

MORE IS NOT ALWAYS BEST:
REBUILDING THE FOUNDATION
OF WORKPLACE STATUS

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Abstract: In this dissertation I address the assumption within workplace status research that more status is beneficial. I suggest that it is not more status that is best, but the right amount of status. Using a person-environment (P-E fit) perspective, I argue that the joint effect of needed and received status may impact workplace outcomes, and without considering both needed and received, we may have an incomplete view of the effects of workplace status. Specifically, I suggest that having more status than desired may be detrimental.

Prior to examining workplace status using a P-E fit perspective, I address a threat to knowledge accumulation. Workplace status is currently defined and measured using related concepts, thus clouding the distinctiveness of status. Additionally, as the concepts used to define workplace status shift study to study, the content domain of status shifts, limiting knowledge accumulation. I clarify the definition of workplace status using an interview study and prior literature. I then use this definition to develop a measure of workplace status that does not rely on others constructs. I conduct a subject matter expert review, a working adults review, and an assessment of the measurement model and nomological net to support the resulting five-item workplace status measure. This new definition and measure should allow for reduced definitional and measurement inconsistency and thus more streamlined knowledge accumulation.

Using this measure, I test and support my idea that the joint effect of needed and received workplace status impacts relevant outcomes. Specifically, while having less status than desired (deficiency) is detrimental to outcomes such as job satisfaction, have more status than desired (excess) is also detrimental. My results suggest that the assumption that more workplace status is best may be unfounded. By incorporating a P-E fit perspective I demonstrate that the effect of status varies depending on the joint effect of needed and received status, giving us a more complete picture of the effects of status at work.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the dawn of humanity people have consciously and subconsciously differentiated amongst one another via social evaluations. Social scientists have long been interested in the concept of status (e.g. Barnard, 1938; Maslow, 1943), and in recent years scholars have increasingly incorporated status within organizational research (e.g. Djurdjevic et al., 2017; Gibson, Harari, & Marr, 2018; Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015; Kakkar, Sivanathan, & Gobel, 2020; Neeley & Dumas, 2016, Ouyang, Xu, Huang, Liu, & Tang, 2018). Such research has found that status is a relevant workplace concept that influences prominent outcomes such as job satisfaction (Porter, 1962) and individual performance (Bothner, Kim, & Smith, 2012). Out of such work an assumption has arisen: increasing status is related to positive outcomes, and thus people regularly seek additional status (Duguid & Goncolo, 2015). In this dissertation I challenge this assumption and suggest we currently have a limited view of how status impacts workplace outcomes. Research has found that a person's status is not stable overtime, and it is possible to both increase status (Pettit, Doyle, Lount, & To, 2016) and lose status (Marr & Thau, 2014). The assumption that people strive for status stems from

research findings that suggest status has many benefits within the workplace and in life in general (e.g. Adler, Epel, Castellazzo, & Ickovics, 2000; Barkow, 1975; Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980; Howell et al., 2015; Marmot, 2004; Roberson, Galvin, & Charles, 2007). Given the numerous positive repercussions of high status, status attainment is considered a fundamental human motive (Anderson, Hildreth, & Howland, 2015) and may have an evolutionary component due to the need for survival (Barkow, 1975).

Conceptualizing status as a fundamental need implies that, much like other fundamental needs (e.g. autonomy), people desire a certain amount that is right for them. Thus, it may not be that people are focused on obtaining high status, but instead seek to achieve a level of status that matches their desired level of status. In other words, perhaps it's not that people strive for status, but that people strive for the 'right amount' of status. Such a perspective calls into question the assumption that more status results in positive outcomes. No research has examined the joint effect of needed and received status, and without doing so, we may have an incomplete view of why status matters in the workplace and how it effects outcomes.

I suggest that there is variance in the amount of status that people desire, and that this variance should be considered when examining the effects of status in the workplace. Using the theoretical perspective that status is a fundamental human need (Anderson et al., 2015; Dweck, 2017), I apply the person-environment (P-E) fit paradigm (Edwards & Van Harrison, 1993) to examine the joint effects of status needed and status received. As status is a fundamental human motive (Anderson et al., 2015) and a resource in the workplace (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014), it would be expected that individuals who do not receive the amount of status they need (deficiency) experience negative outcomes. Counter to literature suggesting

that having more status is beneficial, using Expectations States Theory, which argues that additional expectations and responsibilities are associated with status (Berger, Conner, & Fizek, 1974; Berger, Wagner, & Zelditch, 1985), I suggest that there are negative consequences of having more status than desired (excess). An individual who wants a moderate amount of status within their workplace and is instead conferred with high status may experience stress and burnout due to the expectations and responsibility associated with having high status (Bendersky & Shah, 2013). Lastly, I propose that when people need and receive the same amount of status (fit), the match between needed and received will have stronger effects when needed and received status are both high.

While the emphasis of this work is incorporating a P/E fit perspective with workplace status, it is first necessary to define status. Scholars in the social sciences have long debated how to define status, and irrespective of the recent explosion in popularity of workplace status research, little progress has been made in reconciling differing opinions (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). Status is abstract and not directly observable (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2016), and as with any such concept, the conceptual definition is of critical importance as a clear conceptual definition distinguishes a concept from other similar concepts. If a conceptual definition lacks clarity, the discriminant validity of a concept may be questioned (Podsakoff et al., 2016).

Status is inherently an ambiguous concept and defining status may seem a daunting task. Within organizational research, the default means of defining status is via a list related concepts. For instance, status is commonly defined using two or more of the following constructs: respect, prominence, prestige, esteem, admiration, deference, and influence (e.g. Anderson, John, Keltner, Kring, 2001; Anderson, Willer, Kilduff, & Brown, 2012; Christie &

Barling, 2010; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Ouyang et al., 2018; Pettit et al., 2016). Each of these terms is a standalone concept itself, with its own conceptual definition. Additionally, these lists seem to conflate what status is with concepts that lead to status and concepts that are outcomes of status which goes against sound definitional practices (Podsakoff et al., 2016). This may result in definitions of status that are contaminated, by including other constructs, and deficient, not fully capturing the domain of status. For instance, while status and respect are related, empirical work supports that they are conceptually distinct concepts (Blader & Yu, 2017). Defining status via respect seems counter intuitive as it will naturally lead to the contamination of status definitions. Furthermore, as status is defined via a set of other concepts, and researchers are left to choose which combination of concepts they use, the definition of status changes paper to paper. Without a consistent definition of status, we are limited in what overarching conclusions we can validly draw from our research.

Furthermore, without a clear conceptual definition, the measure of a concept may be contaminated (Podsakoff et al., 2016). Approaches to measuring status vary greatly from study to study depending on which concepts were selected for inclusion within the definition. This is problematic as the use of varying measures may result in differing content being captured, thus limiting knowledge accumulation. For instance, if one study defines and measures status as the respect, prominence, and prestige an individual has in their organization, while a second study defines and measures status as the esteem, admiration, and influence an individual has, how can it be determined that the results from these studies both speak to the concept of workplace status? Using a set of other concepts to measure status calls into question whether a given study is adequately capturing the conceptual domain of workplace status. Rarely, if ever, are the constructs used to define and

subsequently measure status defined in status research. In other words, the content validity of status measures is questionable (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). Consequently, there is a great deal of ambiguity regarding what is being measured in any given study.

I revisit the definition of workplace status and seek to clarify the definition following best practice suggestions (Podsakoff et al., 2016). Using prior literature and an interview study of working adults, I craft a conceptual definition of workplace status that does not rely on related concepts. I then use this definition of status to develop a measure that does not rely on other concepts. Lastly, I use my definition and measure of status to address the assumption that people strive for status in the workplace with more status being beneficial.

This work seeks to re-establish the base upon which the organizational status research is built. By developing a clear definition and measure of workplace status that is not reliant on related constructs, research will be better positioned to progress in a streamlined fashion that clarifies status from adjacent literature areas. Additionally, by re-grounding the definition and measurement of status in the workplace, we as scholars will have more confidence in our findings and their applicability to organizations. Lastly, by incorporating a P-E fit perspective I demonstrate that the effects of status vary depending on the joint effect of needed and received status, providing a more complete picture of the effects of status at work.

CHAPTER II

CLARIFYING THE DEFINITION OF WORKPLACE STATUS

Academic Definitions of Status

In line with recommendations for concept reconceptualization (Podsakoff et al., 2016), I first consider how status is currently defined. Interestingly, given the inherent ambiguity of status as a concept, less effort has been spent defining status in the workplace than one might expect. I draw attention to three common components of status definitions to provide structure to my review. First, depending on the research focus of the paper, status definitions may or may not allude to status as hierarchical in nature. Second, definitions may include a phrase to indicate that an individual's status is dependent on others within a context. Third, authors often use a set of concepts thought to be related (e.g. respect and prestige) to define status. Example definitions from prior status research are presented in Table 1.

Please See Table 1

Status as Hierarchical in Nature

Early works viewed status as a way to distinguish between individuals according to some sort of rank ordering based on general social standing (Goldhamer & Shils, 1939; Weber, 1978). This foundation has been incorporated by some organizational scholars but is of less interest to others. For instance, Marr & Thau (2014) state “A status hierarchy is a rank ordering or prestige and a person's position in the hierarchy in a group is determined by the respect and deference received from others in the group” (p. 224). This hierarchical component is not included in other definitions of status (e.g. Weiss & Morrison, 2019).

The relevance of this hierarchical component appears to depend on the research question driving a given study. When the focus is an individual's perception of their status, scholars often do not include a hierarchical component. Alternatively, if a person's status relative to others is of interest, then a hierarchical component is likely included. Such studies are interested in examining status hierarchies (constructed using self and other ratings of status within a context), and how hierarchical positioning may result in relevant outcomes (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). In the present work, I am interested in the outcomes of individual self-perceptions of needed and received status and am less concerned with relevant positioning within a constructed social hierarchy. While a person may, or may not, make comparisons to others when considering their own status, this will simply influence their final evaluation of how much status they believe themselves to need and have.

Status as Conferred from Others

The second element often present in definitions of status is an acknowledgment that an individual's status is voluntarily conferred from others. The voluntary conferral of status is a foundational component of status research (Anderson et al., 2015) and is the key distinction between status and the related concept of power (Anderson & Brion, 2014; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Scholars argue that while the foundation for power is resource control (e.g. formal organizational position), the foundation for status is the people who share a particular context with the actor. A supervisor will naturally have power over subordinates due to having control over work assignments, rewards, and career progression. However, a supervisor is not necessarily granted social status by subordinates. Status is viewed more so as a general evaluation of social standing which people confer to others due to norms of social exchange (Barkow, 1975; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). For instance, an individual may confer status to a helpful coworker as a means of balancing the exchange relationship.

Thus, it is an individual's perception of how much status their peers confer to them that is relevant. To reflect this distinction, definitions of status frequently include phrases such as 'in the eyes of others' to indicate that status cannot be claimed by a person but instead is based on perceptions of how a person is viewed by others (Cao & Smith, 2021; Groysberg, Polzer, & Elfenbein, 2011; Yu & Kilduff, 2019). The voluntary conferral of status expresses the subjective nature of the construct (Blader et al., 2016; Piazza & Castellucci, 2014; Pearce, 2011). Why someone might believe they have been conferred with status is person specific. It may be that an individual perceives that a coworker thinks the individual is a high performer, and thus confers the individual with

status. That coworker on the other hand may perceive that their own status in the workplace stems from being well liked.

Lists of Related Concepts

The primary means organizational scholars have used to conceptually define workplace status is via a list of related concepts. While scholars differ on the particular list to use, seven concepts are frequently included in the basket from which a list is selected: respect, prestige, esteem, admiration, prominence, influence, and deference (e.g. Anderson et al., 2001; Anderson et al., 2012; Christie & Barling, 2010; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Ouyang et al., 2018; Pettit et al., 2016). For instance, Anderson and colleagues (2001) defined status as respect, prominence, and influence because high status actors should be more respected (Barkow, 1975), visible (Fiske, 1993), and have more control over group processes (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972). While theoretically respect, prominence, and influence may relate to status, it is unclear if combining these constructs conceptually captures the domain of status as these concepts may instead represent antecedents, outcomes, or general correlates of status.

In recent years, Anderson and his colleagues have shifted in how they define status. In a 2015 review, Anderson and colleagues defined status as admiration, respect, and voluntary deference because high status actors are respected (Barkow, 1975), esteemed (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001), and deferred to (Kemper, 1990; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). While the same logic to select concepts is used in the 2001 article and the 2015 article, no rationale is given for why prominence and influence are no longer considered to represent the conceptual domain of status.

In a definition that draws from the two Anderson definitions, Ouyang and colleagues (2018) define status as deference, prominence, and respect. Thus, the conceptual domain of status in the study is slightly different than in either Anderson study. When status is defined using different combinations of concepts from study to study, the following question arises: are the sets of concepts equivalent? For instance, is status that is defined as respect, prominence, and prestige theoretically equivalent to status defined as admiration, voluntary deference, and esteem? Unless all these concepts are interchangeable with one another, and interchangeable with status, the domain of status is contaminated and shifts study to study.

I assert that the terms used to describe status represent distinct theoretical concepts. For instance, respect is differentiated from status in that respect is one's worth and value, which is at least partially owed to all individuals (Rogers & Ashforth, 2017), while status seemingly encompasses more general social impressions, can be used to construct a social hierarchy, and is not viewed as being naturally owed to all people (Blader & Yu, 2017; Djurdjevic et al., 2017). While respect and status are related, empirical work suggests they are distinct constructs (for a review see Blader & Yu, 2017). Status research addresses why people within a context seek out and grant status due to personal goals, while respect research addresses peoples' needs for belongingness (Blader & Yu, 2017). Including respect in a definition of status clouds the discriminate validity of status. Other concepts used to define status have received much less attention, and it is theoretically unclear what they capture within the workplace. For example, esteem is often included in definitions of status (e.g. Bitterly, Brooks, & Schweitzer, 2017; Blader & Chen, 2012; Blader et al., 2016), but nowhere within a study that

includes esteem as part of the definition of status was a definition of esteem provided, thus leaving it unclear what esteem conceptually captures.

While convenient, defining status via a list of similar concepts weakens the conceptual definition of status by contaminating the definition and shifting the meaning of status from study to study. Therefore, broad conclusions from workplace status research may not be warranted as studies may be capturing different conceptualizations of status.

Academic Definitions of Status Summary

Though status was originally acknowledged as being subjective social standing (Goldhamer & Shils, 1939), in recent years status has been more narrowly defined using related concepts. As definitions vary from study to study, it is difficult to define the conceptual domain of status and identify where boundaries exist. Additionally, little work has been done to address what status specifically entails within the workplace. A definition of workplace status is needed that does not rely on adjacent concepts.

Dictionary Definitions of Status

Having considered academic definitions of status, in accordance with best practices when considering the conceptualization of workplace concepts (Podsakoff et al., 2014), I briefly assess and compare the dictionary definitions of status and the seven often used concepts in definitions of status (see Table 2). Across dictionaries, a consistent aspect of status is that it is ambiguously defined as social standing; however, beyond general social positioning, it is not specified what status entails. Respect across the four dictionaries seems to group heavily with esteem and admiration, with the concepts often being used within one another's definitions. While prestige may align with status in that

both pertain to standing, definitions of prestige incorporate success, achievement, and results as driving a person's prestige, suggesting that prestige is not quite as general an evaluation as status, and stems primarily from general performance. Prominence was consistently defined more specifically than status as being well known. Deference is viewed as yielding to someone or something else due to credentials and influence is the capacity to affect others. Both concepts seem to more so be outcomes of status than status itself. Overall, the concepts that have commonly been used to define and measure status do not, from a dictionary definition perspective, overlap with status as status is defined broadly as a general evaluation of social standing.

Please See Table 2

Research Questions Relevant to Developing a Definition of Status and Assessing Status Fit

To conceptualize abstract workplace constructs it can be helpful to interview practitioners (Podsakoff et al., 2016). I thus determined an interview study of working adults was necessary to ground my conceptualization of status within the workplace. I also used this interview study to explore if there is initial evidence that needed status varies and more status may not always be beneficial. I first asked the following research question meant to address how workplace status should be reconceptualized:

Research Question 1: What is status in the workplace?

While prior studies have regularly used related concepts to define status, the efficacy of doing so has not been thoroughly examined in organizational research. What

these terms as standalone concepts mean is rarely discussed, and even less discussed is how these concepts are likely viewed in the workplace. I seek to gain an understanding regarding how each of the commonly used concepts in definitions of status (respect, prestige, prominence, esteem, admiration, deference, and influence) are thought of by people in the workplace and how employees view the relationship between status and each concept.

Research Question 2: How are the concepts commonly used to define status thought of by employees and are they similar or different than status?

I strive to further outline the boundaries of status by assessing what are outcomes of status as opposed to being parts of status. Based on prior research it would be expected that the outcomes of status would be positive due to the resources that status is theorized to provide (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). Furthermore, the multitude of findings pointing to positive outcomes of status has led to the assumption that status is beneficial. If participants are fully aligned with this assumption, they should struggle to discuss negative outcomes of having status.

Research Question 3: What are the outcomes of status at work? Are the outcomes always positive?

