = .03$; *n.s.*, $t(1261) = .61, p = .54$, respectively). In keeping with the procedure outlined by Aiken and West, (1991), interaction effects were plotted with one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderators chosen to define the high and low groups. The two-way interaction between competence and interpersonal helping was plotted, which revealed the expected interaction pattern in support of Hypothesis 3a – that is, the effect of interpersonal helping was more pronounced when competence was high than low. Figure 3 shows this interaction pattern. On the other hand, the two-way interaction between competence and commitment on collective status was plotted to demonstrate an additive interaction, not multiplicative. The effect of group

commitment was not amplified nor diminished at a high level of competence, compared to the effect at a low level of competence. Thus, Hypothesis 3b about the interaction between competence and commitment on collective status was rejected. Perhaps this parallel pattern was due to a relatively large sample size (282 respondents with ratings in a round-robin design) or due to a marginal effect size.

The multiple linear regression analysis (with relational status at the dyadic level as a dependent variable) also demonstrated a similar pattern to the social relations analysis (with aggregated relational status as a dependent variable). To be more specific, competence and interpersonal helping were positively related to relational status ($\beta = .17, t(992) = 6.18, p < .001$; $\beta = .69, t(1264) = 34.84, p < .001$, respectively), while commitment showed no significant relationship to relational status, measured at an individual dyadic level (*n.s.*, $t(1190) = .58, p = .56$).

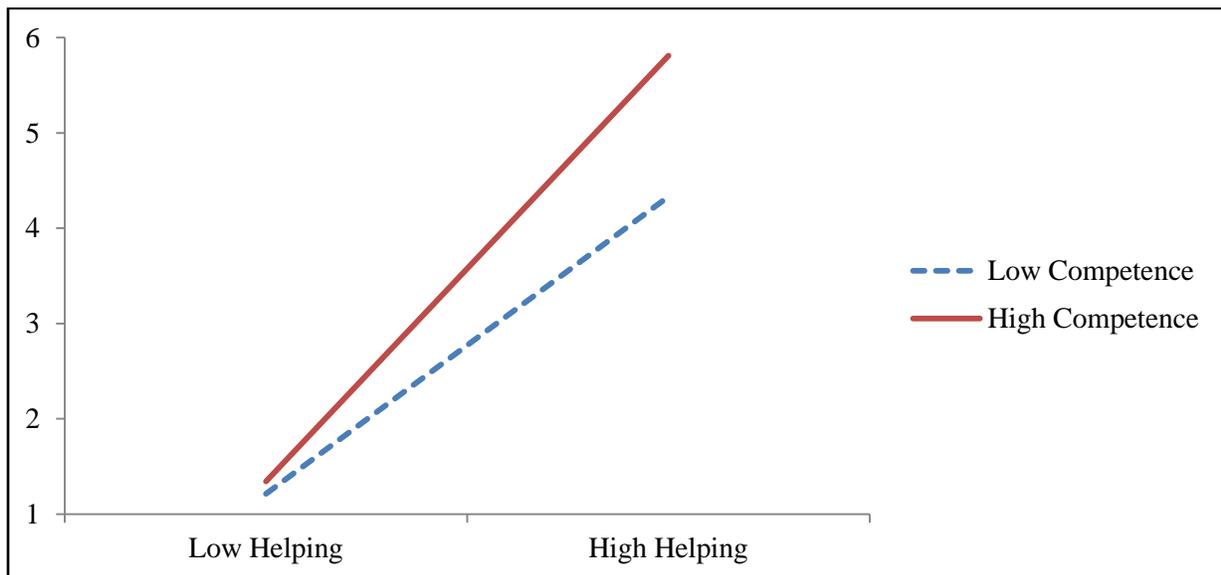


Figure 3. Interpersonal Helping*Competence Interaction Effect on Relational Status

POST-HOC ANALYSES

Power as a Dependent Variable

Power is defined as the extent to which an individual can control others' outcomes by granting and withholding valued resources (Fragale, Overbeck, & Neale, 2011, p. 767). Since power also consists of a crucial base in social hierarchical structures (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), a post-hoc analysis investigated whether patterns of the main findings in this study would differ when perceived power was a dependent variable, instead of status. Interestingly, both competence and group commitment significantly enhanced power (ICC(1) for power was .31; $\beta = .38$, $t(1227) = 10.21$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .19$, $t(1284) = 5.23$, $p < .001$, respectively). In contrast, the effect of interpersonal helping was negatively related to power ($\beta = -.06$, $t(1239) = -2.00$, $p = .046$). This finding implies that an individual's willingness to provide help to others in interpersonal relations makes the individual lose power. Table 4 depicts the effects of competence and motivations on power in comparison with their effects on relational status and collective status through Social Relations Model analyses.

Table 4. Effects of Competence and Motivations on Power

Variables	DV		
	SRM	SRM	SRM
	Relational Status	Collective Status	Power
Step 1: Control variables			
Age	.02	.03	.13*
Tenure	-.001	-.001	.01
Gender	-.06	.17	.02
Education	-.07	-.17*	-.06†
Org Level	.05	-.07	-.003
Step 2: Main effects			
Competence	.16***	.52***	.38***
Helping	.78***	.04**	-.06*
Commitment	.02	.44***	.19***
Step 3: Two-way Interaction			
Competence*Helping	.06*	.01	-.04
Competence*Commitment	.07***	.02†	.06**
Helping*Commitment	-.05*	.02*	.05†

Note. $N = 282$. † $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. SRM represents Social Relations Model.

In addition, a two-way interaction effect of commitment and competence on power was shown to be significant ($\beta = .06$, $t(1252) = 2.77$, $p = .006$). The interaction pattern plotted in Figure 4 demonstrates that competence and commitment function in a complementary manner, such that the effect of competence on power was amplified in the presence of a high level of group commitment.