Lastly, I apply a psychological needs fulfillment perspective to consider the assumption that status is a positive resource that employees generally desire. If status is viewed as a fundamental human motive (Anderson et al., 2015; Dweck, 2017), this would imply that, in alignment with other fundamental motives (e.g. autonomy and task variety (Cable & Edwards, 2004)), people vary in desired status. From a fit perspective, how much status a person wants, coupled with how much status they feel they have may

influence workplace outcomes. To determine if status needed varies and the relevance of status fit, I ask the following research question:

Research Question 4: Do people vary in status needed and how is congruence, or lack thereof, viewed?

CHAPTER III

STUDY 1 METHODS

The objective of Study 1 was to aid in the reconceptualization of workplace status by answering the preceding research questions and grounding status in the workplace. Study 1 was also meant to assist in the development of a subsequent measure of status by providing insight into how the traditionally used concepts to measure status are viewed in the workplace. Lastly, this study sought to provide initial evidence for the need to examine the joint effects of status needed and status received.

Sample

Participants were 23 full time working adults across a diverse range of industries and work experience. Participants were on average 42.39 years old, 43% were female, and 73.91% were white. Interviewees were employed in a range of companies including a large industrial company, a Fortune 500 financial firm, a local prosecutor's office, a frozen foods manufacturer, and a youth athletics training and development company. Formal position or role ranged from welder, to entry level financial analyst, to company owner. The education of participants varied from some college to completion of a doctorate degree. Participants had at minimum been with their current company for 1 month with participants on average having a tenure of 6.41 years at their current

company. Overall work experience ranged from three years to 44 years, with an average work experience of 22.22 years. The strength of this sample is it is highly diversified across industry and organizational position, supporting the generalizability of results. There was no compensation for this study.

Procedure

Study procedures were approved by the Oklahoma State Institutional Review Board (IRB-20-341). All interviews were conducted and recorded via Zoom. Participants were notified that audio recordings would be deleted once transcription of the interview was complete. Potential participants were recruited via three means. All alumni of the Oklahoma State PhD in Business for Executives program were invited to participate (6 participants), participants were recruited via my personal contacts (LinkedIn and Facebook; 10 participants), and snowball sampling was used to obtain additional participants (7 participants).

The interview was composed of six parts: 1) participant consent and employment information; 2) what status is in the workplace; 3) outcomes of status; 4) needed status and alignment between needed and received status; 5) other concepts often used to define status (e.g. respect, prominence, esteem); 6) demographic questions. I first asked more generally about the topics in the workplace, and then about the participant's personal experiences. Further explanation and examples were probed for throughout.

Initial transcriptions were done using Rev.com's automated transcription service which is roughly 80% accurate. Transcriptions were cross-checked with the interview recordings and corrections were made and identifying information removed.

Overview of Coding Procedures

What is Status in the Workplace? What are Outcomes of Status?

As the primary purpose of this qualitative interview study was to determine how people in the workplace think of status, I coded the interviews in accordance with a grounded theory approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013). Using open coding, which groups similar statements into categories called first-order codes (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Gioia et al., 2013), codes were created for each section of the interview that was aimed at determining what status is. As with previous research, the purpose of the first-order coding was not to create final, broad aggregate dimensions, but instead to group similar statements into many groups. I then moved to axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) which combines first order codes into larger categories (aggregate dimensions or themes). This same process was used for coding the positive and negative outcomes of having status.

It became evident that while many participants would attempt to define status, these definitions more so mentioned antecedents or outcomes of status and failed to define status as a standalone concept. To acknowledge this inability to define status beyond discussing antecedents and outcomes, a dummy code was created to capture if a participant was able or unable to make a defining statement.

Related Concepts

As done with status, I coded for if participants made an actual defining statement for a concept or if they defaulted to discussing aspects such as antecedents and outcomes. Lastly, I dummy coded for how the participant viewed each concepts' relationship with status, similar/related to status or different than status.

Status fit

Based on participant response values (on a 1 to 7 scale) to the questions: ‘how much status do you need/want’ and ‘how much status do you have’, I coded for if participants indicated they were deficient in status (have less status than desired), at their fit point of status (have the same amount of status as desired), or in excess of status (have more status than desired). I then used participant statements while discussing status needed and received, when comparing their status to their needed status, as well as statements made when discussing positive and negative outcomes of status, to code for if having less status than needed (deficiency) and having more status than desired (excess) are, or would be, viewed positively or negatively.

CHAPTER IV

STUDY 1 FINDINGS

The Subjectivity of Status

Participants often had trouble directly defining status and instead would define status via antecedents and/or outcomes of status (see Tables 3 and 4). For a statement to be viewed as a defining statement the participant had to make a clear claim regarding how they would define status. Participants who discussed antecedents or outcomes were coded as not being able to make a defining statement. This coding resulted in 14 participants who were unable to clearly define status. While participants had trouble directly discussing status, it was clear that for all participants status was a relevant workplace concept and participants were more comfortable discussing contributors or outcomes of status. Participants varied greatly when discussing what contributes to status (e.g. trust, job competence, social interactions, etc.), suggesting that status itself is a general social evaluation perceived by an individual. Some participants directly alluded to this (see Table 5). For instance, one participant noted that status is an individual's perception (*"Status is perceived through an individual"* (Participant 21)) while another defined status simply as social standing (*"I would define social status as where you fit in the hierarchy from a social standing, from a social perspective."* (Participant 2)). An

assumption may be made that if a person mentions many different concepts when discussing status, they likely have their own personal weighting system to determine how each concept factors into status. Such concepts and weighting systems may or may not be consistent within a single person. In agreement with early theoretical conceptualizations of status, interviewee comments suggest that status is a subjective general evaluation of social standing that is ‘in the eyes of the beholder’ (Blau, 1964; Goldhamer & Shils, 1939).

Please See Tables 3-5

Outcomes of Status

Research has traditionally focused on the positives associated with having status, or alternatively, the limitations that may be present when one does not have status. While participants mentioned many positives of having status, interviewees generally agreed that having status can result in negative outcomes (see Table 6).

Positive Outcomes of Having Status

Positive outcomes of having status include more general work opportunities (12 participants), career advancement (10 participants), job security (6 participants), control over the job (15 participants), the job being easier (8 participants), influence (12 participants), and general job satisfaction (12 participants). In total, 164 statements were made regarding positive outcomes of having status in the workplace. Some participants stated status results in general opportunities (“*It just, it allows for a wide variety of opportunities across my day*” (Participant 4)) while others were more specific. For

instance, Participant 9 commented *“It could result in promotions”* alluding to the possibility of status resulting in career advancement. In alignment with status providing such opportunities a welder suggested their status had afforded them job security: *“I think most other people would have gotten fired by now... God knows I gave them reason too”* (Participant 23).

While prior status research has debated the relationship between influence and status, interviewee statements support the notion that influence is an outcome of status. Participants made comments suggesting that when a person has status, coworkers are more likely to listen, or pay attention to them: *“I think if you have social standing, people are gonna listen to you”* (Participant 6). Lastly, as would be expected due to the other positive outcomes, participants alluded to status resulting in job satisfaction (*“Me personally, satisfaction”* (Participant 12); (*“I guess the enjoyment of coming to work every day”* (Participant 15)).

Negative Outcomes of Having Status

The majority of participants vocalized downsides to having status. 16 participants mentioned that having status results in additional expectations: *“It's very demanding. A lot of people's expectations are higher, I guess I haven't spoken out about expectations, but your expectations are higher when you do have that status. So I would say that's a negative”* (Participant 14). Others noted that these expectations may be unwarranted. For instance, Participant 9 mentioned *“More expectations that may or may not be realistic of you”*. Of note, such statements were made after inquiring about the negatives of having status. While it could be theoretically argued that having additional expectations is a

positive, each of the 16 participants who made such statements did so after being asked if there are downsides of having status.

A similar negative outcome that was specifically mentioned by six participants was that status results in additional responsibility. Participant 2 made it clear that his status felt like a burden due to the responsibility associated with it (*“And other times it feels like a burden because I feel responsible”*). A few participants seemed to allude to the affective reaction to having additional expectations or responsibility by mentioning pressure and/or anxiety as a negative outcome of having status. For example, one participant stated: *“So if you're okay with working with pressure working under pressure, but I guess that would be the only real downside”* (Participant 23).

Overall, such participant statements provide initial support that excess status may be detrimental. Participant 3 vividly described this sentiment: *“I mean, if you drink too much of an energy drink, you're going to get diabetes... Same thing with vegetable juice, three times a day, they get stones in their kidneys. There's so much calcium buildup... Too much of a good thing can also be bad.”*

Please See Table 6

How is Status Similar or Different to the Concepts Used in Status Definitions?

Commonly used concepts to define status include respect, prominence, prestige, esteem, admiration, deference, and influence. Participants were asked to define what each concept meant within their workplace and how the concept relates to status. One

participant was not able to finish the interview due to time constraints, meaning results for this section will be discussed using 22 participants instead of 23.

For each concept most participants were unable to make a clear defining statement (see Table 3). This is worrisome given the frequency with which these concepts are used to define and measure status. For instance, respect was difficult to describe for Participant 15 (*“Oh gosh, I'm so bad with my words and getting them home. It's like, it's so hard to think about too, that it's like, they just have respect”*) while a physical therapist had initial difficulty discussing prestige (*“I'm blanking on this one”*) (Participant 15).

Participant discussions of the concepts would often indicate differences between the concepts and status (see Table 7 for examples of how each concept was discussed). For instance, Participant 4 echoed the most common view of prominence, that it is simply visibility: *“I'd say that's a visibility thing. The supervisors are very prominent across the organization. A few of the lead employees on each team have some prominence.”* When thinking about prestige and status, while noting that they are likely different, one participant stated: *“Prestige can be a little bit different; prestige can have to do with a single attribute”* (Participant 5). To this person, prestige is for a specific attribute, which was a sentiment of numerous participants.

Coding for participant views regarding the similarity or difference between status and the concepts (see Tables 8 and 9) resulted in only respect being viewed by more people as similar to status than different than status. Often these differences were clearly stated. For instance, Participant 10 when considering status and esteem said *“In this case, I wouldn't say it goes hand in hand because you can like somebody a lot and they could*

be not good at their job”, drawing attention to status for this person being more performance based while esteem is based more so on general liking.

My conversations with interviewees regarding the commonly used concepts (respect, prominence, prestige, esteem, admiration, influence, deference) in academic definitions and measures of status calls into question the validity of defining and measuring status in such a way. Nearly every participant had difficulty discussing and/or defining at least one of the concepts, leaving it unclear what the participant’s response would capture on a survey that included the concept. When the concepts were thoroughly discussed, it became clear that often the concepts were viewed as being different than status, and not necessarily entailing part of status. Measuring status using related concepts is likely introducing unnecessary error into our measures.

Please See Tables 7-9

Status Needed, Received, and Subsequent Fit/Misfit

Needed Status

Regarding the amount of status needed within their organization, perhaps unsurprisingly given the positive outcomes participants discussed, no participant responded with wanting less than a four (a moderate amount of status) on a one (no status) to seven (a great deal of status) scale. However, participants were then quite distributed between needing a moderate amount and needing a great deal (see Table 10). Participants had varied rationales for how much status they wanted within their organization (see Table 11). Some participants while discussing needed status mentioned

that while deficiency may be viewed negatively, so to can excess. Participant 2 made perhaps the most vivid statement on the matter: *“You never want to be at the top of the Pez dispenser. Cause that's when you be kicked out the mouth, but you don't want to be at the bottom of the Pez dispenser. Cause the weight of the other Pezs will crush you, and by the time you get to the top your powder. And I think the same thing with social status”*.

For this person there seems to be some middle to high ground of status that would be ideal, and that excess or deficient status would be detrimental.

Please See Tables 10-11

Perceived Workplace Status and Fit

As would be expected based on prior status research, participants differed in how much workplace status they felt they had, with one participant suggesting they essentially had no status in their organization (a 1 on the 1 to 7 scale), and others indicating they had a great deal of status (a 7 on the 1 to 7 scale) (Table 10). I compared needed workplace status to received status to determine how many participants have congruence (fit) (nine participants), how many participants have less status than desired (deficiency) (nine participants), and how many participants have more status than desired (excess) (five participants). These results suggest that needed and received status within the workplace vary from person to person, and it is possible for people to experience congruence (fit) as well as both sides of misfit (deficiency and excess).

Participant Thoughts on Misfit

Of the 23 participants, 18 made statements regarding excess organizational status (see Table 12 for example quotes). Of these 18, seven people indicated excess organizational status is/would be positive, while 13 people indicated excess is/would be negative (2 participants made statements indicating that excess could be positive as well as negative). For example, regarding excess is/would be a positive experience, a few participants claimed that they could never have enough status: *“I don't know that I could, I don't know that there's enough” (Participant 18)*.

Other participants indicated that excess organizational status would be a negative experience. Some of these statements arose when participants were discussing how much status they would need (*“I think, too many people are incapable of having, me personally would be incapable of having (a lot of status)” (Participant 14)*). Additionally, Participant 2, who currently has excess organizational status, commented that *“I mean, I would like to have a little less because I get lots of calls and lots of things I'm asked about or asked to do”*. For this person, excess seems to be a negative experience because of the additional expectations and responsibilities associated with the additional status.

Regarding deficiency in status, all 23 participants made statements suggesting or alluding to deficiency being a negative experience (see Table 12 for example quotes). This is likely because a person who is deficient in status may be unable to achieve or receive the many positive outcomes associated with having their desired level of status. This is in alignment with the general theoretical view that status is a positive resource (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). Additionally, as status may be viewed as an intrinsic human need (Aderson et al., 2015, Dweck, 2017), being deficient signals to a person that their need is not being met, which is generally dissatisfying (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

The findings from the present study indicate that people vary in how much status they need, and not everyone wants a high amount of status. Participant 20 provided an example from his workplace that captures this sentiment: *“We have people who work for us who have been there for a long time, but they've never strived to become more than what they are. So we have staff accountants that have worked in small tax accounting for like over 10 years and they are perfectly fine with being regular bookkeepers, regular staff and administrators”*.

Please See Table 12

Study 1 Discussion

The primary takeaway from Study 1 is that status is a subjective social concept, and what status is will vary from person to person. This is not to say that participants indicated that status was unimportant as participants uniformly agreed that status was a relevant concept in their workplace and resulted in meaningful workplace outcomes. While the subjective nature of status should not be surprising given past theoretical conceptualizations of status (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014), it calls into question more recent research that attempts to define status with related concepts. Furthermore, the present study addresses how status should be measured by drawing attention to the various problems with measuring status using related concepts. Interviewees indicated that the meaning of these concepts may be unclear, and the concepts are often viewed as different than status.

Additionally, Study 1 provided initial evidence that the assumption that more status is beneficial may be unwarranted. While participants noted many positives of having status in the workplace, they also noted that having status can result in negative outcomes. The majority of participants made clear that with status comes additional expectations and responsibility, and these expectations and responsibilities may be unwarranted or unwanted, resulting in pressure and anxiety. In an additional rebuttal to the assumption that more is better, interviewees were able to indicate a specific amount of needed status which varied among participants. While participants uniformly suggested not having as much status as desired (deficiency) would be detrimental, for many participants having more status (excess) would also be a negative.

Status has often been measured using related concepts. This has likely contributed to the organizational status literature not having well-conceived boundaries, and the general acknowledgement that workplace status overlaps with adjacent constructs. There is a need for a conceptualization of status that acknowledges that social status is subjectively perceived and does not rely on related concepts.

CHAPTER V

RECONCEPTUALIZING WORKPLACE STATUS

To consider how status is currently conceptualized I examined academic and dictionary definitions of status, and to reconceptualize status, I incorporate this literature with the preceding interview study. From this prior literature and Study 1 it became clear that a sound definition of status would have three components: 1) status is subjective social standing, 2) status is conferred from others, and 3) status is context dependent. Most early literature defined status as a subjective concept (Blau, 1964; Foa, 1971; Goldhamer & Shils, 1939; Hollander, 1958; Podolny, 1993) that varies based on some hierarchy of values that differs by person (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). These early definitions are in alignment with how status is typically defined in prominent dictionaries of the English language which reference ‘social standing’, ‘position’, or ‘rank’ (e.g. Dictionary.com; Oxford English Dictionary). The subjective nature of status was further supported by 23 interviews of working adults. Interviewees, regardless of educational background, industry, job type, or position, discussed a multitude of concepts that result in status.

While recent works have attempted to define status using related concepts (e.g.

respect, prestige, deference, admiration, esteem, prominence, deference, influence), there has still been a general acknowledgement of the subjective nature of status. For instance, while Djurdjevic and colleagues (2017) defined status as respect, prominence, and prestige, they also noted that status is "...typically viewed as a socially constructed subjective assessment" (p. 1125). Similarly, Christie and Barling (2010) note that status is "...foremost a relative construct. Unlike an individual's reputation, for example, status cannot be defined as an isolated, individual attribute. Instead, status is a 'positional or relational element of a social structure' (Washington & Zajac, 2005, p. 282)", but then state that status is based on prestige, prominence, and respect. The pervasiveness of using related concepts to define status has perhaps led scholars to feel as though they must include a set of concepts when discussing status, even if conceptually status is acknowledged as being a subjective evaluation of social standing.