To compare power against status, I did a comparison between power and collective status. When comparing power vs. collective status, the results demonstrated a marginally significant two-way interaction effect between *Type* and competence and a significant interaction

effect between *Type* and commitment ($F(1, 2133) = 3.40, p = .065$; $F(1, 2133) = 107.58, p < .001$, respectively). The statistical significance of the interaction effect between *Type* and commitment represented that group commitment had a stronger effect on collective status than on power ($\beta = .44, SE = .02$ for collective status; $\beta = .19, SE = .02$ for power). The results emphasize the important role of group commitment in one's attainment of collective status, although commitment was shown to be a crucial indicator for both power and collective status.

In conclusion, the posit-hoc analyses conducted suggest that there is a clear distinction between two different types of status and power in the cognitions and perceptions of evaluators, in line with the distinction scholars in the fields have been advocating.

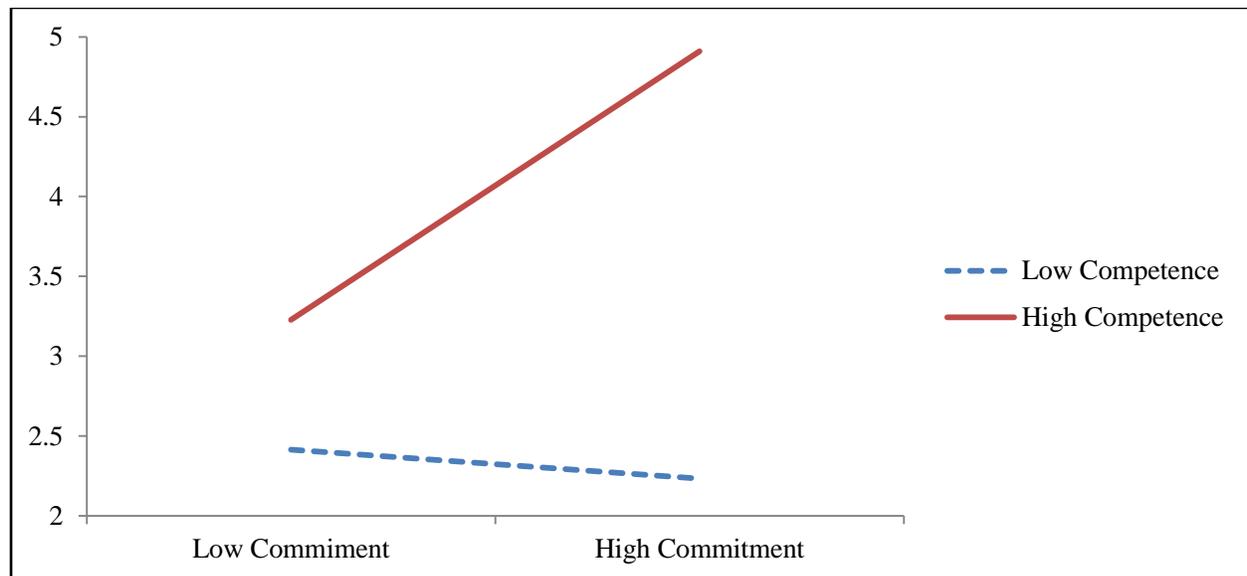


Figure 4. Commitment*Competence Interaction Effect on Power

The Moderating Effect of Gender

According to a number of previous studies, gender has acted a moderator that amplifies or diminishes effects of status antecedents on status (e.g. Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008; Judge, Livingston, & Hurst, 2012; Ridgeway, 1982). I ran a post-hoc analysis with Social Relations

Model to test the moderating effect of gender. On relational status, the two-way interaction between competence and gender was shown to be marginally significant ($F(1, 1052) = 3.15, p = .076$). In Figure 5, the interaction plot demonstrated that at a low level of competence, men are likely to gain more relational status than women. In contrast, at a high level of competence, women tend to attain higher status at the relational level. The other two interactions, between interpersonal helping and gender, and between group commitment and gender were insignificant ($F(1, 1180) = 1.12, p = .29$; $F(1, 1194) = 1.82, p = .18$, respectively).

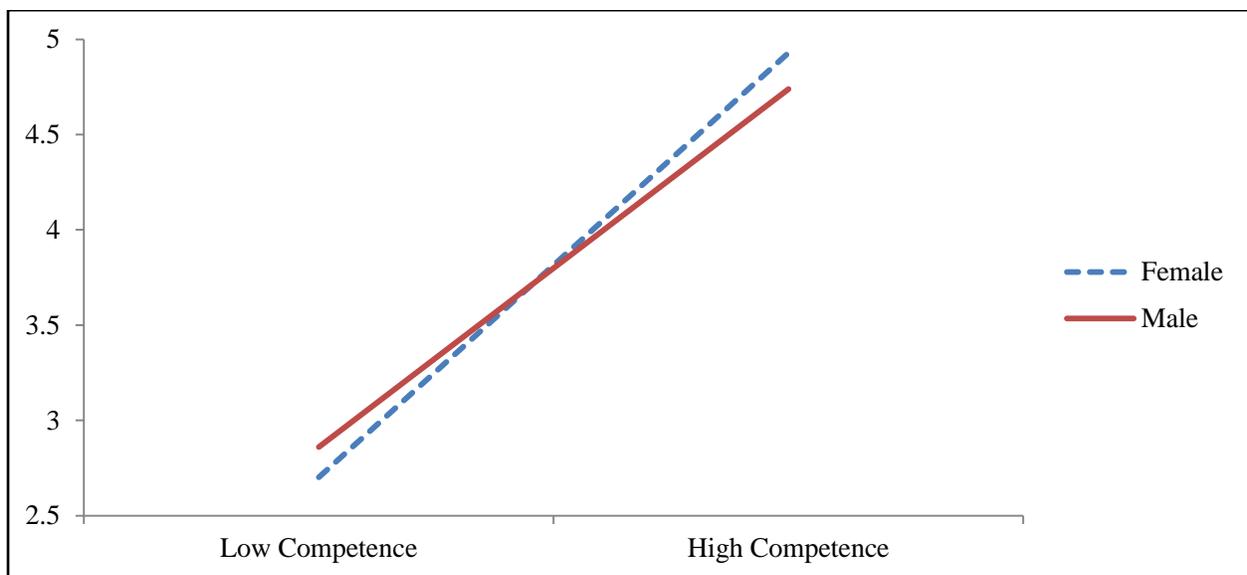


Figure 5. Competence*Gender Interaction Effect on Relational Status

On collective status, the interaction between group commitment and gender was significant ($F(1, 1264) = 3.91, p = .048$). According to the interaction plot (see Figure 6), men who are low on group commitment are penalized more than women. Conversely, men who are committed to the group gain higher status at the collective level compared to women. The other two interactions, between interpersonal helping and gender, and between competence and gender were insignificant ($F(1, 1259) = .38, p = .54$; $F(1, 1100) = .05, p = .82$).

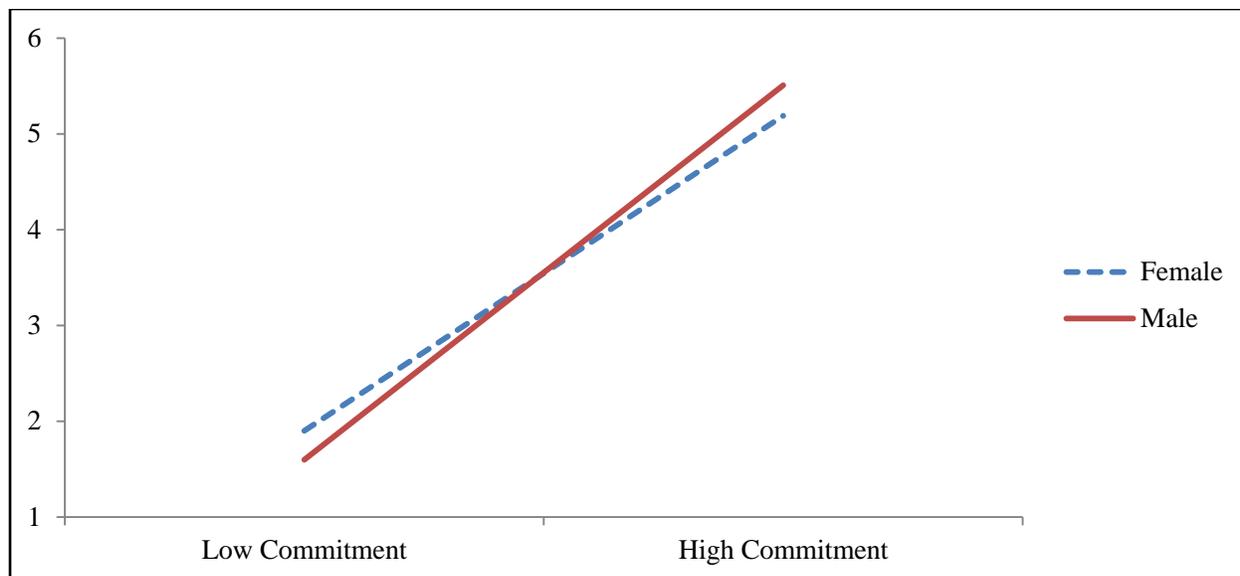


Figure 6. Commitment*Gender Interaction Effect on Collective Status

On power, none of the effects are significant.

Warmth as an Alternative Pathway

Warmth has been argued by Fiske and her colleagues (e.g. Fiske et al., 2008) to be one of the two main dimensions for judging others (along with competence), especially in affective and behavioral reactions (Cuddy et al., 2011; Fiske et al., 2008). Warmth captures a person’s general interpersonal tendencies of friendliness, helpfulness, sincerity, trustworthiness, and morality (Cuddy et al., 2009). Interpersonal helping and group commitment, on the other hand, are more person- and group-specific in a given organizational setting. In other words, a friendly person may not provide a particular group member with help or may not be more committed to a particular group with whom he/she is associated at work. For this reason, it is likely that warmth is distinctive from interpersonal helping or group commitment. However, it is possible that warmth may be the major pathway to one’s status attainment along with competence, through

which interpersonal helping and group commitment exert their impact. Based on these expectations, post hoc analyses were run to test the effect of warmth.

Effects of Warmth and Competence

To begin, warmth and competence were included as the main independent variables whereas relational status, collective status, and power were dependent variables. The analysis with Social Relations Model demonstrated that competence has universally powerful effects on all three dependent variables ($\beta = .24$, $t(1099) = 5.97$, $p < .001$ for relational status; $\beta = .56$, $t(949) = 26.44$, $p < .001$ for collective status; $\beta = .51$, $t(1192) = 13.31$, $p < .001$ for power).

Warmth has significant effects on both types of status, but not on power ($\beta = .22$, $t(1199) = 5.48$, $p < .001$ for relational status; $\beta = .39$, $t(1024) = 18.75$, $p < .001$ for collective status; *n.s.*, $\beta = -.06$, $t(1263.77) = -1.57$, $p = .12$ for power). Therefore, while competence helps an individual attain status *and* power, warmth plays an effective role in enhancing one's status, but not power.

Table 5 describes the effects of warmth and competence on given dependent variables.