Additionally, status differs from other hierarchical constructs, such as power, in that it cannot be claimed, and is instead freely granted by others (Anderson et al., 2001; Berger et al., 1980; Blader & Yu, 2017; Magee & Galinsky, 2008) as status is inherently a social construct. Lastly, prior research indicates that status is context specific (Anderson et al., 2001; Blader & Yu, 2017; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), which was further expressed by dictionary definitions and interviewees. For instance, a person may have varying levels of status in their workplace overall, their primary work team, their family life, their core friend group, etc.

Thus, a definition of status should allow for subjectivity, acknowledge status is a general social evaluation, allude to the conferred nature of status, and note the importance of context. I therefore define workplace status as such: *As perceived by the individual,*

others' views of the individual's social standing in the workplace. I note that this definition is crafted to capture self-perceptions of social status at work given I am ultimately interested in the joint effect of self-perceived needed and received status. This definition may be adapted to alternative research questions and perspectives.

CHAPTER VI

DEVELOPING A MEASURE OF WORKPLACE STATUS

As past measures have relied on related constructs (see Table 13 for example measures), to streamline the measurement of workplace status I follow recommended procedures (Hinkin, 1998; Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, & Hill, 2019; Schwab, 1980). I first generated items and conducted a subject matter expert review (Study 2a) to assess how well the generated items represent my definition of workplace status. Next, using the same procedures, working adults reviewed the items (Study 2b). Lastly, I validated the remaining items using a sample of working adults (Study 2c).

Please See Table 13

Using my definition of status (“as perceived by the individual, others’ views of the individual’s social standing in the workplace”) 13 items were generated that acknowledge the subjective social nature of status and that it is the participant’s perception of how others in a specific context view them that is important (see Table 14 for a list of items). I assessed the content validity of these items through an item sort task

(MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011) which assesses how well items represent the definition of a construct (Hinkin, 1998).

Study 2a Subject Matter Expert Review

Participants and Procedure

To establish content validity, subject matter experts were asked to rate how well each item matches the definition of workplace status on a 1 (item is an extremely bad match) to 5 (item is an extremely good match) point scale (Wolfson, Tannenbaum, Mathieu, & Maynard, 2018). Definitions and measures of power and respect were also included to assess the discriminant validity of the items (see Table 14 for a complete list of included items). Power was defined as “an individual’s relative capacity to change others’ behaviors, attitudes, and feelings by providing or withholding valued resources or administering punishment” (Djurdjevic et al., 2017: 1127) and Anderson and Galinsky’s (2006) 8 item measure was used. Respect was defined as an individual’s perception of his/her worth and value (Blader & Yu, 2017) and Ng’s (2016) 7 item measure was used. Respondents were presented each of the definitions, one at a time, in conjunction with the 28 total items in randomized order. Additionally, to ensure the order of the definitions did not influence the results, I sequenced the response formats within each construct using a digram-balanced Latin square design (Wagenaar, 1969). Participants were randomly assigned to one of six conditions with each condition corresponding to a specific order of the definitions. Participants were 27 organizational scholars (advanced doctoral students and faculty) with an average age of 41.52 (9.13) years, 64.5% were female, and 58.1% were white. Study procedures were approved by the Oklahoma State Institutional Review Board (IRB-21-355).

Please See Table 14

Results

To assess how well each item represented the three definitions I examined the mean rating of each item in conjunction with each definition. A 4.0 or above indicated that the item is at least a ‘good match’ to the definition. Five of the items intended to capture workplace status were rated with a mean greater than 4.0 when considered in conjunction with the status definition (Table 15). Additionally, the mean rating of these five items with the definitions of power and respect were well below 4.0. To further assess the content validity of these items I used ANOVA procedures to determine if the mean ratings for each item were significantly different across definitions. For each of the five items ANOVA results supported that the mean score of the item in conjunction with the status definition was significantly different than the mean score of the item with the respect and power definitions. For the five items I next assessed r_{wg} (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993) to determine if there was consensus across the SMEs. For each item r_{wg} was well above the .70 rule of thumb, suggesting that the SMEs generally agreed that these items are aligned with the status definition. Lastly, I calculated two indices, *htc* (*Hinkin Tracey correspondence*) and *htd* (*Hinkin Tracey distinctiveness*) to further assess the content validity of these items (Colquitt et al., 2019). *htc* values greater than .83 indicate adequate definitional correspondence (e.g. the item corresponds to the status definition) and *htd* values greater than .17 suggest adequate definitional distinctiveness (e.g. the item

distinctly represents status and does not overlap with respect or power). All five items were over the .83 cutoff for *htc* and the .17 cutoff for *htd*.

Please See Table 15

Study 2a Discussion

The results of Study 2a suggest five items have strong content validity in that they represent the conceptual definition of status and not the definitions of respect or power. However, given the subjective nature of status in the workplace, I determined it necessary to assess the content validity of the proposed items using a sample of working adults as scholars *and* practitioners must be able to distinguish the items.

Study 2b Working Adult Review

Participants and Procedure

Working adults were recruited via CloudResearch's MTurk Toolkit. Research suggests Mturk is a reliable data collection source (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Burton, Taylor, & Barber, 2014; Weber & Bauman, 2019). The procedures for Study 2b were identical to those of Study 2a. A total of 98 participants completed the study, but 3 were dropped for failing attention checks, resulting in a final sample size of 95. The average age of participants was 39.28 (10.40) years, 42.1% were female, and 72.6% were white. Study procedures were approved by the Oklahoma State Institutional Review Board (IRB-21-399)

Results

Analytical steps taken were identical to Study 2a. The same five items that were rated above a 4.0, indicating the item is at least a ‘good match’ to the status definition, were also rated above a 4.0 in study 2b (Table 16). As in Study 2a, the means for these items with the respect and power definitions were below 4.0, and the mean differences were statistically significant. R_{wg} was adequate for the five items, as were the *htc* and *htd* values.

Please See Table 16

Study 2b Discussion

The same five items that survived the content validity analyses (using subject matter experts) in Study 2a survived the same procedures using working adults. Taken together, the results of Study 2b and Study 2a suggest that these five items form a measure with strong content validity in that scholars and practitioners agree that the items represent the definition of workplace status. This five-item measure does not rely on related concepts and provides a parsimonious means with which to assess workplace status.

The Nomological Network of Workplace Status

In preparation for Study 2c, which assesses the construct validity of my workplace status measure, I briefly discuss organizational constructs that should be related to status and the expected magnitude of such relationships.

Expected Antecedents of Workplace Status

Prior research has consistently suggested that job competence will result in status conferrals (e.g. Anderson et al., 2012; Bitterly et al., 2017; Blader & Yu, 2017; Gibson et al., 2018; Howell et al., 2015; Ravlin & Thomas, 2005). This view has arisen out of Expectation States Theory (e.g. Correll & Ridgeway, 2006) which suggests that those who perform well will be granted status. Perceptions of job competence will positively relate to status, and job competence has traditionally been viewed as the most profound predictor of status (Blader & Yu, 2017). Because status may also be awarded based on characteristics unrelated to competence (e.g., gender, race) (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014), I expect this relationship to be low to moderate.

Some studies have alluded that status may be based on liking. For instance, Torelli, Leslie, Stoner, & Puente (2014) suggest that in more collectivistic cultures, warmth is a key basis for status. Additionally, a subset of status research has examined the relationship between engaging in helping behaviors and status, with results suggesting that people that help others are in turn conferred status (Flynn, 2003; Halevy, Halali, & Cohen, 2020). This is typically viewed as occurring because helping behaviors elicit the positive emotion of gratitude within the person being helped (Ouyang et al., 2018). This positive emotional experience due to having received help may increase how well liked the helper is by the person that was helped. In essence, as stated by Griskevicius, Tybur, and Van den Bergh (2010), “the current work points to underlying reasons why nice guys—and gals—can finish first (p. 392).” Liking should positively relate to status, and I expect the magnitude of this relationship to be low due to the prominence of other factors such as job competence (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014).

Expected Outcomes of Workplace Status

Prior research, as well as the results of Study 1, suggest that there are many positive benefits associated with having status (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). It would be expected that, in alignment with prior research (Porter, 1962), job satisfaction positively correlates with status. Given the nature of job satisfaction and the seemingly endless list of variables that contribute to job satisfaction, I expect status to have a weak positive relationship with job satisfaction.

One prominent outcome of job satisfaction is turnover intentions. As status positively relates to job satisfaction (Porter, 1962), it would be expected that status negatively relates to turnover intentions due to the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011). Additionally, those with status likely garner additional resources, and thus may be more embedded within an organization, further reducing turnover intentions. While status may impact turnover intentions, there are numerous other internal and external factors, such as family needs, superior external opportunity, promotion options, etc., that contribute to turnover intentions. I anticipate status to negatively relate to turnover intentions with a low magnitude.

People with status are likely highly competent workers who have a track record of exceptional performance (Howell et al., 2015; Ravlin & Thomas, 2005). Such people are unlikely to be let go from an organization due to the value the employee provides and the associated costs of replacing a high impact employee. Thus, I expect status to positively relate to job security with a moderate magnitude.

Expected General Correlates of Workplace Status

Status and respect are differentiated from one another, with the concepts having been found to result from, and result in, differing variables (Blader & Yu, 2017); however, status and respect are both social constructs relevant to a particular context. Status and respect should positively relate at a low to moderate level due to both concepts being grounded in social evaluations within a specific context. It is highly likely that as status increases, respect increases, and vis-a-versa.

Power has often been conflated with status, resulting in scholars conducting work to differentiate the two (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). While status is a general social construct that depends on others in a particular context, power is derived from more formal means and control over resources (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). However, social status and power should be positively related as formal position and resource control may assist in acquiring status, and status may result in formal promotions and resource control. Consistent with past research (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), I expect the relationship between power and status to be moderate to high.

Reputation is another social construct that at times has been difficult to differentiate from status. Reputation is viewed as “a perceptual identity reflective of the complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behavior, and intended images presented over some period of time as observed directly and/or as reported from secondary sources” (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2003; p. 215). The key distinction between status and reputation is that status is a general social evaluation, whereas reputation is for specific attributes. For instance, one might have a reputation as a team leader, while also having

the reputation for micro-managing others. Given the social nature of both constructs, I expect workplace status to have a moderate positive correlation with reputation.

Study 2c Workplace Status Measure Psychometric Properties

Sample and Procedure

As the generated items are meant to be relevant to employees from different work environments and positions, it was necessary that the sample supports the generalizability of the measure across industries and job types. Thus, full-time working adults were recruited via snowball sampling using undergraduate students at Oklahoma State University. Students were able to earn .5% extra credit for each person they nominated, up to 2%. Students provided the email address of each contact, and I then sent an invitation to participate. Students nominated a total of 665 people of which 252 completed the entire survey (a response rate of 37.89%). I examined the data for careless responding (Meade & Craig, 2012) and removed five participants who were well below the general rule of thumb of two seconds per Likert scale question (DeSimone, Harms, & DeSimone 2020) resulting in a final sample size of 247. Participants were on average 43.08 (14.26) years old, 54.6% were female, 80.2% were white, and on average had worked for their organization for 10.14 (9.95) years. Study procedures were approved by the Oklahoma State Institutional Review Board (IRB-21-439)

Measures

Please see Appendix C for all included items.

Workplace Status. Participants read the following instructions: “Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace. In your workplace/organization overall, how

much of each of the following do you have in the view/eyes of others? Social...” followed by the five-item status measure developed in studies 2a and 2b (status, standing, repute, stature, relevance). The scale used was an amount scale as workplace status theoretically varies in amount (e.g. 1 = none, 7 = an extraordinary amount). The reliability of the measure was $\alpha = .96$.

Job Competence. Job competence was measured by adapting the six-item ability measure from Mayer and Davis (1999) ($\alpha = .92$). Example items include: others in my workplace... “believe I am capable of performing my job” and “are confident in my skills.”

Liking. Items from Carmeli and colleagues’ (2009) scale of positive regard were adapted and combined with additional items. Example items include ‘My coworkers like me’ and ‘I have meaningful relationships with my coworkers’ ($\alpha = .92$).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale: “In general, I am satisfied with my job,” “All in all, the job I have is great,” and “My job is very enjoyable” (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) ($\alpha = .94$).

Turnover Intentions. Bozeman and Perrewé’s (2001) five-item measure of turnover intentions was used ($\alpha = .95$). Example items include “I intend to quit my job,” and “I am thinking about quitting my job at the present time.”

Job Security. Job security was measured using Kraimer and colleagues (2005) measure ($\alpha = .89$). Example items include ‘I will be able to keep my present job as long as I wish’ and ‘I am secure in my job.’

Respect. Respect was measured using Ng's (2016) measure of workplace respect ($\alpha = .91$). Example items include "Most of my colleagues respect me" and "My colleagues respect my values".

Generalized Power. Anderson and Galinsky's (2005) sense of power scale was adapted to measure power ($\alpha = .84$). Example items include "I think I have a great deal of power" and "If I want to, I get to make the decisions."

Referent Power. Referent power was measured using Hinkin and Schriesheim's (1989) measure ($\alpha = .84$). Example items include: in my workplace I feel... "important" and "valued."

Expert Power. Hinkin and Schriesheim's (1989) measure was used to measure expert power ($\alpha = .87$). Example items include: in my workplace I feel... "I provide sound job-related advice" and "I provide others with needed technical knowledge."

Reputation. Reputation was measured using a 12-item measure of personal reputation at work (Hochwarter et al., 2007) ($\alpha = .94$). Example items include "I have a good reputation" and "I have a reputation for producing results."

Relevant Demographics. To assess if my status measure was distinct from socioeconomic variables, I asked participants about their formal position level and annual income. Participants were asked "What is your formal position/job level within your organization?" with 1 = entry level, 2 = one or two promotions, 3 = middle manager (someone who oversees at least one other employee), 4 = department manager or equivalent, 5 = vice president or equivalent, and 6 = C-level (e.g. CEO, CFO).

Participants were also asked "What is your annual income?" with 1 = Less than \$20,000,

2 = \$20,000 to \$34,999, 3 = \$35,000 to \$49,999, 4 = \$50,000 to \$74, 999, 5 = \$75,000 to \$99,999, and 6 = More than \$100,000.

Results

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 17. The Cronbach's alpha of the workplace status measure was $\alpha = .96$, suggesting the five workplace status items have a very high internal consistency. I next conducted CFA analysis using Mplus version 8.0 to examine the factor loadings for the five status items (Table 18). The standardized loadings ranged from .86 to .97, well above the .60 rule of thumb (Brown, 2015), and significantly loaded onto the latent workplace status factor. Additionally, the fit statistics suggest the proposed factor structure adequately fit the data ($\chi^2 = 20.07$ ($df = 5$); CFI = .99; TLI = .98, RMSEA = .11 [.06, .16]; SRMR = .01).

Please See Tables 17-19

I next assessed the discriminant and convergent validity of the workplace status measure in two ways. First, I compared two-factor and one-factor models for status and each of the following: respect, generalized power, referent power, expert power, and reputation (Table 19). For each pair, the model fit was significantly worse when specifying the status items and other construct's items to load onto a single factor, suggesting that the workplace status measure is not interchangeable with the other measures. Second, I assessed the relationships between workplace status and the theoretically related variables (Table 17). As expected, there were positive relationships between workplace status and respect, generalized power, referent power, expert power,

and reputation; however, these correlations were small to moderate, suggesting that the variables are not interchangeable (e.g. the largest correlation was between workplace status and generalized power, .31, well below the .80 cutoff where the distinction between variables may be questioned). Additionally, while it may be expected that socioeconomic variables such as formal position and income relate to status, the correlation between workplace status and formal position was .29, and between status and income .17, suggesting that workplace status is not simply capturing position and/or income.

As anticipated, workplace status positively correlates with job competence, liking, job satisfaction, and job security, and negatively with turnover intentions. While the relationships between status and job satisfaction and status and turnover intentions were not significant, one explanation for this is that by only considering received status the correlations are being canceled out. It may be that when people have less status than is right for them increases in status positively relate to job satisfaction and negatively relate to turnover intentions, but once a person surpasses how much status is right for them, increases in status may be negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to turnover intentions. In essence, these correlations may support the need to assess the joint effect of needed and received workplace status.

Study 2c Discussion

The validity of the workplace status measure was supported by Study 2c. The reliability of the status measure was high, and the results of CFA analyses indicate that the workplace status items adequately load onto the latent status variable. Additionally, the workplace status measure positively relates to theoretically related variables such as

respect, power, and reputation; however, these correlations are low to moderate, and a two-factor model of status and each variable was a significantly better fit to the data than a single factor model. Lastly, the workplace status measure related to variables such as liking, job competence, and job security as expected. While not significant, the relationships between workplace status and job satisfaction and turnover intentions were in the expected direction.

CHAPTER VII

STATUS FIT

I now turn to addressing the general assumption that more status is better by incorporating the P-E fit paradigm with workplace status.