Table 5. Effects of Warmth and Competence on Relational Status, Collective Status, and Power

	DV		
	Relational Status	Collective Status	Power
Step 1: Control variables			
Age	.02	.03	.13*
Tenure	-.001	-.001	.01
Gender	-.06	.17	.02
Education	-.07	-.17*	-.06†
Org Level	.05	-.07	-.003
Step 2: Main effects			
Competence	.24***	.56***	.51***
Warmth	.22***	.39***	-.06
Step 3: Two-way Interaction			
Competence*Warmth	.09***	.04*	.05*

Note. $N = 282$. † $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Next, the two-way interaction effect between competence and warmth was entered in the analysis. The interaction turned out to be statistically significant on all three dependent variables of relational status, collective status, and power, but the patterns were different. As Figure 7 illustrates, when competence is high, warmth has a strong positive effect on relational status; in contrast, when competence is low, warmth has a minimal (and negative) effect on relational status. This pattern supports the important role of competence in attaining high status, in support of the same conclusion in the past research. .

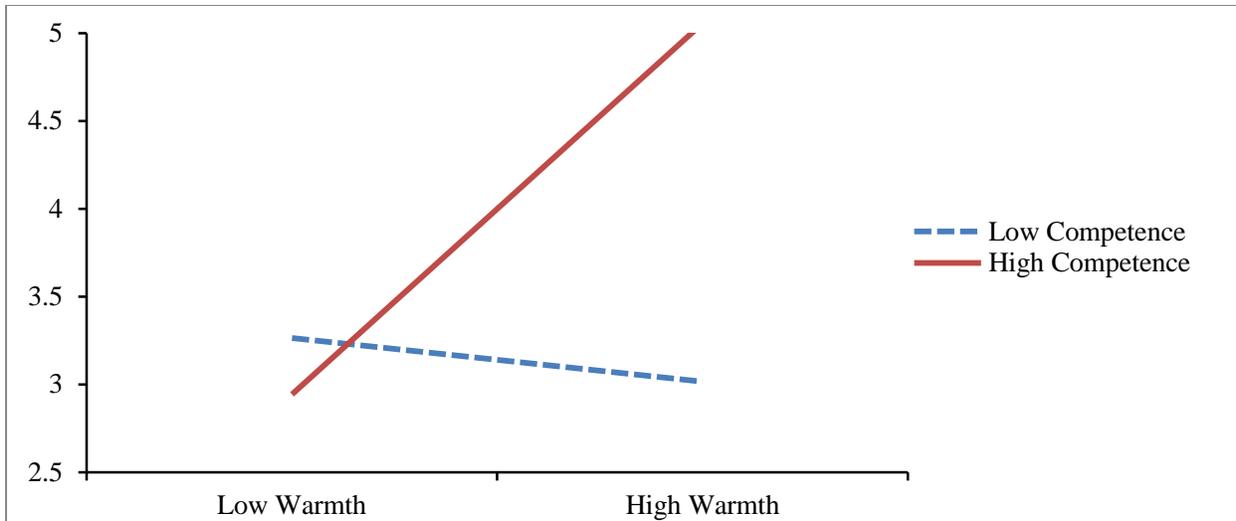


Figure 7. Competence*Warmth Interaction Effect on Relational Status

Similarly, on collective status, the effect of warmth is more pronounced when competence is high than when it is low (see Figure 8).

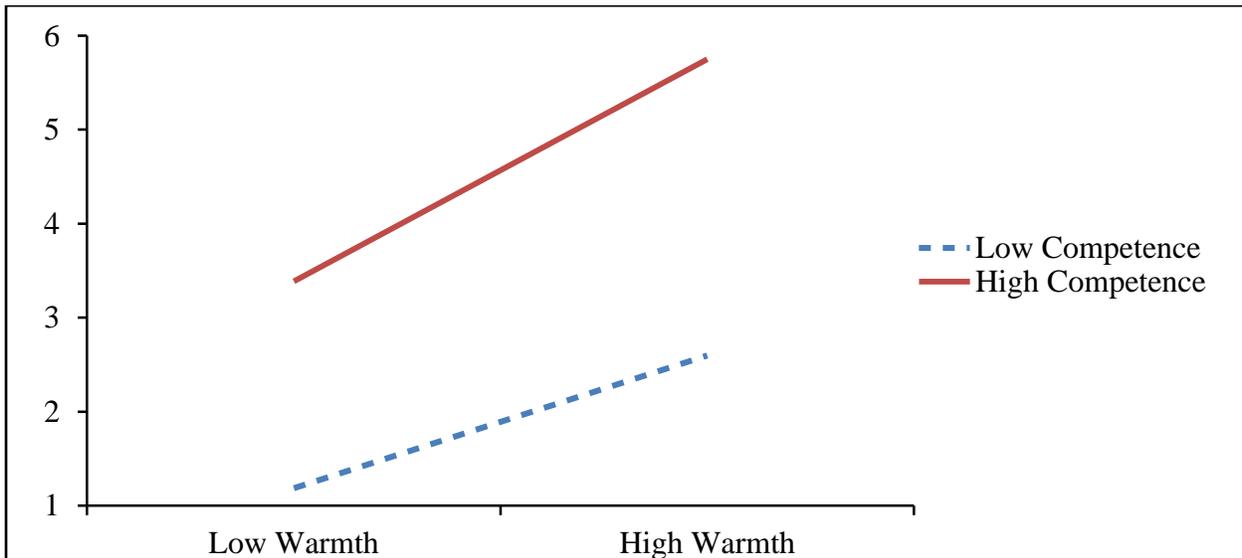


Figure 8. Competence*Warmth Interaction Effect on Collective Status

On power as a dependent variable, the effect of warmth is more pronounced when competence is low than when it is high – a pattern far different from what’s been presented above on relational and collective status. Specifically, as illustrated in Figure 9, it appears that as long

as individuals are highly competent, they are perceived as powerful regardless of the level of warmth. In contrast, among low competent individuals, their warmth in fact has a negative impact on their perceived status: that is, low competent individuals are perceived to have lower power when they have high warmth as opposed to low warmth.

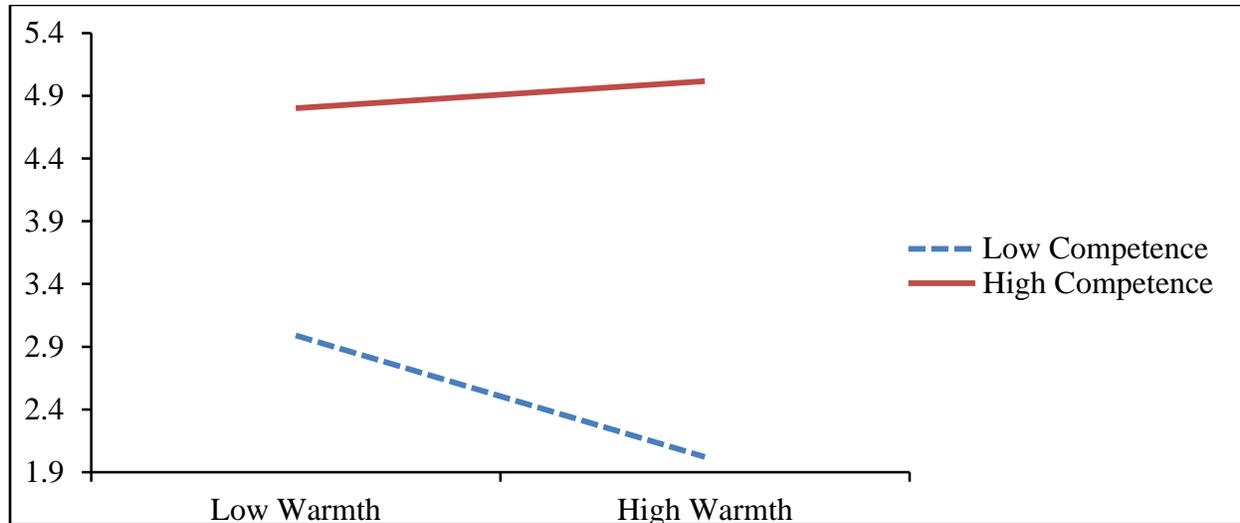


Figure 9. Competence*Warmth Interaction Effect on Power

Structural Equation Modeling with All the Relevant Variables of Interest

According to the results from the post-hoc analysis described above, warmth, along with competence, was shown to have a significant impact on one's attainment of relational status, collective status, and power. I then ran a structural equation modeling (SEM) with Amos to test whether interpersonal helping and group commitment are closely related to warmth or these other-oriented motivations work distinctively from warmth. As a start, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, including all the relevant variables of interest. It included seven latent factors with 33 indicators: competence, interpersonal helping, group commitment, warmth,

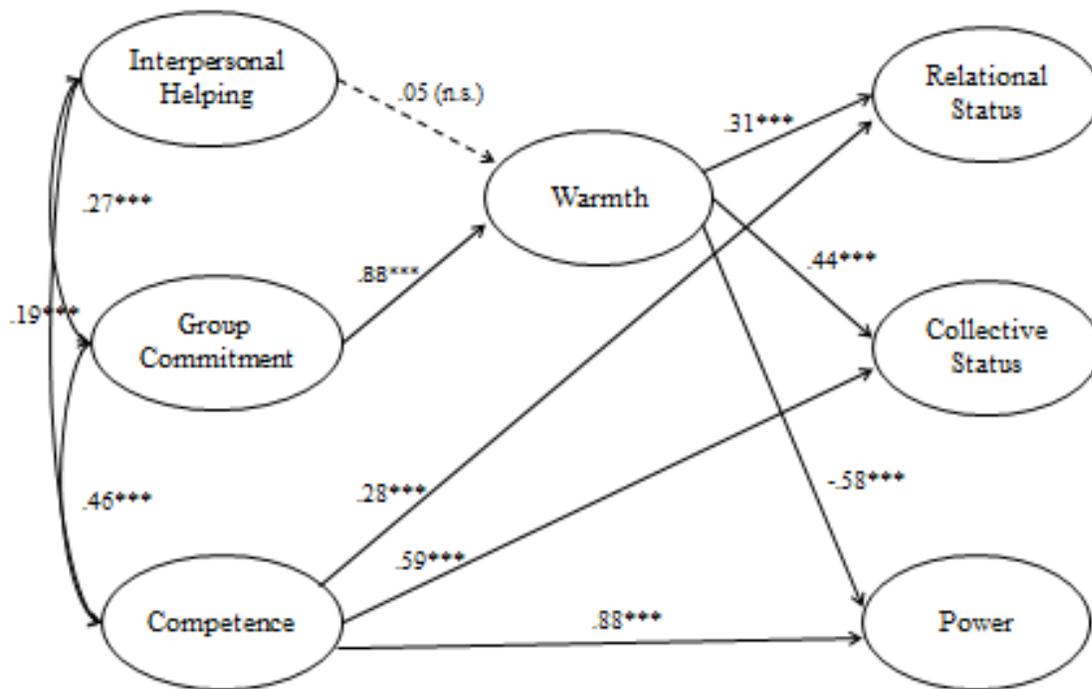
relational status, collective status, and power. The measurement model demonstrated a reasonable fit ($\chi^2 (df = 457) = 1139.01, p < .001$; CFI = .95, GFI = .81, RMR = .03, RMSEA = .073). All factor loadings were statistically significant (all $\beta > .76; p < .001$). The fit of the seven-factor model was still better than the fit of six-factor models, one for converging warmth and interpersonal helping, the other for converging warmth and group commitment (χ^2 difference test, all $p < .001$). Also, compared to the five-factor model that converges warmth, interpersonal helping, and group commitment all together as a single latent variable representing one's general accommodating orientations, the seven-factor model of the focus had a significantly better fit (χ^2 difference test, all $p < .001$). Compared to the two-factor model that converges warmth, interpersonal helping, and group commitment as a single latent variable representing one's general accommodating orientations, the seven-factor model of the focus had a significantly better fit (χ^2 difference test, all $p < .001$). The results of confirmatory factor analysis support the post-hoc predictions about the distinctiveness between other-oriented motivations and warmth.