P-E Fit, Psychological Need Fulfillment, and Status

As opposed to the bulk of organizational literature which examines the amount of a particular aspect that is present, the P-E fit paradigm argues that workplace outcomes arise due to the interplay of the person in question and the environment in which the person resides (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Schneider, 1987). One lens through which P-E fit is examined is that of psychological needs fulfillment. In this view, workplace outcomes result from the congruence, or lack thereof, between the psychological needs of a person and the extent to which they feel their needs are being met (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Lambert, Tepper, Carr, Holt, & Barelka, 2012). Psychological needs do not refer to physiological needs such as the need for shelter or food, but instead address needs that are the result of learning via experiences and socialization. On the supply side, the environment may provide tangible resources, such

as pay, as well as intangible resources, such as social interaction. Additionally, the perspective that is relevant is that of the individual in question as it is an individual's view of their own needs and environmental supplies that results in assessments of fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

When considering the amount of a need desired and the amount of a need supplied by the environment, there are three possible experiences. The first is that fit is achieved, the amount desired and the amount received are in alignment. In this case, there is *congruence* between needs and supplies. While research generally indicates that fit is advantageous (e.g. Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristoff-Brown et al., 2005; Lambert et al., 2012), the magnitude of the relationship between congruence and outcomes will vary depending on the absolute level of fit.

When a person has a need that is not supplied by the environment, they experience *deficiency*. As would be expected when examining fundamental human needs, deficiency is expected to be, and empirically found to be, an unpleasant experience (Edwards, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1998; Locke, 1976). Lastly, *excess* occurs if a person perceives that the environment supplies more of the need than desired. Unlike deficiency, excess is not thought to always be detrimental (Edwards et al., 1998; Locke, 1976), with the effects of excess depending on the specific type of supply.

Status research has consistently found that there are positive outcomes associated with having high status (Bendersky & Shah, 2012; Berger et al., 1980; Chen et al., 2008). Due to such expected benefits of status, research has focused on employees seeking to 'get ahead' via achieving status (Hogan, 1983). The positive benefits associated with status has led to most empirical status research examining the benefits of high status, with

the underlying assumption being that more status is beneficial, and people seek to obtain additional status. This underlying assumption was directly stated by Duguid and Goncolo (2015): “A reasonable and widely held assumption in the status literature is that most individuals strive to attain status because of the many benefits that accrue as one moves up the status hierarchy (p. 589).”

The P-E fit paradigm, specifically psychological needs fulfillment, is well suited to address if status needed within an environment varies given that status is viewed as an intrinsic psychological need (Anderson et al., 2015; Dweck, 2017). Theories of fundamental human needs suggest people vary in how critical a particular need is to them, and thus how much of the need is desired (e.g. Dweck, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). This calls into question the assumption that high status is beneficial for most employees, and that people in the workplace actively strive for additional status as empirical work has demonstrated that there is a right amount of such needs and misalignment between a person’s needs and the environment may be detrimental (e.g. Cable & Edwards, 2004).

Anticipated Outcomes of Status Fit: Emotions, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Job Characteristics

Having established the foundation with which to view needed and received status, I shift to theorizing how congruence, or lack thereof, between status needed and received effect relevant workplace outcomes. Interviewee responses and prior status literature suggest that status self-perceptions are related to perceptions of job characteristics, emotions, and work attitudes. Perceived job characteristics (expectations, responsibility), emotions (NA, PA, anxiety), and attitudes (job satisfaction, withdrawal, turnover intentions) are critical factors for an employee within the workplace. Such concepts in

turn influence an array of relevant workplace behavior such as employee performance, organizational citizenship behavior, counter-productive work behavior, and actual turnover. By examining these three sets of outcomes of status fit I seek to establish the relevance of considering the joint effect of needed and received status within the workplace.

Effects of Status Deficiency and Excess

Status has been viewed as an intangible asset which provides flexibility and opportunity at work (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). Such flexibility and opportunity results in high status actors using their status to acquire additional resources (Huberman, Loch, & Onculer, 2004; Lin, 1999), including access to information that effects performance and greater influence at work (Berger et al. 1980; Foschi, 2000). While resources due to status are viewed as desirable, with such resources may come additional expectations and responsibility (Nadler & Chernyak-Hai, 2014). Thus, one rationale for desiring a particular amount of status is the anticipated associated resources and subsequent outcomes.

Deficiency in workplace status is likely to be unpleasant for three reasons. First, in accordance with conservation of resources theorizing, people seek to obtain additional resources in their workplace (Hobfoll, 1989), and an employee who is deficient in status may acknowledge they do not have the associated desired resources and thus perceive a resource threat. Furthermore, as status is inherently a social concept, being deficient in status may serve as a negative signal. Status is a social evaluation that is partially attributable to an individual's competence (Howell et al., 2015; Ravlin & Thomas, 2005), trust (Janssen & Gao, 2015), and interpersonal relationships (Torelli et al., 2014). An

employee who is deficient in status may conclude that their coworkers do not view them as capable, trustworthy, or likable as would be preferred. Lastly, research suggests that being deficient in regard to fundamental needs is an unpleasant experience (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

The perceived general resource threat, negative signaling, and not having a fundamental need met due to status deficiency may result in increased negative emotional arousal. More specifically, employees who are deficient in status likely experience anxiety because status deficiency is a threatening stimulus (Kagan, 1972) that is at least partly perceived as uncontrollable. As status is a general social evaluation stemming from many aspects, an individual who perceives themselves to be deficient in status will experience resource threat while also feeling as though little can immediately be done to reduce this threat, resulting in anxious feelings. Alternatively, being deficient in status is likely to reduce positive emotions as an individual's intrinsic need of status is not being met (Anderson et al., 2015). As intrinsic needs are pervasive throughout the workplace (e.g. Ryan & Deci, 2000), the acknowledgement of this need not being met will likely influence general emotional experiences in the workplace, essentially buffering employee positive emotions.

Job satisfaction arises from general evaluations of one's job, with such evaluations being influenced by various organizational constructs. As deficiency may result in increased negative emotions which reduces job satisfaction (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017), status deficiency will result in lower overall job satisfaction. When job dissatisfaction is present, an individual will consider options for removing this dissatisfaction, with one such option

being to withdraw, psychologically distance themselves (Lehman & Simpson, 1992), from their work. This psychological withdrawal may occur as a means of dampening the negative emotions experienced due to being deficient in status. Ultimately, this job dissatisfaction and withdrawal may result in an employee leaving the organization (Chen et al., 2011) to remove themselves from the unpleasant state of status deficiency.

Lastly, deficiency in status likely results in lower expectations as status is associated with additional responsibility (Nadler & Chernyak-Hai, 2014). A person who is deficient in status will have fewer expectations, as high-status actors are those that are expected to perform effectively (Berger et al., 1974) and are given additional duties at work. Thus, a person who is deficient in status likely perceives lower expectations with less responsibility.

Perceptions of resource control should increase as employees' self-perceived status moves towards alignment with needed status as status increases have been supported to result in additional workplace resources (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). This increase in resource control will remove the uncomfortable resource threat (Hobfoll, 1989) that was previously present due to status deficiency. Additionally, status increases may signal to the employee that others view them as more competent (Howell et al., 2015; Ravlin & Thomas, 2005) and likable (Torelli et al., 2014). Removal or reduction of this uncomfortable resource threat and reduction in negative signaling will reduce negative emotions and anxiety. Furthermore, positive emotions will increase as the employee perceives that their intrinsic need is closer to being met. Subsequently, employee general evaluations of their job will be more positive, resulting in increased job satisfaction. As the employee will be more satisfied with their job, they will be less likely

to psychologically distance themselves from their work and be less likely to turnover. Lastly, due to the additional expectations and responsibility associated with status, as status received increases to approach status needed, perceived expectations and responsibility will increase.

While past status research indicates that this pattern of results should continue for when status received exceeds status needed, interviewees in Study 1 indicated that this is not necessarily the case. Expectation States Theory (Berger et al., 1974) suggests that people with high status will perceive higher performance expectations and more responsibility. It follows that an employee may desire a certain level of social status due to the anticipated expectations and responsibility. An individual with more status than desired will likely feel as though they have unwanted or unwarranted expectations and responsibility. Such evaluations may result in negative affective reactions, such as anxiety, and reduced positive emotions due to the stress and pressure associated with additional undesired expectations and responsibility. This unpleasant experience will decrease perceptions of job satisfaction and increase psychological withdrawal as a means of coping with the unwanted expectations and responsibility. Lastly, an employee may consider turning over to fully escape the undesired situation.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d: As status received increases from deficient to needed levels of status, positive affect, job satisfaction, responsibility, and expectations will increase; as status received exceeds status needed, positive affect (H1a) and job satisfaction (H1b) will decrease, and responsibility (H1c) and expectations (H1d) will remain high.

Hypothesis 2a, 2b, 2c, and 2d: As status received increases from deficient to needed levels of status, negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions will decrease; as status received exceeds status needed, negative affect (H2a), anxiety (H2b), withdrawal (H2c), and turnover intentions (H2d) will increase.

Effects of Status Fit

Consistent with the view that status is a fundamental human motive (Anderson et al., 2015, Dweck, 2017), positive outcomes should increase and negative outcomes should decrease when status needed is equal to status received. However, as how much status is needed and received will vary from person to person, the absolute level of status fit increases from low to high. Since status is a fundamental human motive (Anderson et al., 2015, Dweck, 2017), how much status a person desires is an indicator of how important status is to that person. If a person needs and receives little status, while generally positive, this congruence likely is not influential for the person in the workplace.

Furthermore, in alignment with the concept of metafit, the idea that having high supplies of a need may overflow to meet other needs (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), employees who need and receive high status may perceive other fundamental needs as being met due to high status fit. For instance, Ryan and Deci (2000) suggest that competence, autonomy, and relatedness are three key fundamental human motives. As a key contributor to status perceptions is competence (Blader & Yu, 2017; Gibson et al., 2018), employees who desire and receive high levels of status may view this as an indication that they are highly competent in their job, thus contributing to their

fundamental human desire for competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Additionally, as people with high levels of status are granted additional resource control, they likely experience greater levels of autonomy, Lastly, as status is based on an individual's perceptions of how others think of the individual (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), high levels of status congruence may indicate that a person is thought of well by their coworkers, thus contributing to the person's need for relatedness. When status congruence results from low needed and received status, these spillover effects will not occur.

At high levels of needed and received status, people should experience increased positive emotions and reduced negative emotions, such as anxiety, due to the fundamental need of status as well as related needs being met. Having multiple fundamental needs met and the resulting emotional experiences will result in increased job satisfaction as compared with a person who places little emphasis on status and thus only their relatively unimportant need for status is being met. In turn, a person who perceives their job to be contributing to meeting numerous fundamental needs will be less likely to withdraw from their work and or leave that job. Lastly, as expectations and responsibility in the workplace are informed by the level of status an individual has, needing and receiving high status will result in more expectations and responsibility than needing and receiving low status.

Hypothesis 3a, 3b, 3c, and 3d: Compared to when status needed and received are both low, when status needed and received are both high, positive affect (H3a), job satisfaction (H3b), responsibility (H3c), and expectations (H3d) will be higher.

Hypothesis 4a, 4b, 4c, and 4d: Compared to when status needed and received are both low, when status needed and received are both high, negative affect (H4a), anxiety (H4b) withdrawal (H4c), and turnover intentions (H4d) will be lower.

CHAPTER VIII

STUDY 3 METHODS

Sample and Procedure

I conducted a two-wave self-report survey of working adults via Prolific. While prior research has shown that non-linear and interactive effects, such as those used to conduct fit analyses using polynomial regression, cannot be created by common method variance (Siemson, Roth & Oliveira, 2010), I time separated the measures of needed and received status from the subsequent outcomes in alignment with recommendations to alleviate common method variance concerns (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Needed and received status were collected and one week later outcomes were collected. Participants were notified that successful study completion would result in compensation of \$5.00, and compensation was dependent on completion of both the Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. Additionally, participants were notified that careless responding on either survey would result in compensation being withheld. To apply results broadly and avoid possible organizational culture effects, it was necessary to sample adults from a wide range of jobs and industries. Thus, I collected data via an online panel. Prolific data has increasingly been used within organizational research (e.g. Jun & Wu, 2021; Takeuchi, Guo, Teschner, & Kautz, 2021) and data from online panel research have been

found to allow for quality, representative data (Porter, Outlaw, Gale, & Cho, 2019) when best practice recommendations are incorporated (Aguinis, Villamor, & Ramani, 2012). Participation was restricted to full-time working adults in the United States. To complete both surveys participants took approximately 20 minutes. A total of 656 participants completed the Time 1 survey with 591 subsequently completing the Time 2 survey (90% return rate). All 591 participants passed at least two out of three attention checks, and there were no indications of excessive rushing through the survey. Participants were on average 37.95 (11.77) years old, 49.8% were female, 77.2% were white, and average organizational tenure was 7.19 (7.15) years.

Measures

For all measures, participants were instructed to: “please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace.” This prompt was given to align the general evaluation of needed and received status with general evaluations of the dependent variables of interest. Responses were on a 1 to 7 (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*) scale unless noted otherwise. Please see Appendix D for all items.

Status Needed and Received

The status items previously developed and validated were used. Status needed was measured by asking “In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following is right for you to be viewed with by others?” followed by “Social...” and then the five items (status, standing, stature, relevance, and repute) ($\alpha = .94$). Items were measured using an amount response scale (e.g. 1 = none, 7 = a great deal). To measure status received, the same items and response scale was used in reference to how much of

each item participants feel they currently have at work (“In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following do you actually have in the view of others?”) ($\alpha = .96$).

Perceived Responsibility

Felt responsibility was measured using three items developed to directly measure felt responsibility at work ($\alpha = .91$). Items include “I have a great deal of responsibility in my organization,” “I am responsible for a lot at work,” and “Others believe I have a lot of responsibility.”

Perceived Expectations

As with felt responsibility, three items were developed to directly measure felt expectations at work ($\alpha = .91$). Items include “Others have high expectations of me,” “A lot is expected of me at work,” and “I feel that much is expected of me.”

Positive Affect

The 10-item positive affect scale from the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was used ($\alpha = .93$). Participants were asked to respond with “how you generally feel at work.” Items included “alert,” “attentive,” and “proud.”

Negative Affect

The 10 items measuring negative affect from the positive and negative affect schedule (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was used ($\alpha = .90$). Participants were asked to respond with “how you generally feel at work” and example items include “distressed,” “irritable,” and “upset.”

Anxiety

Anxiety at work was measured using three items from Fu and colleagues' (2021) measure ($\alpha = .91$). The items "anxious," "tense," and "worried" were used. Two other items from the measure, "nervous" and "upset", were not used as these items are included within the Watson and colleagues (1988) measure of negative affect.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale: "In general, I am satisfied with my job," "All in all, the job I have is great," and "My job is very enjoyable" (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) ($\alpha = .95$).

Withdrawal

Withdrawal was measured using items from Lehman and Simpson's (1992) ("I put less effort into the job than I should") and Rusbult and colleagues (1998) ("I have lost motivation for my job"; "I feel like putting in less effort to my job"; "I don't care about my job") measures. I developed three additional items meant to capture psychologically withdrawing from work ("I mentally distance myself from my work"; "I detach my mind from my work"; "My mind is not on my work these days"). The 7-item measure had a reliability of $\alpha = .95$.

Turnover Intentions

Bozeman and Perrewé's (2001) five-item measure of turnover intentions was used ($\alpha = .96$). Example items include "I intend to quit my job," and "I am thinking about quitting my job at the present time."

Plan of Analysis

Polynomial regression equations were calculated and subsequently plotted using response surface methodology (Edwards, 2002) to capture the joint effect of needed and

received status on the variables of interest. For each dependent variable, the following equation was calculated:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1SR + b_2SN + b_3SR^2 + b_4SR*SN + b_5SN^2 + e.$$

In this equation, Y is the dependent variable in question (e.g. job satisfaction, anxiety, etc.), SR is the effect of status received, and SN is the effect of status needed. The product of status needed and status received is included to capture moderating effects, and the squared terms of both are included to capture curvilinear effects. For each dependent variable, this equation was visualized via a surface plot, three-dimensional images with two bisecting lines, the fit line and misfit line, which correspond to my hypotheses.

The misfit line refers to where $x = -y$, where needed status and received status are not equal. The slope ($b_1 - b_2$) and curvature ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5$) of this line correspond to my hypotheses regarding misfit (deficiency and excess). Hypotheses 1a through 1d predict that positive affect, job satisfaction, responsibility, and expectations will increase as received status approaches needed status (positive slope along the misfit line). Hypotheses 1a and 1b predict that as received status exceeds needed status positive affect and job satisfaction will decline (negative curvature along the misfit line). Hypotheses 1c and 1d predict that as received status exceeds needed status responsibility and expectations will continue to increase (no curvature). Hypotheses 2a through 2d predict that as received status approaches needed status, negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions will decrease (negative slope along the misfit line), and as received status exceeds needed status, negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions will increase (positive curvature along the misfit line).

The fit line refers to where $x = y$, where needed status equals received status. The slope ($b_1 + b_2$) and curvature ($b_3 + b_4 + b_5$) of this line correspond to my hypotheses regarding absolute levels of needed and received status. Hypotheses 3a through 3d predict that positive affect, job satisfaction, responsibility, and expectations will be higher when absolute levels of status fit are greater, which may be supported by a positive slope and no curvature along the fit line. Hypotheses 4a through 4d predict that negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions will be lower when status needed and received are both high, which may be supported by a negative slope and no curvature along the fit line.

Additionally, congruence research often assumes that an outcome is maximized or minimized along the fit line. To assess this assumption, in accordance with the equations presented in Edwards (2002), for the concave surfaces, I calculated and tested the significance of the slope of the first principal axis via 95% confidence intervals obtained from 5,000 bootstrapped samples. A slope significantly different from one indicates significant surface rotation meaning the first principal axis, where outcomes are maximized, is not the same as the fit line. The shift of the first principal axis was likewise assessed via the steps recommended in Edwards (2002) and tested via 5,000 bootstrapped samples. For the convex surfaces, a surface shift is present when the slope of the second principal axis is significantly different than negative one. A slope different than negative one indicates that where outcomes are minimized is not the same as the fit line. As with the concave surfaces, the shift of the second principal axis was assessed.

CHAPTER IX

STUDY 3 RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 20. To draw conclusions from polynomial regression and surface plot methodologies it is necessary for data to adequately be present on either side of the fit line (when status needed = status received). I thus inspected the scatter plot (Figure 1) of status needed and status received which supports that there is adequate data on either side of the fit line. Prior to regression analyses, status needed and received were scale centered in accordance with recommendations to increase the interpretability of the results (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Please See Table 20 & Figure 1

I used confirmatory factor analysis to assess the dimensionality of the items. As the items for status needed and status received were identical except for the accompanying instructions there was a study design reason to expect the residuals of the like items (e.g. status needed item 1 and status received item 1) to correlate (Cole, Ciesla, & Steiger, 2007). Thus, I report CFA results with correlated residuals for the

corresponding items (Tables 21 & 22). I first ran a two-factor model with needed and received status and specified the items load on their intended latent factors ($\chi^2 = 150.15$, $df = 29$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .03) (Table 21). I compared these results to a one-factor model with the needed and received status items loading onto a single latent factor ($\chi^2 = 2,472.31$, $df = 30$; CFI = .66; RMSEA = .37; SRMR = .15). The model fit declined ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2322.16$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .05$) suggesting needed and received status are distinct. The same procedures were used to assess the distinctiveness of anxiety and negative affect as well as responsibility and expectations. In both instances the two-factor models fit the data better (Table 21).

I next conducted a series of CFAs with status needed, status received, and the dependent variable in question (Table 22). For each model I started with three factors, then specified all items load onto a single factor. For each dependent variable, the three-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one factor model. The results for the measurement models without correlated residuals are reported in Table 23 and consistent with the results using correlated residuals for the like status items, results support the specified three-factor models.

Please See Tables 21-23

Polynomial Regression Results

The regression results for status needed and received onto each DV are presented in Table 24 and the slopes and curvatures of the fit and misfit lines are presented in Table 25. The corresponding surface plots are presented in Figure 2. The fit line and misfit line

are visible for each surface. The fit line runs down the middle of each surface from front to back and the misfit line runs across the middle of each surface from left to right. For the concave surfaces, the first principal axis is also plotted. For the convex surfaces, the second principal axis is also plotted.

H1a and H1b, which predict that as received status approaches needed status positive affect and job satisfaction will increase, and as received status exceeds needed status positive affect and job satisfaction will decrease, were partially supported. While the slope of the misfit line was positive for positive affect (.16) and job satisfaction (.16), these slopes were not significant. However, there was significant negative curvature, suggesting that excess status is related to a decrease in positive affect (-.19) and job satisfaction (-.40). Figures 2a and 2b illustrate these results. Examining the figures moving from left to right (along the misfit line) indicates that deficient levels of status is associated with lower positive affect (Figure 2a; though not significant) and job satisfaction (Figure 2b; though not significant). However, moving to the excess side of the misfit line (when status received is greater than status needed), job satisfaction and positive affect decline (both significant). In alignment with H1c, responsibility increases as received status approaches needed status and continues to increase as received status exceeds needed status, the slope of the misfit line was positive (.36) and the curvature was not significant (-.07), suggesting that as status received increases, felt responsibility will continue to increase (see Figure 2c). Regarding felt expectations, H1d predicted expectations will continue to increase along the misfit line with no curvature. The slope of the misfit line was not significant (.01); however, there was significant positive curvature (.15), suggesting that as received status exceeds needed status, felt expectations

increase (see Figure 2d). Thus, while H1d was not supported, there is evidence that excess status is related to an increase in expectations. In sum, H1a and H1b were partially supported, H1c was supported, and while H1d was not supported, there is evidence that excess status is related to increases in expectations.

Aligned with H2a and H2b which predict that as status received approach status needed negative affect and anxiety will decrease, and as status received exceeds status needed negative affect and anxiety will increase, for negative affect and anxiety there was a significant negative slope along the misfit line (negative affect = $-.34$; anxiety = $-.41$) suggesting that as status received approaches fit, negative affect and anxiety decrease. However, these negative slopes were coupled with positive significant curvatures (negative affect = $.23$; anxiety = $.31$) providing evidence that with excess status negative affect and anxiety increase (see Figures 2e and 2f). H2c, which predicted that withdrawal would decline as received status approached needed status and then increase as received status exceeded needed status, was partially supported as the negative slope of the misfit line was not significant for withdrawal ($-.06$); however, there was significant positive curvature ($.25$), suggesting that excess status is related to an increase in withdrawal (see Figure 2g). Regarding H2d, turnover intentions was predicted to decline as received status approaches needed status and subsequently increase as received status exceeds needed status. While the slope of the misfit line was negative ($-.13$) and the curvature was positive ($.15$), they were not significant (see Figure 2h). Thus, H2a and H2b were supported, H2c was partially supported, and H2d was not supported.

For status fit (when status received equals status needed), Table 24 shows that the slope of the fit line was significant and in the expected direction for all DVs. H3a through

H3d predicted that positive affect, job satisfaction, responsibility, and expectations would increase as absolute levels of fit increase. In alignment with these hypotheses, as absolute levels of fit increase, positive affect (.35), job satisfaction (.38), responsibility (.45), and expectations (.22) increase. However, the slope of the curvature along the fit line for expectations was positive and significant (.09), suggesting that as absolute levels of fit increase, expectations increase at a higher rate. Please see Figures 2a through 2d for the visualization of these results. In the figures, the fit line runs down the middle of the image from front (low needed status and low received status) to back (high needed status and high received status). As evidenced by the surface plots, as absolute levels of fit increase, positive affect, job satisfaction, responsibility, and expectations increase. In sum, H3a, H3b, and H3c, were fully supported while H3d was partially supported as the positive curvature along the fit line was not anticipated.

H4a through H4d, which predicted that negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions would decline as absolute levels of fit increase, were supported. The slope of the fit line was negative and significant for negative affect (-.14), anxiety (-.20), withdrawal (-.35), and turnover intentions (-.22), suggesting that as absolute levels of fit increase, withdrawal, turnover intentions, negative affect, and anxiety decrease. Figures 2e through 2h depict these results. In each image the DV is higher at the front of the fit line (when needed and received status are low) and the DV decreases as absolute levels of fit increase. Thus, H4a, H4b, H4c, and H4d were fully supported.

Please See Tables 24-25 & Figure 2

To further consider the shape of the surface plots, I examined the slope and shift of the first principal axis for the concave surfaces (positive affect, job satisfaction, and responsibility) and the slope and shift of the second principal axis for the convex surfaces (expectations, negative affect, anxiety, withdrawal, and turnover intentions). For concave surfaces, if the slope of the first principal axis is significantly different than one, this suggests the surface is rotated; meaning where outcomes are maximized is not aligned with the fit line. For convex surfaces, if the slope of the second principal axis is significantly different than negative one, the surface is rotated, and the fit line is not where outcomes are minimized. Please see Table 26.

For positive affect and job satisfaction, the slopes of the first principal axis were significantly greater than one (3.42 and 2.29 respectively), indicating that the first principal axis was rotated counterclockwise for both outcomes. The shifts of the first principal axes were positive and significant for positive affect (.64) and job satisfaction (.32) suggesting that the axes were shifted slightly to the right of the fit line. Considering the rotation and the shift, for those that desire less status (less than the scale midpoint), positive affect and job satisfaction are maximized when slightly more than desired is received. For those that desire more status (greater than the scale midpoint), positive affect and job satisfaction are maximized when slightly less than desired is received. For responsibility, the slope of the first principal axis was nearly parallel to the fit line as indicated by the non-significant slope (.71); however, the shift of the first principal axis was positive and significant (1.87) suggesting that responsibility is maximized when received status is greater than needed status.

Regarding expectations, the slope (1.14) and shift (-.06) of the second principal axis were nonsignificant, suggesting expectations are maximized along the fit line. The slopes and shifts of the second principal axes for negative affect, anxiety, and withdrawal were significant (slopes: 1.60, 1.70, 2.68 respectively; shifts: .78, .70, .34 respectively) indicating each second principal axis was rotated counterclockwise and shifted to the right. For negative affect, anxiety, and withdrawal, when people need less status (less than the scale midpoint), outcomes are minimized when received status is slightly greater than needed status. For people who need more status (greater than the scale midpoint) the outcomes are minimized when they receive slightly less status than desired. Lastly, the slope and shift of the second principal axis for turnover intentions was nonsignificant.

Summary of Results

The results of Study 3 were generally supportive of my hypotheses. Consistent with my expectations, being deficient in status is related to detrimental outcomes, such as lower job satisfaction and higher negative affect, and as received status increases to approach levels of needed status, outcomes generally improve. In support of my theorizing that excess status may not be beneficial, having more status than desired is related to lower job satisfaction and positive affect, and higher negative affect, anxiety, and withdrawal. Results suggest that one rationale for excess being detrimental may be the additional responsibility and expectations that are associated with having more status than needed.

CHAPTER X

DISCUSSION

In recent decades there has been an increase in research examining workplace social status. Out of such research a rather strong assumption has taken hold, that workplace social status is beneficial and thus most employees actively strive to increase their status (Duguid & Goncolo, 2015). This assumption has resulted in research examining the outcomes of high status actors and how individuals may increase their status at work (e.g. Gibson et al., 2018; Howell et al., 2015; Kakkar et al., 2020; Neeley & Dumas, 2016). However, according to Expectation States Theory (e.g. Correll & Ridgeway, 2006), with status comes additional expectations and responsibilities which have the potential to be unwarranted and/or undesired. In this dissertation, I provide evidence that high, or additional, workplace social status is not always beneficial, and instead may result in detrimental workplace outcomes.

Using a person-environment fit perspective (Edwards & Van Harrison, 1993), which suggests that workplace outcomes are impacted by both the amount of something

an individual needs as well as the amount they feel they have, I theorize that it is not high status that is best, but the right amount of status that is preferred. In other words, perhaps people do not strive for more and more status, but instead strive for the amount of status that is right for them. No prior work has examined workplace social status using a person-environment fit perspective and I suggest without doing so we may have an incomplete view of why status matters in the workplace and how it effects outcomes. The person-environment fit paradigm is ripe for integration with social status research as status is conceptualized as a fundamental human motive (Anderson et al., 2015; Dweck, 2017). Within the P-E fit paradigm, psychological needs fulfillment suggests that the congruence between a person's fundamental needs and the extent to which those needs are met impacts workplace outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Research suggests that people place varying levels of importance on fundamental needs (e.g. Dweck, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and thus there is variance in how much of a need is desired. As status is a fundamental human motive, people likely vary in needed status, and by not examining the joint effect of needed and received status we may not have a complete picture of how status impacts workplace outcomes. Indeed, prior empirical work suggests that people have right amounts of fundamental needs in the workplace, and misalignment between desired and received may be detrimental (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

I first explore this possibility qualitatively in Study 1 by asking employees to consider how much status is right for them and how much status they actually have in their workplace. These interviews provided initial support that there is variance in needed status and that people may be deficient (less status than desired), congruent (alignment

between needed and received status), or in excess (more status than desired) of workplace status. As expected given the nature of status as a fundamental human need (Dweck, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and an avenue for resource control (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014), deficiency in workplace status was discussed as being detrimental. Regarding excess, prior research would suggest that more status than desired is beneficial; however, the majority of interviewees readily discussed negatives of having more status than desired. The negative implications centered around the additional expectations and responsibility that may arise from additional status, as these expectations and responsibilities may be unwanted or unwarranted, resulting in additional stress and pressure.

In Study 3, I empirically tested my theorizing that P-E fit may further explain how status impacts workplace outcomes, with excess status being detrimental. Specifically, I examined the joint effect of needed and received status on positive affect, negative affect, anxiety, job satisfaction, psychological withdrawal, and turnover intentions. In general support of my hypotheses, results suggest that as received status increases and approaches needed status, outcomes improve; however, contrary to what may be expected based on prior research, excess status resulted in negative outcomes (reduced job satisfaction and positive affect and increased negative affect, anxiety, and withdrawal). Furthermore, results suggest that as status received increases, responsibility and expectations also increase, providing one possible rationale for the detrimental nature of excess status. Lastly, my findings suggest that employee outcomes are more favorable when absolute levels of status fit (when needed status equals received status) are high

(needed and received status are both high) compared to when absolute levels are low (needed and received status are both low).

These findings contribute to the workplace status literature in two important ways. First, by demonstrating the effects of status vary depending on the joint effect of needed and received status, I hope to open the door to additional work examining workplace status from a person-environment fit perspective. Such incorporation may be used to further disentangle the impact of workplace status on relevant outcomes. Secondly, my findings suggest more status is not always beneficial, and may be quite detrimental for employee outcomes. These findings suggest that the relationship between received status at work and outcomes may not be linear as most studies have assumed. By incorporating a person-environment fit perspective with workplace status we may be better able to explain the impact status has in the workplace.

This dissertation further contributes to the status literature by reconceptualizing the definition of workplace status and developing a validated measure. Status has traditionally been defined and measured using related concepts (e.g., Anderson et al., 2001; Anderson et al., 2012; Christie & Barling, 2010; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Ouyang et al., 2018; Pettit et al., 2016), naturally contaminating our definitions and measures of status. It is difficult to argue that status as a construct is separate from these concepts when they are often included within the definitions and measures of status. Additionally, by including related concepts within the definitions and measures of status we are likely conflating status with antecedents and outcomes which goes against best practices for definition and measurement development (Podsakoff et al., 2016). Furthermore, as how

status is defined and measured varies, knowledge accumulation may be limited as the content domain of status shifts study to study.

I addressed these knowledge accumulation threats by first developing a definition of workplace status, based on prior research as well as interviews with practitioners, that does not include related concepts. Specifically, prior literature and interviewee comments suggest that status is a subjective evaluation of social standing (Blau, 1964; Foa, 1971; Djurdjevic et al., 2017; Goldhamer & Shils, 1939; Hollander, 1958; Podolny, 1993), conferred from others (Blader & Yu, 2017; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), and context specific (Anderson et al., 2001; Blader & Yu, 2017; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Thus, I define workplace status: *As perceived by the individual, others' views of the individual's social standing in the workplace*. While this definition is from the perspective of the focal individual, the definition may be adapted to align with research questions involving other-ratings of status.

Using this definition, I developed and validated a five-item measure of workplace status following best practice recommendations (Hinkin, 1998; Colquitt et al., 2019; Schwab, 1980). I first demonstrated content validity via subject matter expert reviews (Study 2a) as well as working adult ratings (Study 2b). In Study 2c I provided evidence for the construct validity of my status measure by assessing the measurement model of the measure as well as testing for discriminant and convergent validity. My hope is that having clarified the definition and measurement of workplace status we as a field will have reduced definitional and measurement inconsistency, resulting in more streamlined knowledge accumulation.

Practical Implications

My findings suggest that the outcomes of workplace status are most beneficial when there is alignment between needed and received status. This is particularly relevant information for organizational leadership as managers may be well equipped to assess the needs of their subordinates and take steps to ensure that those needs are met. For instance, a manager may discern that status is a critical driver for some employees. Should such employees feel as though they are deficient in status, they may experience negative consequences. A manager may be equipped to bolster the employees' image of their statuses, while also discussing avenues for further increasing status. Furthermore, a manager may be inclined to believe that an employee with high social status is satisfied with their job; however, this may not be the case. Should a manager determine an employee likely has more status than they would like, the manager may be able to take steps to support the employee, such as shielding the employee from additional expectations and responsibility.

Limitations

As with any set of studies, this dissertation has limitations. First, I do not assess causality in this work, and thus future research is needed to determine if excess status is a direct cause of outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction. As I do rely on self-rating survey methodology, there may be the concern of common method variance; however, research suggests that non-linear effects, such as those I used to assess status fit, are not increased by common method variance (Siemson et al., 2010). Furthermore, I time separated the measures of needed and received status from the dependent variables to alleviate common method variance concerns (Podsakoff, et al., 2003).

Additionally, I do not currently assess downstream outcomes of status fit. While theoretically there are reasons to believe that the additional expectations and responsibility associated with excess status may result in detrimental consequences, I do not directly test this mediation. Future work is needed to establish the mechanisms through which status fit impacts workplace outcomes.

Lastly, my studies heavily rely on online panels and snowball methodologies as opposed to field studies. However, as the workplace status measure is intended to apply across industries, job types, position levels, etc., a representative of the working population was preferable. Furthermore, as this is the first work examining the role of status fit in the workplace, I sought to provide evidence that status fit is relevant to consider across organizational contexts. Relying on field data may have resulted in truncated variance regarding needed and received status due to organizational culture effects. For instance, it is possible that in a particular organization most employees feel as though they are deficient in status, while in another organization most employees feel as though they have excess status.