Since the confirmatory factor analysis with the seven-factor model resulted in an acceptable fit, I was able to run the structural equation modelling to test the post-hoc hypothesized model. In this model, it was presumed that warmth and competence would be the main pathways to components of social hierarchy, and that interpersonal helping and group commitment will work as proxies for warmth. This model included relational status, collective status, and power as dependent variables. The post-hoc hypothesized model demonstrated a fair fit ($\chi^2 (df = 471) = 1488.89, p < .001$, CFI = .93, GFI = .77, NFI = .90, RMR = .06, RMSEA = .088). An alternative theoretical model included warmth and competence as proxies for interpersonal helping and group commitment, assuming that competent or warm individuals are likely to offer more help or commitment to their group, had a marginal fit worse than the

originally theorized model here ($\chi^2 (df = 472) = 1585.16, p < .001, CFI = .92, GFI = .73, NFI = .89, RMR = .11, RMSEA = .092$). Another alternative model that involves interpersonal helping, group commitment, warmth, and competence as all independent variables showed a relatively better fit than that of the original model ($\chi^2 (df = 465) = 1224.74, p < .001, CFI = .94, GFI = .80, NFI = .91, RMR = .037, RMSEA = .076$). However, as in the theoretical framework, I was interested in the relationships between warmth and prosocial motivations, not in the four factors as independent variables. Lastly, when I added the direct paths from prosocial motivations in the original model, it demonstrated a better fit ($\chi^2 (df = 465) = 1224.74, p < .001, CFI = .94, GFI = .80, NFI = .91, RMR = .037, RMSEA = .076$). The last alternative model also improved the model fit significantly ($\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df = 6) = 264.15, p < .001$). Statistical tests of the hypothesized Relationship are depicted in Figure 10 for the original post-hoc model and in Figure 11 for the alternative model that includes the two direct paths linking from prosocial motivations to dependent variables.

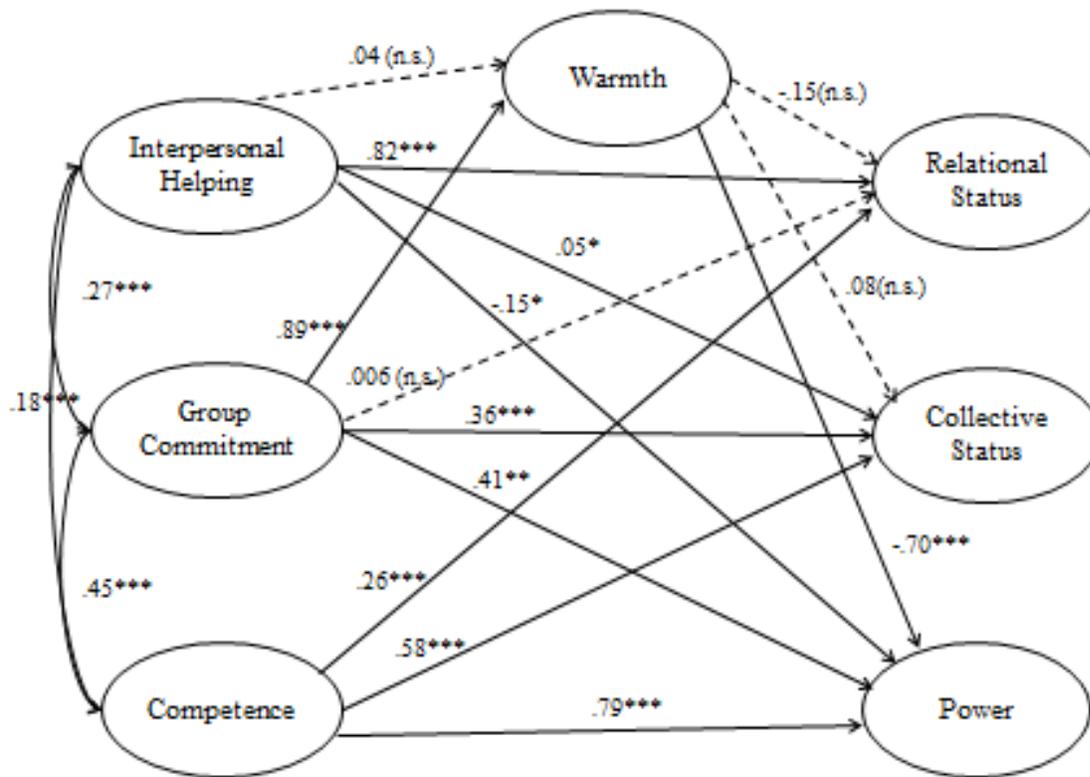
In the original model, I expected that interpersonal helping and group commitment would be predictors of warmth. According to Figure 10, group commitment worked as a proxy for warmth ($\beta = .88, p < .001$), but not interpersonal helping ($\beta = .05, n.s.$). Here, warmth connects group commitment effectively to all three dependent variables: relational status, collective status, and power ($\beta = .31, p < .001; \beta = .44, p < .001; \beta = -.58, p < .001$, respectively). However, in the alternative model in Figure 11, the effect of warmth on components of social hierarchy washed out except its effect on power, when direct paths of group commitment and interpersonal helping were added. Interpersonal helping exhibited statistically significant associations with relational status, collective status, and power ($\beta = .82, p < .001; \beta = .05, p < .01; \beta = -.15, p < .01$, respectively). On the other hand, group commitment was interconnected to collective status and

power, but not to relational status ($\beta = .36, p < .001$; $\beta = .41, p < .001$; $\beta = .006, n.s.$, respectively). Group commitment was still associated with warmth ($\beta = .89, p < .001$), but since the coefficient barely differs from the original model, which represents that warmth does not play a role as a mediator linking group commitment to dependent variables. As a consequence, we cannot conclude that helping toward others and commitment toward one's group may work as proxies for warmth. Rather, interpersonal helping and group commitment function as more essential determinants of status and power as direct routes than warmth.



Note. Solid lines represent statistically significant results. Dotted lines represent statistically insignificant results. *** $p < .001$

Figure 10. Structural Relationships among Competence, Commitment, Interpersonal Helping, Warmth, and Components of Social Hierarchy: The Original Model (post-hoc)



Note. Solid lines represent statistically significant results. Dotted lines represent statistically insignificant results. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$, *** $p < .001$.

Figure 11. Structural Relationships among Competence, Commitment, Interpersonal Helping, Warmth, and Components of Social Hierarchy: The Alternative Model (post-hoc)

DISCUSSION

Empirical findings from a longitudinal field survey study involving 282 employees and 55 teams across multiple industries in Korea supported most of my theoretical predictions: the distinctive effects of competence and motivational factors such as interpersonal helping and

group commitment on status and the distinction between relational and collective status. As expected, competence played a consistently important role in the enhancement of one's status. Individuals with a high level of competence are likely to attain both types of status: relational and collective. The significant impact of competence emerged consistently across a series of analyses including additional independent variables such as warmth. Nevertheless, the current dissertation highlighted the crucial role of other-oriented motivations on status attainment. In addition, results supported my theoretical reasoning that different types of other-oriented motivations (interpersonal helping and group commitment) would contribute differentially to attainment of their corresponding types of status (relational vs. collective). Specifically, for relational status, the effect of interpersonal helping was significant (and stronger than that of competence) whereas commitment was not significant at all. For collective status, on the other hand, all three independent variables of competence, interpersonal helping, and group commitment played significant roles; however, group commitment had a much bigger effect than interpersonal helping. .Therefore, the results support the important role motivations play in status attainment (in addition to competence). Moreover, my findings also support the theoretical distinction between relational and collective status - people make a clear distinction between status at the interpersonal level and status at the collective level. Depending on the type of status one wishes to gain, different strategies (relational or collective) need to be considered.

Theoretical Implications

The present study makes important contributions to the status literature.

First, in most status studies, competence has been emphasized as the ultimate pathway to status attainment. Relatively less research has been conducted to examine the role of other-

oriented motivation on status,. Moreover, even among those that have investigated the effects of motivation on status dynamics, they often fail to differentiate value derived from other-oriented motivations from value derived from competence. My dissertation is among the first to simultaneously examine distinct and joint effects of status and other-oriented motivations in a single study.

The importance of other-oriented motivation in our understanding of status attainment is highlighted by both the main effects of interpersonal helping and group commitment as well as their moderating effects on competence. Specifically, my results suggest that if we only consider competence alone without consideration of motivation, our prediction with regard to status ranking in a group might be incorrect. For example, on both relational and collective status, whether a highly competent individual shows high or low interpersonal helping makes a sharp difference in that individual's status standing.

Second, across various domains of social psychological research, scholars have made clear the important distinction between relational level motivation and collective/group level motivation. Findings in my dissertation provide additional evidence for this distinction. Specifically, the correlation between the two is .53. In addition, findings suggest that the effective strategies to achieve either also differ: interpersonal helping (motivated by relational concerns) played a more important role in relational status attainment whereas group commitment was more impactful on collective status. Said differently, when it comes to group status ranking, group-committed individuals are more valuable than "interpersonally nice" individuals who provide help to certain individuals through their personal interactions . On the other hand, people grant higher status to those who help them individually than those who do not.

It is worth noting that while group commitment does not have significant impact on relational status, relational motivation does have a significant effect on collective status. My speculation is that the target individual who was seen as helpful to a given respondent might have automatically triggered a halo effect on the respondent due to self-relevance of that helpful behavior to the given respondent, hence a higher group status evaluation as well.

Third, the current findings clearly suggest that people can distinguish between an individual's collective and relational status. These results emphasize the need for a more thorough understanding of status. The empirical findings presented here challenge the inherent assumptions embedded in the status literature, in particular the prevailing belief that status hierarchy emerges based on consensus. This study proposes a theoretical framework and provides empirical findings that each group member may hold different beliefs and evaluations about status rankings within a group. In addition, formal hierarchy – organizational levels that represent ordinal dimensions of status as frequently conceptually constructed and methodologically measured in prior research – does not correlate strongly with the two types of status (.15 for relational status; .19 for collective status). These small but still significant correlations are also aligned with the notion that the conception of status is related to formal hierarchy (Anderson & Kennedy, 2012). Following the definition, status originates from the extent to which individuals are held in respect and admiration. Differences in regard and esteem developed through a series of interactions might have resulted in these findings. Future research needs to be clear about the type of hierarchy of its theoretical focus because as my dissertation suggests, relational status, collective status, rank, and power are distinct constructs of hierarchy..

Fourth, I explored and compared effects of competence, interpersonal helping, warmth, and group commitment on power vs. status (relational vs. collective). The results showed

differences between power and status, in support of recent calls for the need to differentiate between them (Blader & Chen, 2012). For example, while results on both relational and collective status suggested a positive effect of interpersonal helping on status, the effect of interpersonal helping was negative on power. Moreover, the interaction effect of warmth and competence on relational status showed that when competence of an individual is high, warmth makes more of a positive difference on that individual's status attainment than when competence is low. In contrast, the two way interaction of warmth and competence showed a very different pattern on power, showing that as long as an individual is highly competent, he or she is perceived as powerful regardless of his/her level of warmth. Among low competent individuals, their warmth in fact has negative impact on relational status, i.e., lowering perceived power when they have high warmth as opposed to low warmth.