Future Directions

This dissertation is the first step towards incorporating a person environment fit perspective with workplace status research. Thus, there are numerous avenues for future work. For instance, research is needed to determine if there are positive outcomes of deficiency. Perhaps for a new employee, deficiency, while unpleasant, is also motivational and signals to the employee that they may need to take steps to increase their status, ultimately resulting in better performance and additional recognition. Furthermore, it is unlikely that excess status is always negative, begging the question,

when and for whom is excess detrimental. Certain people may be better equipped to address or cope with excess status and some work contexts may be more conducive to supporting an employee who is in excess.

Person-environment fit perspectives and status may also be integrated with research examining team dynamics. For instance, the alignment between how much status a person feels a coworker should grant the person, and how much the person feels the coworker actually grants, may help to explain various relational variables, such as conflict, between coworkers. Other alignments could also be examined, such as the congruence between how much status coworker A confers a focal person versus how much status coworker B confers the person. Perhaps if coworker A confers the person with greater status than coworker B, the person is more likely to share relevant work information with coworker A.

Conclusion

This dissertation addresses the assumption that more status is beneficial in the workplace by incorporating a person-environment fit perspective. Results suggest that it is not more status that is beneficial, but the right amount of status that results in positive outcomes. While prior research would suggest that having more status than desired is positive, the findings of this dissertation indicate that excess status results in various detrimental outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction and increased anxiety. Additionally, this work revisits the definition and measurement of status in an effort to reduce definitional and measurement inconsistency which should allow for more streamlined knowledge accumulation

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Tables

Table 1
Example Status Definitions from Prior Research

Article	Definition
Anderson et al. (2001)	“Status is defined by the amount of respect, influence, and prominence each member enjoys in the eyes of the others.”
Christie & Barling (2010)	“More specifically, status represents an individual’s social standing or rank order among others within a social system, which is based on prestige, prominence, and respect.”
Ouyang et al. (2018)	“Defined as prominence, respect, and deference from other group members.”
Petit et al. (2016)	“The amount of respect, prestige, and admiration that a person is granted relative to others.”
Djordjevic et al. (2017)	“An employee’s relative standing in an organization, as characterized by the respect, prominence, and prestige he or she possesses in the eyes of other organizational members.”
Cao & Smith (2021)	“Status amounts to rank positions in a social hierarchy that both emerge from and subsequently affect the extent to which an actor is respected, admired, or deferred to by others.”
Yu & Kilduff (2020)	“Status in groups is conceptualized as the average level of respect, admiration, and voluntary deference each individual member receives from others in the group.”
Marr & Thau (2014)	“A status hierarchy is a rank ordering or prestige and a person’s position in the hierarchy in a group is determined by the respect and deference received from others in the group.”
Blader et al. (2016)	“Social status—or hierarchical differentiation that is based on assessments of an individual’s prestige, respect, and esteem.”
Weiss & Morrison (2019)	“Social status is defined as prestige, respect, and esteem in the eyes of others.”

Table 2*Dictionary Definitions of Status and Concepts used to Define Status*

	Oxford English Dictionary	Merriam-Webster	Dictionary.com	Google Dictionary
Status	social or professional rank, position, or standing	position or rank in relation to others	the position of an individual in relation to another or others, especially in regard to social or professional standing	the relative social, professional, or other standing of someone or something
Respect	in favorable sense: to treat or regard with deference, esteem, or honor	high or special regard: esteem	to hold in esteem or honor	a feeling of deep admiration for someone or something elicited by their abilities, qualities, or achievements
Prestige	influence or reputation derived from achievements, associations, or character, or from past success; a person's standing in the estimation of others	standing or estimation in the eyes of people: weight or credit in general opinion commanding position in people's minds	reputation or influence arising from success, achievement, rank, or other favorable attributes	widespread respect and admiration felt for someone or something on the basis of a perception of their achievements or quality
Esteem	favorable opinion; regard; respect	the regard in which one is held	to regard highly or favorably; regard with respect or admiration	respect and admiration, typically for a person
Admiration	regard for someone or something considered praiseworthy or excellent; esteem, approbation; appreciation	a feeling of respect and approval	a feeling of wonder, pleasure, or approval	respect and warm approval
Prominence	the quality or state of being conspicuous; notoriety, eminence, fame; superiority, distinction in a particular field	readily noticeable: conspicuous	standing out so as to be seen easily; particularly noticeable; conspicuous	the state of being important or famous the fact or condition of standing out from something by physically projecting or being particularly noticeable

Influence	to affect the condition of, to have an effect on	the power or capacity of causing an effect in indirect or intangible ways	the capacity or power of persons or things to be a compelling force on or produce effects on the actions, behavior, opinions, etc., of others	the capacity to have an effect on the character, development, or behavior of someone or something, or the effect itself
Deference	submission to the acknowledged superior claims, skill, judgement, or other qualities, of another	respect and esteem due a superior or an elder	respectful submission or yielding to the judgment, opinion, will, etc., of another	humble submission and respect.

Table 3*Study 1 Participant was Unable to Provide a Clear Definition*

Participant	Status	Respect	Prominence	Prestige	Esteem	Admiration	Deference	Influence	Power	Sum by Participant
1	X		X	X			X			4
2		X			X	X	X	X	X	6
3	X	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1
4	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	8
5	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	8
6	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	8
7	X		X	X	X	X	X			6
8	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	7
9										0
10		X	X			X	X			4
11	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	9
12	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		7
13			X		X	X				3
14	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	7
15		X	X	X	X	X	X			6
16			X		X	X	X			4
17		X				X	X			3
18	X	X		X		X	X	X		6
19		X	X	X			X			4
20	X	X	X		X	X	X			6
21	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
22		X	X	X		X	X	X		6
23	X	X	X			X	X	X		6
Sum by Concept	14	16	16	12	11	18	20	12	8	127

Note. ‘X’ indicates the participant was unable to make a clear defining statement regarding the concept. Participants who simply discussed outcomes or antecedents of a concept were coded as not being able to make a defining statement. One participant was unable to complete the interview and thus did not discuss the concepts other than status (‘NA’). The sum for each row is the number of concepts for which the

participant was coded as not making a clear definition. The sum for each column is the total number of participants that did not make a clear definition of the concept.

Table 4*Study 1 Participant Clear and Unclear Definitions of Status*

Clear Definition Stated?	Participant	Quote
Yes	19	“A high social status would be a high level of respect among your team.”
Yes	2	“I would define social status as where you fit in the hierarchy from a social standing, from a social perspective.”
No	3	“One is the degree of trust. What's the degree of trust that people place in this individual”
No	6	“I think my status really goes back to the level of involvement and the level of expertise and my ability to answer the questions that are submitted to me or asked of me.”

Note. Such quotes are representative of clear and unclear status definitions provided by participants.

Table 5*Study 1 Participant Quotes Indicating Status as Subjective Social Standing*

Participant	Quote
14	“Cause status is a perception.”
2	“I would define social status... where you fit in the hierarchy, you know, from a social standing, from a social perspective.”
21	“Status is perceived through an individual.”
7	“There really is a social hierarchy that's not as official as the titles there.”
17	“So I feel like our status amongst each other is pretty high regard.”

Note. Such quotes are representative of participant comments alluding to the subjective and general social nature of status in the workplace.

Table 6
Study 1 Positive and Negative Outcomes of Status

Outcome Valence	Outcome	Participant	Quote
Positive	Control of the job	7	"...you have a little bit more flexibility with respect to the work that you do. Typically, you get it by stepping up and doing everything, but then eventually you're the one that gets to go do the four-week Asia tour, if you want to. So there are a lot of have-to-do's and then there are a handful of get-to-dos. I've reached a point where I basically get to do all the get-to-dos."
Positive	Control of the job	16	"Status allows someone to maybe almost pick and choose what new initiatives they take on at the bank."
Positive	Job is easier	2	"Things are all easier."
Positive	Job is easier	6	"I can get things done relatively quickly as opposed to somebody who doesn't have social status."
Positive	Influence	10	"Influence comes out of status. So like the higher status, the more influence you get."
Positive	Influence	19	"Status makes people listen more."
Positive	General Opportunities	1	"Status gives a lot of opportunities and options, more than someone with less status."
Positive	General Opportunities	4	"It allows for a wide variety of opportunities across my day."
Positive	Career advancement	8	"It gives you further opportunity to move up as well."
Positive	Career advancement	9	"It could result in promotions."
Positive	Job security	7	"If I did not have social status when I would, lash out periodically... I probably would have been asked to leave. And I remember once... my boss said, you know, if anybody else did that, we'd fire him."
Positive	Job security	23	"I think most other people would have gotten fired by now... God knows I gave them reason too."

Positive	Job Satisfaction	15	“I guess the enjoyment of coming to work every day.”
Positive	Job Satisfaction	12	“Me personally, satisfaction.”
Negative	Expectations	10	“I mean, you have higher expectations.”
Negative	Expectations	14	“It's very demanding. A lot of people's expectations are higher, I guess I haven't spoken out about expectations, but your expectations are higher when you do have that status. So I would say that's a negative.”
Negative	Expectations	13	“A lot of hours.”
Negative	Expectations	9	“More expectations that may or may not be realistic of you.”
Negative	Additional Responsibility	2	“And other times it feels like a burden because I feel responsible.”
Negative	Additional Responsibility	20	“Definitely more responsibility. If you make a mistake, you're much more accountable for it. You have more responsibility in making, helping the client make relatively important financial decisions and trusting you.”
Negative	Stress/pressure	9	“I think a big negative of having status is more pressure to perform.”
Negative	Stress/pressure	23	“So if you're okay with working with pressure working under pressure, but I guess that would be the only real downside.”

Table 7
Study 1 Participant Quotes of how Concepts were Discussed

Concept	Participant	Quote
Respect	11	“I think somebody who is knowledgeable in the field and in what they do for their job.”
Respect	1	“I would define that as the value they place on another person or another person's opinion.”
Prominence	4	“I'd say that's a visibility thing. The supervisors are very prominent across the organization. A few of the lead employees on each team have some prominence.”
Prominence	6	“Prominence to me says what level are you at in the organization.”
Prestige	5	“Prestige can be a little bit different; prestige can have to do with a single attribute.”
Prestige	16	“I would say someone has prestige based on their accomplishments.”
Esteem	10	“That would be somebody who's liked.”
Esteem	8	“Is that not necessarily different than respect for respect? Isn't it a synonym for respect? I would think it's the same definition. According to Merriam Webster, they're the same. I looked it up.”
Admiration	1	“This may be an incomplete definition, but maybe the level of admiration is the degree to which someone would aspire to be like that person.”
Admiration	9	“Admiration signals that someone wants to maybe strive to embody certain qualities that you have.”
Deference	15	“I guess a little bit more of a formal role to me, whereas status is more informal.”
Deference	7	“When it comes down to the subject matter, a lot of people will defer to the experts in certain areas.”
Influence	1	“The ability to create change in another person or another situation.”
Influence	12	“Influence means that you're able to persuade or enable others to do something or change their mind.”

Note. Such quotes are representative of participant comments while discussing each concept.

Table 8*Study 1 Participant Indications for how Status Relates to Each Concept*

Participant	Respect	Prominence	Prestige	Esteem	Admiration	Deference	Influence	Power
1	Sim	Dif	Dif	Sim	UC	Sim	UC	UC
2	Dif	Both	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Both
3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4	Sim	Dif	Both	Dif	Sim	Dif	Dif	Dif
5	Sim	Sim	Dif	Sim	Sim	Dif	Dif	Dif
6	UC	Dif	Dif	Sim	Sim	Dif	Sim	Sim
7	Sim	Dif	Sim	UC	UC	Dif	Dif	Dif
8	Dif	Sim	Sim	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Sim
9	Dif	Dif	Dif	Sim	Dif	Dif	Dif	Sim
10	Sim	UC	Sim	Dif	UC	UC	Dif	Dif
11	Sim	UC	Dif	UC	Sim	Sim	Dif	Sim
12	Sim	Sim	UC	Sim	UC	Sim	Dif	UC
13	Both	Dif	UC	UC	Dif	Dif	Dif	Sim
14	Sim	Dif	Sim	UC	Dif	Dif	Sim	Dif
15	Sim	Dif	UC	UC	Both	Dif	Dif	Dif
16	Dif	Sim	Dif	UC	Sim	Dif	Both	UC
17	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	UC	Dif	Dif
18	Sim	Dif	UC	Dif	Dif	Sim	Dif	Dif
19	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	UC
20	Dif	UC	Dif	Sim	Dif	Dif	Both	Sim
21	Dif	UC	Sim	Dif	Dif	UC	Dif	UC
22	Sim	Dif	Dif	Sim	Dif	UC	Both	Dif
23	UC	Dif	Dif	Dif	Dif	UC	UC	UC
Similar	11	4	5	7	5	4	2	6
Different	8	13	12	9	12	13	15	9
Both	1	1	1	0	1	0	3	1
Unclear	2	4	4	6	4	5	2	6

Note. Participant comments were coded as indicating a concept is similar (Sim) to status, different than status (Dif), making contradictory statements (both), or as leaving the relationship between status and a concept as unclear (UC).

Table 9*Study 1 Status and Concepts Used to Define and Measure Status are Different*

Concept	Participant	Quote
Respect	2	“I think respect is independent of status.”
Respect	13	“You can have 100%, you can have status without respect, without question.”
Prominence	23	“So he is prominent. He is not necessarily highly regarded.”
Prominence	17	“You could have really high prominence and low status because you're well known, but it's not for the right thing”
Prestige	2	“It's (status) an active thing where I think prestige, you can have prestige not having anything to do with the organization. You can say Deion Sanders (a hall of fame professional American football league player) has prestige, but he has no status at (our workplace). He still would have prestige at (our workplace). So it'd be prestigious to have him be around, but there'd be no status effect. No one's going to go oh he's got more status here than anybody else.”
Prestige	6	“I kind of see that (prestige vs status) as pretty, pretty far apart potentially.”
Esteem	17	“Well, they can be a really well esteemed guy. He's fun. He's a lot of fun to hang around, he's well liked, but maybe he lacks in his status. Like he can never follow through or he has difficulty, holding people accountable, or he lacks the follow up.”
Esteem	10	“In this case, I wouldn't say it goes hand in hand because you can like somebody a lot and they could be not good at their job.”
Admiration	14	“They don't necessarily have to have status to be admired.”
Admiration	19	“You can admire somebody regardless of whether they have status.”
Deference	20	“It's based on position in the company. I mean, people have different roles they do. I think it's based more on that than status.”
Deference	14	“I would say that this would define somebody without status.”
Influence	4	“I believe it is different. An employee can still have influence even though they might be in terms of the, the rungs of the status ladder, towards the bottom of the ladder, but they can still influence how something may occur.”
Influence	10	“Influence comes out of status. So like the higher status, the more influence you get, because you are more respected”

Note. Such quotes are representative of participant comments when discussing why a concept and status are different.

Table 10*Study 1 Values for Needed and Received Status and Subsequent Status Fit*

	Org Needed Status	Org Received Status	Org Status Fit	Team Needed Status	Team Received Status	Team Status Fit
Participant 1	5	6 or 7	Excess	6	7	Excess
Participant 2	5.8	6.2	Excess	5.5	7	Excess
Participant 3	5 to 6	6	Congruence	NA	NA	NA
Participant 4	5	6	Excess	6	6	Congruence
Participant 5	7	7	Congruence	NA	NA	NA
Participant 6	6	6	Congruence	7	5	Deficiency
Participant 7	at least 6	6 to 7	Congruence	6 to 7	6 to 7	Congruence
Participant 8	4	4	Congruence	5	5	Congruence
Participant 9	5 to 6	4	Deficiency	6	6	Congruence
Participant 10	6	6	Congruence	NA	NA	NA
Participant 11	7	4	Deficiency	7	4	Deficiency
Participant 12	6 to 7	6 to 7	Congruence	6 to 7	6 to 7	Congruence
Participant 13	7	7	Congruence	NA	NA	NA
Participant 14	4	1	Deficiency	6	5	Deficiency
Participant 15	5	6	Excess	5	6	Excess
Participant 16	5 to 6	3 to 4	Deficiency	4 to 5	3 to 4	Deficiency
Participant 17	7	6	Deficiency	7	7	Excess
Participant 18	6	4 to 5	Deficiency	6	5 to 6	Congruence
Participant 19	5	3	Deficiency	5.5	4	Deficiency
Participant 20	5	4	Deficiency	5	4	Deficiency
Participant 21	6	7	Excess	NA	NA	NA
Participant 22	5 to 6	4	Deficiency	5 to 6	5	Congruence
Participant 23	6	6	Congruence	NA	NA	NA

Note. Participants were asked to respond on a 1 (no status) to 7 (a great deal of status) scale when considering how much status they need and how much status they have. Fit was assessed as follows: if status needed and received are the same there is congruence, if status received is less than status needed there is deficiency, and if status received is more than status needed there is excess.

Table 11*Study 1 Participant Quotes Considering How Much Status is Needed*

Participant	Quote
4	“In the hierarchy, there needs to be a certain amount of social status there.”
2	“You don't want to have no social status because... everything's just hard.”
7	“I need to not worry about all the peripheral stuff.”
2	“You never want to be at the top of the Pez dispenser. Cause that's when you get kicked in the mouth, but you don't want to be at the bottom of the Pez dispenser. Cause the weight of the other Pezs will crush you, and by the time you get to the top you're powder. And I think the same thing with social status.”
9	“Not enough that it is an overwhelming amount of pressure or unrealistic expectations attached with it.”
10	“Any higher than that, it means that you will become the project lead. If that's the case, there are a lot of things that go under your belt. And I would say that is too much for me. ...Its too many variables, so I wouldn't like having so many variables under my belt, that would be too much for me.”
14	“So enough status that you are trusted to do your work without being micromanaged, enough status, to be trusted, that you're viewed as an expert in some things, but not too much status that you're relied upon for things that you can't control or things that you have no capabilities of actually performing to that level.”

Note. Such quotes are representative of participant comments while discussing how much status they need within their workplace.

Table 12*Study 1 Participant Quotes Discussing Deficiency and Excess*

Deficiency/Excess	Valence	Participant	Quote
Excess	Positive	18	"I don't know that I could, I don't know that there's enough."
Excess	Negative	14	"I think too many people are incapable of having, me personally would be incapable of having (a lot of status)."
Excess	Negative	2	"I mean, I would like to have a little less because I get lots of calls and lots of things I'm asked about or asked to do."
Excess	Negative	19	"It's not too much status where people are clamoring for your time or skills. I feel like that might get exhausting."
Deficiency	Negative	10	"Any less status it's because I did very poorly at my job and you know, that is not good."
Deficiency	Negative	2	"You don't want to have no social status because... everything's just hard."

Note. Such quotes are representative of participant comments while discussing being deficient or excess in status.

Table 13*Example Measures of Status from Prior Research*

Article	Definition	Example Items
Flynn et al. (2006)	“we have focused our attention on social status, which refers to a position of elevated social standing and interpersonal influence.”	“s/he is able to persuade other people and change their opinions”, “s/he fails to direct and steer meetings in his/her favor”, “s/he is able to build coalitions to get things done”
Kilduff & Galinsky (2013)	“We define status as the level of respect, prominence, and influence that an individual has within a group.”	respected and admired, had influence over task decisions
Djurdjevic et al. (2017)	“An employee’s relative standing in an organization, as characterized by the respect, prominence, and prestige he or she possesses in the eyes of other organizational members.”	“I have a great deal of prestige in my organization”, “I possess high status in my organization”, “I occupy a respected position in my organization”, “I have a position of prestige in my organization”, “I possess a high level of prominence in my organization”
Cao & Smith (2021)	“Status amounts to rank positions in a social hierarchy that both emerge from and subsequently affect the extent to which an actor is respected, admired, or deferred to by others.”	“I have a high level of respect in others’ eyes”, “Others admire me”, “I have high social standing”, “Others look up to me”
Flynn (2003)	“social status (based on honor, prestige, and deference).”	“How well respected is this person at work?” “How valuable are this person's contributions at work?” “How much influence does this person exert over decisions at work?”
Halevy et al. (2020)	“Individuals tend to confer status (i.e., respect and admiration).”	“My roommate is respected and admired by their peers at [university name]”, “My roommate has a great deal of prestige among their peers at [university name]”, “My roommate has high prominence relative to their peers at [university name]”

Table 14*Items Included in Studies 2a and 2b*

Construct	Item
Status	Others believe I have social status
Status	Others believe I have social relevance.
Status	Others think well of me.
Status	Others positively view me.
Status	Others believe I have social repute.
Status	Others appreciate me.
Status	Others perceive me well.
Status	Others regard me well.
Status	Others view me as having social standing.
Status	Others see me in a positive light.
Status	Others think highly of me.
Status	Others perceive me positively.
Status	Others believe I have social stature.
Power	I think I have a great deal of power.
Power	Even when I try I am not able to get my way.
Power	I can get others to do what I want.
Power	My wishes do not carry much weight.
Power	I can get people to listen to what I say.
Power	My ideas and opinions are often ignored.
Power	Even if I voice them, my views have little sway.
Power	If I want to, I get to make the decisions.
Respect	My colleagues respect my values.
Respect	I make a good impression on my colleagues.
Respect	Most of my colleagues like me.
Respect	My colleagues react well to me and to what I say and do.
Respect	Most of my colleagues respect me.
Respect	I have a good reputation among my colleagues.
Respect	Most of my colleagues are impressed by what I have accomplished at work.

Table 15
Study 2a Results

Item	Status Definition Mean	Respect Definition Mean	Power Definition Mean	ANOVA tests of significant differences	R _{WG}	<i>htc</i>	<i>htd</i>
Others believe I have social status.	4.78	2.70	2.26	Yes**	0.94	0.96	0.57
Others view me as having social standing.	4.77	2.78	2.41	Yes**	0.94	0.95	0.54
Others believe I have social stature.	4.52	2.67	2.19	Yes**	0.79	0.90	0.52
Others believe I have social repute.	4.37	2.81	2.30	Yes**	0.82	0.87	0.45
Others believe I have social relevance.	4.22	3.15	2.33	Yes**	0.79	0.84	0.37

Note. *htc* = Hinkin Tracey correspondence; *htd* = Hinkin Tracey distinctiveness.

Table 16
Study 2b Results

Item	Status Definition Mean	Respect Definition Mean	Power Definition Mean	ANOVA tests of significant differences	R _{WG}	<i>htc</i>	<i>htd</i>
Others believe I have social standing.	4.68	3.71	3.36	Yes**	0.83	0.94	0.29
Others believe I have social stature.	4.61	3.28	3.21	Yes**	0.83	0.92	0.34
Others believe I have social status.	4.60	3.34	3.22	Yes**	0.81	0.92	0.33
Others believe I have social relevance.	4.49	3.37	3.17	Yes**	0.86	0.90	0.31
Others believe I have social repute.	4.48	3.27	3.31	Yes**	0.83	0.90	0.30

Note. *htc* = Hinkin Tracey correspondence; *htd* = Hinkin Tracey distinctiveness.

Table 17
Study 2c Descriptive Statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Workplace status	.96															
2. Job competence	.18	.92														
3. Liking	.25	.44	.92													
4. Job satisfaction	.10	.38	.43	.94												
5. Turnover intentions	-.06	-.25	-.29	-.60	.95											
6. Job security	.30	.26	.32	.17	-.18	.89										
7. Respect	.22	.60	.75	.43	-.29	.30	.91									
8. Generalized power	.31	.37	.28	.48	-.39	.26	.46	.84								
9. Referent power	.21	.46	.69	.65	-.46	.33	.64	.48	.89							
10. Expert power	.24	.48	.39	.36	-.21	.37	.48	.33	.47	.87						
11. Reputation	.28	.60	.49	.35	-.19	.40	.67	.39	.53	.66	.94					
12. Age	.05	.18	-.01	.11	-.29	-.06	.13	.29	.09	.13	.13	--				
13. Gender	-.10	.06	.03	-.07	-.01	.04	-.02	-.18	-.04	-.19	-.02	-.02	--			
14. Ethnicity	.09	-.02	.00	.04	-.11	-.06	.01	.06	.03	-.01	-.03	.05	-.04	--		
15. Formal position	.29	.19	.09	.20	-.23	.18	.18	.41	.21	.27	.28	.44	-.16	.02	--	
16. Income	.17	.12	.00	.16	-.31	.02	.13	.42	.18	.24	.21	.53	-.36	.12	.56	--
Mean	4.67	6.35	5.71	5.57	2.25	5.56	5.95	5.04	5.71	5.68	5.89	43.08	0.57	0.80	3.05	4.39
SD	1.26	0.70	0.93	1.31	1.52	1.04	0.73	0.94	0.97	0.90	0.72	14.26	0.50	0.40	1.48	1.49

Note. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Ethnicity: 0 = nonwhite, 1 = white. Reliability coefficients are listed in italics on the diagonal. Absolute values greater than or equal to .13 are significant at $p < .05$.

Table 18*Study 2c Workplace Status Factor Loadings*

Instructions: In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following do you have in the view/eyes of others?

Social...

Item	Standardized factor loading
1) status	0.92
2) standing	0.94
3) stature	0.97
4) relevance	0.88
5) repute	0.86

Table 19*Study 2c Comparisons of Two and One Factor Models*

Measurement models	Two-factor					One-factor					Difference
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Change in χ^2
Status and respect	114.26	53	0.98	0.07	0.04	1078.94	54	0.60	0.28	0.27	964.68**
Status and generalized power	273.57	64	0.91	0.12	0.09	752.45	65	0.69	0.21	0.19	478.88**
Status and referent power	109.61	26	0.96	0.11	0.05	673.59	27	0.70	0.31	0.22	563.98**
Status and expert power	108.32	26	0.96	0.11	0.04	554.03	27	0.74	0.28	0.20	445.71**
Status and reputation	736.05	118	0.84	0.15	0.08	2122.30	119	0.50	0.26	0.20	1386.25**

Note. ** $p < .01$. All change in χ^2 tests have 1 degree of freedom.

Table 20
Study 3 Descriptive Statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Status needed	<i>.94</i>									
2. Status received	.56	<i>.96</i>								
3. Positive affect	.21	.32	<i>.93</i>							
4. Job satisfaction	.17	.23	.75	<i>.95</i>						
5. Responsibility	.24	.37	.40	.25	<i>.91</i>					
6. Expectations	.12	.16	.27	.12	.54	<i>.91</i>				
7. Negative affect	-.02	-.18	-.53	-.54	-.13	-.04	<i>.90</i>			
8. Anxiety	-.03	-.15	-.46	-.50	-.04	.10	.82	<i>.91</i>		
9. Withdrawal	-.15	-.19	-.71	-.66	-.30	-.20	.52	.44	<i>.94</i>	
10. Turnover intentions	-.06	-.12	-.54	-.66	-.17	-.11	.41	.36	.59	<i>.95</i>
Mean	3.43	3.65	5.01	5.01	5.20	5.69	2.25	3.17	3.03	3.09
SD	1.21	1.27	1.12	1.51	1.35	1.02	1.02	1.69	1.54	1.83

Note. Reliability coefficients are listed in italics on the diagonal. Correlations with absolute values greater than .07 are significant $p < .05$.

Table 21*Study 3 Distinctiveness of Related Variables*

Measurement models	Two Factor					One Factor					Difference
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Δ in χ^2
SN & SR correlated residuals ¹	150.15	29	0.98	0.08	0.03	2472.31	30	0.66	0.37	0.15	2322.16**
SN & SR	485.92	34	0.94	0.15	0.04	2562.84	35	0.65	0.35	0.18	2076.92**
Anxiety & NA	1020.30	64	0.83	0.16	0.07	1173.77	65	0.80	0.17	0.08	153.47**
Responsibility & expectations	54.20	8	0.98	0.10	0.03	837.95	9	0.69	0.40	0.14	783.75**

Note. SN = Status needed; SR = Status received. ¹Residuals of the like items were correlated (Cole et al., 2007). ** $p < .01$. All change in χ^2 tests have 1 degree of freedom.

Table 22.
Study 3 Measurement Models with Correlated Residuals

SN, SR, &...	Three Factor					One Factor					Difference
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Δ in χ^2
Positive affect	972.67	162	0.93	0.09	0.05	6664.64	165	0.44	0.26	0.24	5691.97**
Job satisfaction	178.84	57	0.99	0.08	0.03	4208.94	60	0.53	0.33	0.20	4030.10**
Responsibility	189.48	57	0.98	0.06	0.03	3538.59	60	0.59	0.31	0.17	3349.11**
Expectations	204.92	57	0.98	0.07	0.03	3766.47	60	0.56	0.32	0.18	3561.55**
Negative affect	1018.04	162	0.92	0.10	0.05	6077.31	165	0.45	0.25	0.24	5059.27**
Anxiety	185.24	57	0.99	0.06	0.02	3710.55	60	0.56	0.32	0.18	3525.31**
Withdrawal	781.94	111	0.94	0.10	0.04	6205.15	114	0.44	0.30	0.25	5423.21**
Turnover intentions	363.63	82	0.97	0.08	0.03	5824.88	85	0.45	0.34	0.24	5461.25**

Note. SN = Status needed; SR = Status received. ** $p < .01$. Like SN and SR items were correlated (e.g. SN item 1 and SR item 1). All change in χ^2 tests have 2 degrees of freedom.

Table 23
Study 3 Measurement Models Without Correlated Residuals

SN, SR, &...	Three Factor					One Factor					Difference
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Δ in χ^2
Positive affect	1308.34	167	.90	.11	.10	6741.21	170	.44	.26	.24	5432.87**
Job satisfaction	514.74	62	.95	.11	.03	4208.94	65	.53	.33	.20	3694.20**
Responsibility	525.01	62	.95	.11	.03	3622.45	65	.58	.30	.18	3097.44**
Expectations	540.50	62	.94	.11	.03	3856.12	65	.55	.31	.19	3315.62**
Negative affect	1354.09	167	.89	.11	.05	6148.99	170	.44	.24	.24	4794.90**
Anxiety	520.84	62	.95	.11	.03	3797.05	65	.55	.31	.19	3276.21**
Withdrawal	1117.6	116	.91	.12	.04	6297.30	119	.43	.30	.25	5179.70**
Turnover intentions	701.22	87	.94	.11	.03	5912.56	90	.44	.33	.25	5211.34**

Note. SN = Status needed; SR = Status received. ** $p < .01$. All change in χ^2 tests have 2 degrees of freedom.

Table 24*Study 3 Regressing Dependent Variables on SN and SR*

DV	Estimated Regression Parameters						
	b ₀	b ₁ SR	b ₂ SN	b ₃ SR ²	b ₄ SR*SN	b ₅ SN ²	R ²
Positive affect	5.19 (.06)**	.26 (.05)**	.10 (.05)	-.12 (.03)**	.10 (.04)*	.04 (.03)	.14**
Job satisfaction	5.27 (.08)**	.27 (.06)**	.11 (.07)	-.19 (.04)**	.21 (.06)**	.00 (.04)	.10**
Responsibility	5.35 (.07)**	.40 (.06)**	.04 (.06)	.00 (.03)	.05 (.05)	-.02 (.03)	.14**
Expectations	5.61 (.06)**	.11 (.04)*	.11 (.05)*	.06 (.03)*	-.03 (.04)	.06 (.03)*	.05**
Negative affect	2.18 (.06)**	-.24 (.04)**	.10 (.05)*	.08 (.03)**	-.13 (.04)**	.02 (.03)	.07**
Anxiety	3.05 (.10)**	-.31 (.07)**	.11 (.08)	.12 (.05)**	-.17 (.06)*	.02 (.05)	.04**
Withdrawal	2.87 (.09)**	-.21 (.07)**	-.14 (.08)	.14 (.04)**	-.15 (.06)**	-.04 (.04)	.07**
Turnover intentions	3.00 (.11)**	-.17 (.08)*	-.05 (.09)	.11 (.05)*	-.09 (.07)	-.05 (.05)	.03**

Note. Values are unstandardized coefficients. SR = status received; SN = status needed. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 25
Study 3 Tests of Response Surfaces

DV	Misfit line		Fit line	
	Slope (b ₁ -b ₂)	Curvature (b ₃ -b ₄ +b ₅)	Slope (b ₁ +b ₂)	Curvature (b ₃ +b ₄ +b ₅)
Positive affect	.16 (.09)	-.19 (.08)*	.35 (.05)**	.01 (.03)
Job satisfaction	.16 (.12)	-.40 (.11)**	.38 (.06)**	.02 (.04)
Responsibility	.36 (.11)**	-.07 (.09)	.45 (.06)**	.04 (.03)
Expectations	.01 (.08)	.15 (.08)*	.22 (.04)**	.09 (.03)**
Negative affect	-.34 (.08)**	.23 (.07)**	-.14 (.04)**	-.03 (.03)
Anxiety	-.41 (.14)**	.31 (.12)*	-.20 (.07)**	-.02 (.04)
Withdrawal	-.06 (.13)	.25 (.11)*	-.35 (.07)**	-.05 (.04)
Turnover intentions	-.13 (.15)	.15 (.14)	-.22 (.08)**	-.03 (.05)

Note. Values are unstandardized coefficients. * p < .05; ** p < .01.

Table 26
Study 3 Principal Axes

DV	1st Principal Axis			Second Principal Axis		
	Intercept	Slope	Shift	Intercept	Slope	Shift
Positive affect	-2.83*	3.42*	.64*			
Job satisfaction	-1.07*	2.29*	.32*			
Responsibility	-3.19	0.71	1.87*			
Expectations				0.14	1.14	-.06
Negative affect				-2.02*	1.60*	.78*
Anxiety				-1.90*	1.71*	.70*
Withdrawal				-1.24*	2.68*	.34*
Turnover intentions				-2.59	3.78	.54

Note. * $p < .05$. Significance was determined via 95% confidence intervals determined from 5,000 bootstrapped samples. The intercepts and shifts for both principal axes were significant if the confidence interval did not include zero. The slope of the first principal axis was significant if the confidence excluded one. The slope of the second principal axis was significant if the confidence interval excluded negative one (Edwards, 2002).