Finally, warmth appears to be distinct from interpersonal helping and commitment in its effects on relational status, collective status, and power. For example, warmth correlates more strongly with group commitment than interpersonal helping (.87 and .51 respectively). Moreover, all three variables had significantly positive effects on relational and collective status but only interpersonal helping and commitment, not warmth, had significantly positive effects on power. However, warmth had a significant effect on power (but in the negative direction) only when competence was low; no significant effect of warmth on power when competence was high. In sum, while all are other-oriented motivations, warmth, interpersonal helping, and group commitment exert fairly distinct effects. Hence, not all other-oriented, pro-social orientations are equal. Future research needs to conceptually specify the type of motivational orientation most relevant to the hierarchy variable examined and measure its effect appropriately.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

My dissertation has a number of limitations that I will outline below. While pointing them out, I will also call for future research on these matters.

First, one strength of the current study is that it is among the first to examine status dynamics in the field organizational setting, unlike most past research almost exclusively conducted among student samples and in the lab. This strength, however, is also a weakness as there was no random assignment of participants in various conditions and my independent variables were not manipulated, resulting in low internal validity of the relationships between independent and dependent variables. It will be worthwhile for future research to combine both experimental and field studies to further examine the predicted relationships examined in this study.

Second, this study was conducted in South Korea. As a result, the findings might not be generalizable to samples in other countries such as the U.S. Indeed, a recent study by Torelli et al. (2014) found that warmth is a more powerful predictor of status in a collectivistic culture, while competence is a more effective indicator of status in individualistic culture. Hence, status antecedents in one culture may not work in another. A study of such is scant in the current hierarchy literature. It will be important for future research to compare and contrast how status antecedents (in particular, various motivational tendencies together with competence) might differ depending on context in general, and national culture in particular.

Third, conceptual arguments and empirical findings of this dissertation make clear distinction between relational and collect status. While making important contributions to our understanding of social hierarchy, I did not specify the boundary conditions under which the

differences between relational status and collective status might be more or less pronounced. To begin, I chose five individuals whose relational and collective status exhibited the highest level of discrepancy, and also five others whose relational status barely differed from collective status in the present sample. Then I conducted qualitative interviews about team characteristics such as team structure and team climate. For the teams that had individuals with the highest discrepancy ratings between relational status and collective status, the answers in common were that their team hierarchy was relatively steep or they had a dominant leader who did not tolerate challenging questions from subordinates. By contrast, the teams with individuals whose relational status converged with their collective status had a relatively horizontal team hierarchy, had informal/friendly relationships (e.g., through regular dinners), or had interdependent tasks and thus frequently interacted with one another. Accordingly, future research may examine effects of group cohesion, task interdependence, leadership style, and network structure on the convergence vs. divergence of relational vs. collective status ratings among group members, and how the convergence vs. divergence of these two types of status affect important group and organizational outcomes such as team performance and turnover rate.

CONCLUSION

My dissertation extended the focus of hierarchy literature on competence as a key determinant of status attainment to include important motivational factors such as interpersonal helping and group commitment. While doing so, I also theoretically and empirically differentiated relational status and collective status, a distinction that was blurred in past empirical research on status. Findings support the important role of other-oriented motivations such as interpersonal helping, group commitment, and warmth, and the distinction between relational status vs. collective status. Accordingly, it will be beneficial for future research on

status attainment to incorporate other-oriented motivations (in addition to competence) and specify the relevant type of status in its design.

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APPENDIX A: LIST OF SCALE ITEMS USED IN THE CURRENT STUDY

Interpersonal Helping (Flynn et al., 2006)

1. This person is willing to help me when needed.
2. This person asks for help from others but does not reciprocate in turn (reverse coded).
3. This person is flexible and tries to accommodate others' needs.
4. This person is not effective at giving helpful/constructive feedback to others (reverse coded).
5. This person is unwilling to sacrifice his/her self-interest for the good of others.

Group commitment (Ellemers et al., 1998)

1. This person is prepared to do additional chores, when this benefits the team.
2. This person tries to invest effort into a good atmosphere in the team.
3. This person seems to feel at home among the colleagues at work.
4. In the work, this person lets him/herself guided by the goals of the team.
5. When there is social activity in the team, this person usually helps to organize.

Competence (Cuddy et al., 2009)

1. As viewed by you, how *capable* is this person?
2. As viewed by you, how *efficient* is this person?
3. As viewed by you, how *competent* is this person?
4. As viewed by you, how *confident* is this person?
5. As viewed by you, how *skillful* is this person?
6. As viewed by you, how *intelligent* is this person?

Relational Status (modified from the scales used by Blader & Chen, 2012)

1. In my eyes, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position.

2. I hold this person in high regard.
3. I hold this person with great esteem.
4. This person has high status in my mind.

Collective Status (modified from the scales used by Blader & Chen, 2012)

1. In our team, this person has high prestige attached to his/her position.
2. My teammates hold this person in high regard.
3. My teammates regard this person with great esteem.
4. My teammates hold this person in high regard.

Power (Blader & Chen, 2012)

1. This person holds a great deal of power within our team.
2. This person is one of the most powerful individuals in our team.
3. This person controls resources that are important to our team.

Warmth (Cuddy et al., 2009)

1. As viewed by you, how *friendly* is this person?
2. As viewed by you, how *well-intentioned* is this person?
3. As viewed by you, how *trustworthy* is this person?
4. As viewed by you, how *warm* is this person?
5. As viewed by you, how *good-natured* is this person?
6. As viewed by you, how *sincere* is this person?