APPENDIX B: Figures

Figure 1

Study 3 Status Needed and Received Scatter Plot

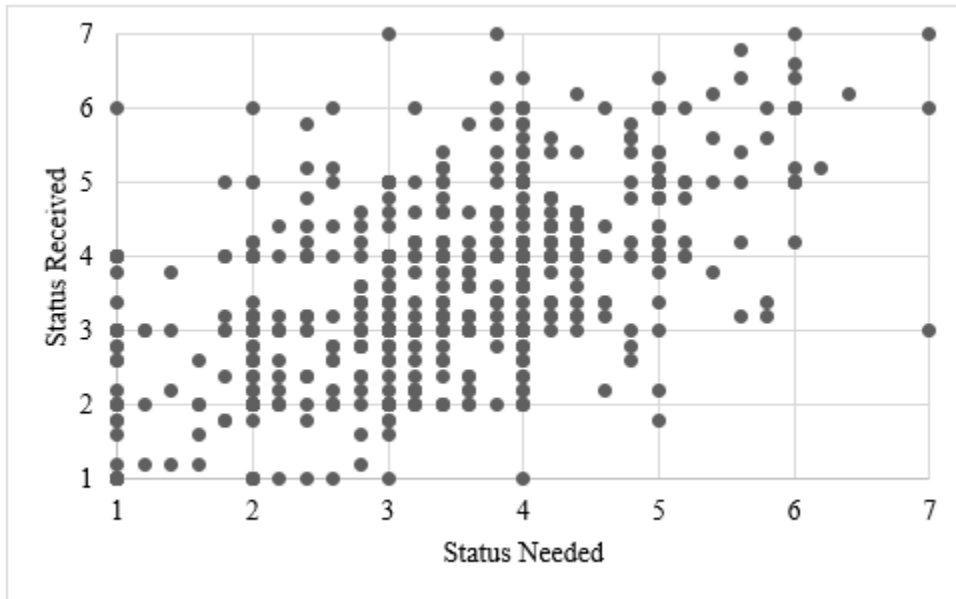
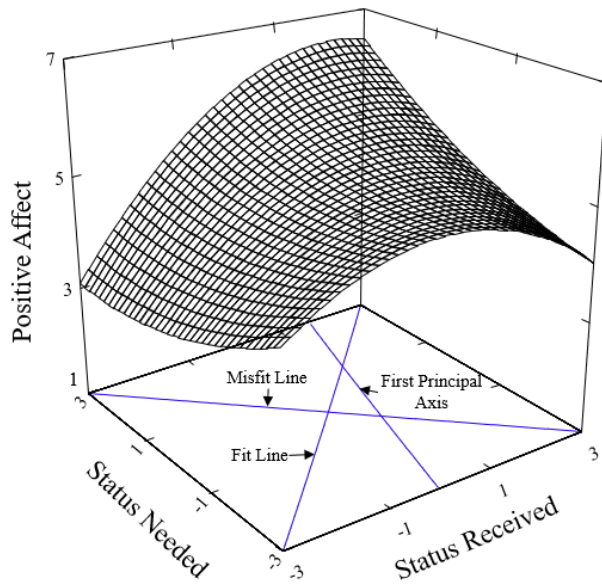


Figure 2

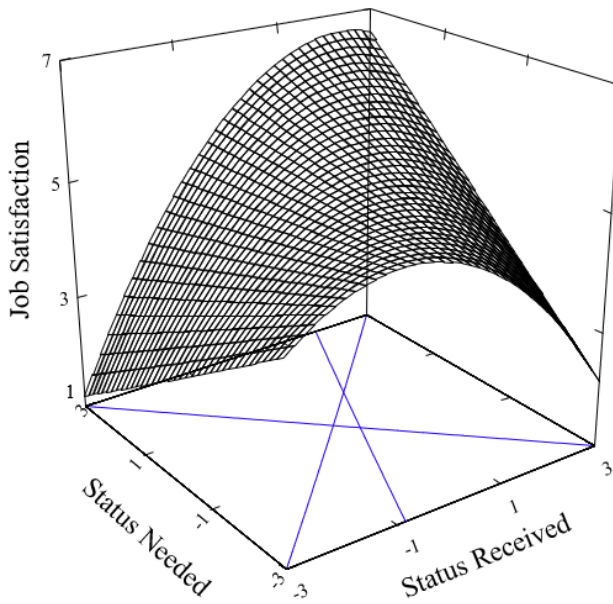
Study 3 Surface Plots

Note. For concave surfaces the first principal axis is plotted. For convex surface the second principal axis is shown.

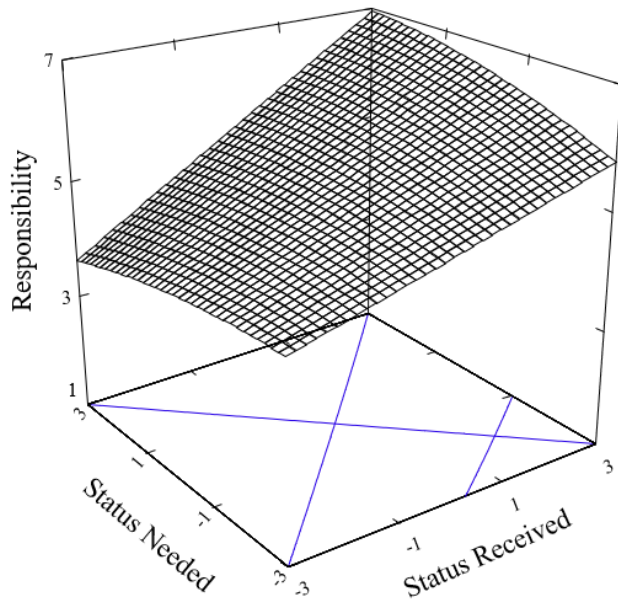
a) Positive Affect



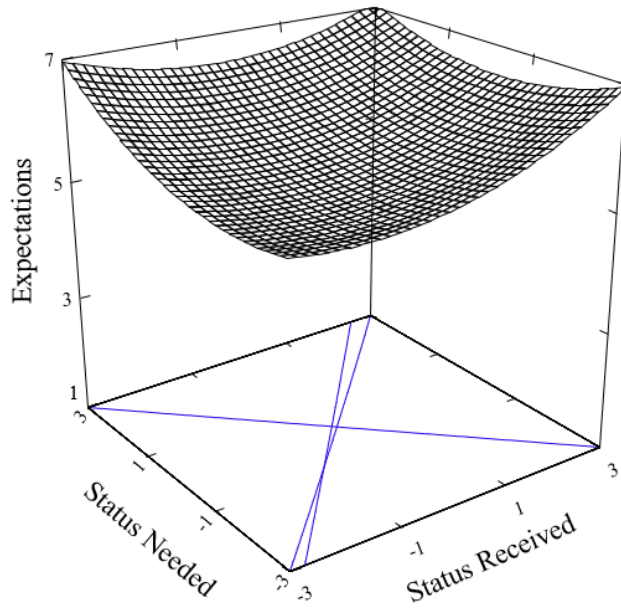
b) Job Satisfaction



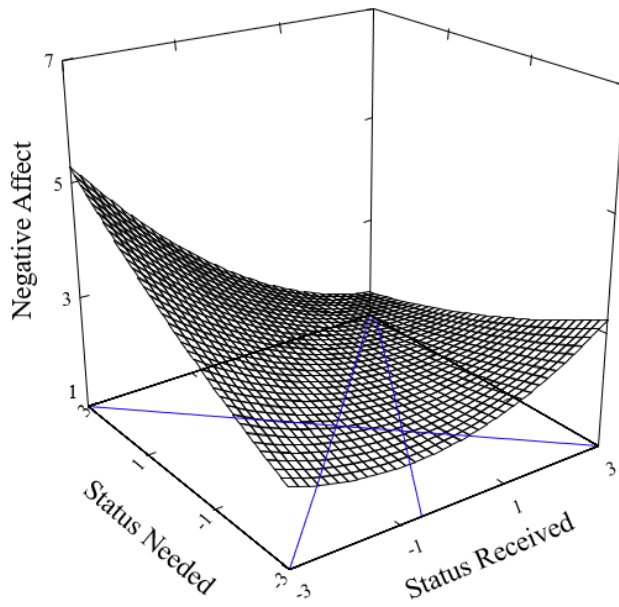
c) Responsibility



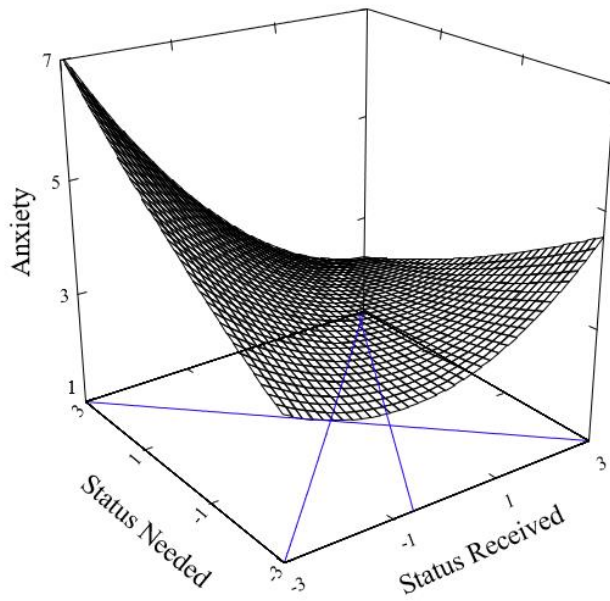
d) Expectations



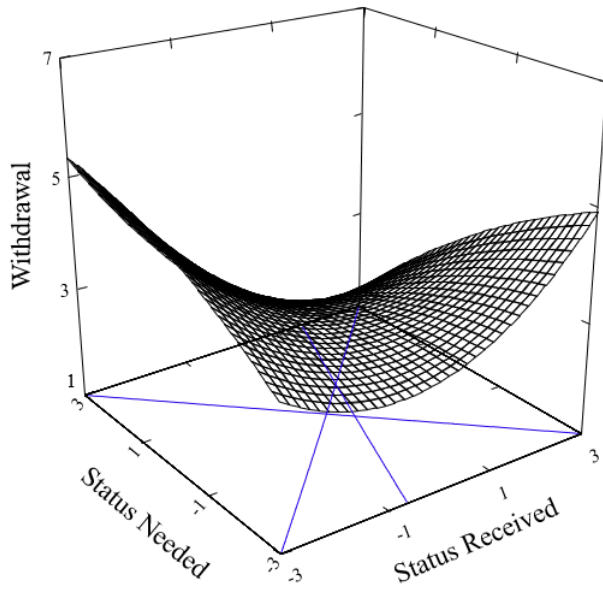
e) Negative Affect



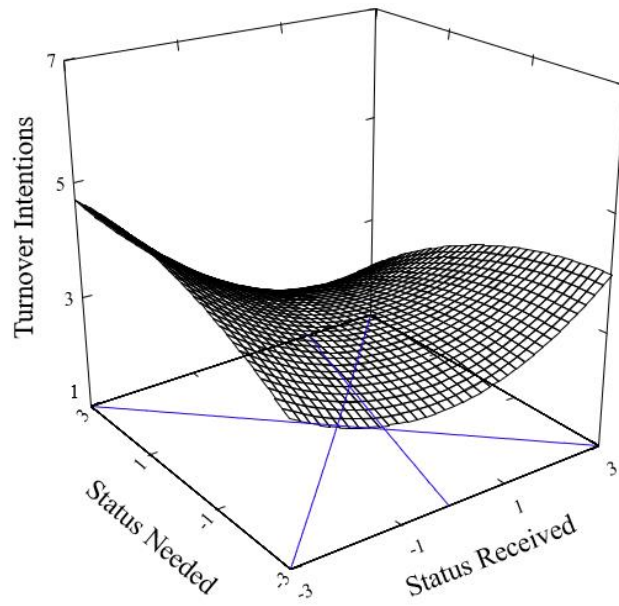
f) Anxiety



g) Withdrawal



h) Turnover Intentions



APPENDIX C: Study 2c Measures

Workplace Status

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace.

In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following do you have in the view/eyes of others?

Social...

- 1) Status
- 2) Standing
- 3) Stature
- 4) Relevance
- 5) Repute

Job Competence

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items
Others in my workplace...

- 1) believe I am capable of performing my job.
- 2) are confident in my skills.
- 3) believe I am successful at the things I try to do.
- 4) believe I have knowledge about the work that needs done.
- 5) believe I have specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
- 6) believe I am well qualified.

Liking

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

At work...

- 1) my coworkers like me.
- 2) I have meaningful relationships with my coworkers.
- 3) I feel that my co-workers understand me.
- 4) my co-workers enjoy my company.
- 5) my co-workers are fond of me.

Job Satisfaction

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items

- 1) In general, I am satisfied with my job.
- 2) All in all, the job I have is great.
- 3) My job is very enjoyable.

Turnover Intentions

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items

- 1) I will probably look for a new job in the near future.
- 2) At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization.
- 3) I intend to quit my job.
- 4) It is likely that I will actively look for a different organization to work for in the next year.
- 5) I am thinking about quitting my job at the present time.

Job Security

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

- 1) I will be able to keep my present job as long as I wish
- 2) My current organization will not cut back on the number of hours I work each week
- 3) If my current organization were facing economic problems, my job would be the first to go ®
- 4) I am confident that I will be able to work for my organization as long as I wish
- 5) My job will be there as long as I want it
- 6) If my job were eliminated, I would be offered another job in my current organization
- 7) Regardless of economic conditions, I will have a job at my current organization
- 8) I am secure in my job.
- 9) My current organization would transfer me to another job if I were laid off from my present job.
- 10) My job is not a secure one ®

Respect

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

At work....

- 1) my colleagues respect my values.
- 2) I have a good reputation among my colleagues.
- 3) my colleagues react well to me and to what I say and do.
- 4) I make a good impression on my colleagues.
- 5) most of my colleagues like me.
- 6) most of my colleagues are impressed by what I have accomplished at work.

7) most of my colleagues respect me.

Generalized Power

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

In my relationships with others...

- 1) I can get people to listen to what I say
- 2) My wishes do not carry much weight ®
- 3) I can get others to do what I want
- 4) Even if I voice them, my views have little sway
- 5) I think I have a great deal of power
- 6) My ideas and opinions are often ignored ®
- 7) Even when I try I am not able to get my way ®
- 8) If I want to, I get to make the decisions

Referent Power

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

In my workplace I feel...

- 1) valued.
- 2) like my coworkers approve of me.
- 3) personally accepted.
- 4) important.

Expert Power

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

In my workplace I feel...

- 1) I give good technical suggestions.
- 2) I share with others considerable experience and/or training.
- 3) I provide sound job-related advice.
- 4) I provide others with needed technical knowledge.

Reputation

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items

- 1) I am regarded highly by others.

- 2) I have a good reputation.
- 3) I have the respect of my colleagues and associates.
- 4) I am trusted by my colleagues.
- 5) My colleagues see me as a person of high integrity.
- 6) I am regarded by others as someone who gets things done.
- 7) I have a reputation for producing results.
- 8) People expect me to consistently demonstrate the highest performance.
- 9) People know I will produce only high quality results.
- 10) People count on me to consistently produce the highest quality performance.
- 11) I have the reputation for producing the highest quality performance.
- 12) If people want things done right, they ask me to do it.

APPENDIX D: Study 3 Measures

Time 1

Needed Workplace Status

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace.

In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following **is right for you** to be viewed with by others at work?

Social...

- 1) status
- 2) standing
- 3) stature
- 4) relevance
- 5) repute

Received Workplace Status

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace.

In your workplace/organization overall, how much of each of the following do you **actually have** in the view of others at work?

Social...

- 1) status
- 2) standing
- 3) stature
- 4) relevance
- 5) repute

Time 2

Responsibility

- 1) I have a great deal of responsibility in my organization.
- 2) I am responsible for a lot at work.
- 3) Others believe I have a lot of responsibility.

Expectations

- 1) Others have high expectations of me.
- 2) A lot is expected of me at work.
- 3) I feel that much is expected of me.

Positive Affect

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace. Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items about how you generally feel at work.

- 1) Interested
- 2) Excited
- 3) Strong
- 4) Enthusiastic
- 5) Proud
- 6) Alert
- 7) Inspired
- 8) Determined
- 9) Attentive
- 10) Active

Negative Affect

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace. Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items about how you generally feel at work.

- 1) Distressed
- 2) Upset
- 3) Guilty
- 4) Scared
- 5) Hostile
- 6) Irritable
- 7) Ashamed
- 8) Nervous
- 9) Jittery
- 10) Afraid

Anxiety

Please think about the things you do in your workplace, how people view you at work, and your interactions with others in your workplace. Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items about how you generally feel at work.

- 1) Anxious
- 2) Tense
- 3) Worried

Job Satisfaction

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

- 1) In general, I am satisfied with my job
- 2) All in all, the job I have is great
- 3) My job is very enjoyable

Withdrawal

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

- 1) I put less effort into the job than I should
- 2) I have lost motivation for my job.
- 3) I feel like putting in less effort to my job.
- 4) I don't care about my job.
- 5) I mentally distance myself from my work.
- 6) I detach my mind from my work.
- 7) My mind is not on my work these days.

Turnover Intentions

Please respond with the extent you disagree to agree with the following items.

- 1) I will probably look for a new job in the near future.
- 2) At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization.
- 3) I intend to quit my job.
- 4) It is likely that I will actively look for a different organization to work for in the next year.
- 5) I am thinking about quitting my job at the present time.

VITA

Truit Wert Gray

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: MORE IS NOT ALWAYS BEST: REBUILDING THE FOUNDATION OF
WORKPLACE STATUS

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