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**THE (DYS-)FUNCTIONALITY OF WITHIN-TEAM SOCIAL HIERARCHY: THE
ROLE OF POWER AND STATUS AS HIERARCHICAL BASES**

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**The (Dys-)functionality of Within-Team Social Hierarchy: The Role of Power and
Status as Hierarchical Bases**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Current literature regarding the impact of social hierarchy on team functioning remains far from conclusive, with some studies finding a beneficial effect of social hierarchy whereas other studies discovering a prejudicial effect. Additionally, existing attempts to reconcile these mixed findings are still theoretically incomplete, with mere focus on external environments outside teams or on top-ranking individuals within the teams (i.e., leaders), while substantially overlooking the nature of social hierarchy as well as peculiar hierarchical characteristics. Following the multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy, and building on the research differentiating power and status as two bases of social hierarchy and their distinct social consequences, in this study, I propose that the conflicting findings may be attributed to the valued social dimensions based on which social hierarchy is established.

Particularly, *power hierarchy* benefits team performance because it promotes team structure clarity, which further facilitates information and workload sharing, and hinders information withholding, team workload sharing, and status conflicts. In comparison, *status hierarchy* diminishes team performance because it blurs team structure clarity, which increases subsequent information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts, but reduces information and workload sharing. In addition, time pressure strengthens the above effects because team members rely more both power and status hierarchies to guide their interactional behaviors. At dyadic level, I explore the opposite impacts of power and status on instruction giving. This suggests a potential bottom-up route through which both social hierarchies shape team structure clarity.

To test these hypotheses, I conducted a large-scale survey-based empirical data collection with round-robin design across two time points. The final sample consists of 1428 dyads from 478 participants and 122 teams. The results provided general support for my hypotheses. In particular, team structure clarity is a mechanism underlying the opposite impacts of power and status hierarchies on information sharing, information withholding, workload sharing, team social loafing, and status conflicts. Additionally, information sharing and workload sharing are two second-stage mediators that link power and status hierarchies, team structure clarity and team performance. Furthermore, time pressure moderates the impact of power hierarchy on team structure clarity. It also moderates the two serial mediations from power hierarchy to team performance through information and workload sharing separately. Finally, at dyadic level, power and status have distinct impacts on instruction giving, offering evidence for an implicit bottom-up effect leading to the emergence of team structure clarity at team level. Overall, my dissertation contributes to the hierarchy functionality debate by highlighting the critical role of hierarchical basis and articulating the underlying mechanisms.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH OVERVIEW

Research Background

Amidst political division, global COVID-19 pandemic, and social inequality, the business world probably has never been more competitive, uncertain, and gloomy than today. In order to cope with this circumstance, organizations around the globe hasten to adopt the structure of workplace teams when carrying out increasingly complex tasks (Mathieu et al., 2019; Mathieu et al., 2017). Not surprisingly, this practical trend has motivated management scholars to theoretically explore various factors that facilitate team effectiveness (Mathieu et al., 2019; Mathieu et al., 2017). Among these ingredients, *social hierarchy*, defined as “an implicit or explicit rank order of individuals or groups with respect to a valued social dimension” (Magee & Galinsky, 2008, p. 354), receives notable attention. As Anderson and Brown (2010, p. 56) stated, “Darwin’s belief that hierarchies are necessary for groups to succeed pervades the social sciences”.

This spotlight on social hierarchy is hardly unexpected. After all, the construct of social hierarchy dates back to Darwin’s (1859) observations about tribes in South America. It is also arguably the most fundamental and ubiquitous characteristic of any human social community (Bernstein, 1981; Davis & Moore, 1945; Eibl-Eibesfeldt, 1989; Hogan, 1983; Leavitt, 2005; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Mazur, 1973; Parsons, 1940; Schjelderup-Ebbe, 1935; Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello, & Wieser, 1974; van Vugt et al., 2008). The long history and prevalence of social hierarchy seem eminently self-explanatory for its functionality (Bavelas, 1950; Davis & Moore, 1945; Frank, 1985; Thibault & Kelley, 1959; Weber, 1947).

Nevertheless, what is unexpected is the mixed and conflicting empirical findings accumulated over the past two decades regarding the effect of within-team social hierarchy on team performance in a workplace context. On the one hand, scholars have found a beneficial effect of social hierarchy on team performance (He & Huang, 2011; Ronay et al., 2012) because of higher efficiency and quality of collective decision making (Anderson & Brown, 2010), a motivational rewarding mechanism (Anderson & Brown, 2010), as well as intra-group coordination. On the other hand, a detrimental effect of social hierarchy has also been observed (Bunderson & Reagans, 2011; Greer et al., 2018). This negative effect is often attributed to increased process conflicts and reduced team viability (Anderson & Brown, 2010).

Just as in any other subfield in management where conflicting opinions are attempted to be reconciled, the mixed findings regarding social hierarchy-team performance relationship have facilitated recent rounds of exploration on the boundary conditions for the effects of social hierarchy. Briefly, scholars conclude that social hierarchy benefits team performance when tasks are “simple, predictable and routine” rather than “complex, difficult, and ambiguous” (Anderson & Brown, 2010, p. 68), when leaders possess appropriate characteristics (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Tarakci et al., 2016), and when team average power is low (Greer & van Kleef, 2010).

Despite these attempts, I regard the current explanations about the boundary conditions of social hierarchy-team performance relationship as theoretically incomplete. In particular, these accounts seem to exclusively focus on external environments of teams or top-ranking individuals within the team (i.e., leaders). Importantly, the nature of social

hierarchy and specific hierarchical characteristics such as multiplicity were not paid adequate attention. Consistent with this observation, I found that several papers investigated general influence hierarchy (e.g., Bunderson et al., 2016), which has been shown to be a team representative characteristic derived from various hierarchies of distinct bases (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Other studies may also confound different bases in their operationalization (e.g., Christie et al. 2010), which eventually bewilder the unique impact of each hierarchy. Thus, it is crucial to acknowledge the role of hierarchical nature.

This oversight of hierarchical nature is unfortunate because several theoretical pieces on social hierarchy have criticized the assumption that social hierarchy within a team is singular (Lenski, 1954; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Stryker & Macke, 1978). Rather, these scholars propose a multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy (Hays & Bendersky, 2015; Lenski, 1954; Magee & Galinsky, 2008) and argue that there might be multiple social hierarchies established upon different bases within one single team. Importantly, it is these different bases that may elicit fundamentally divergent team member perceptions and interpretations, which lead to ultimately distinct intra- and inter-personal behaviors among team members as well as different team-level consequences.

Within this multiplicity perspective, power and status deserve peculiar attention because both of them have been regarded as two major and representative bases of within-team social hierarchy. *Power* refers to the asymmetric control over valued resources in social relations (Blau, 1964, 1977; Dépret & Fiske, 1993; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). *Status* is defined as the extent to which a team member is respected or admired by others within the group (Magee &

Galinsky, 2008; Ridgeway & Walker, 1995). Both power and status have been extensively studied as core constructs in management research for a long time. Notably, within multiplicity framework of social hierarchy, power and status have been compared and contrasted across various contexts (Blader & Chen, 2012; Blader et al., 2016; Cho & Fast, 2018; Fragale et al., 2011; Hays, 2013). Nowadays, scholars start to reach consensus regarding their distinctive consequences (Blader & Chen, 2012; Blader et al., 2016; Fragale et al., 2011), as well as their commonality as antecedents of social influence together with their role as hierarchical bases (Fragale et al., 2011).

Briefly, researchers tend to agree that both power and status at individual or dyadic level elicit social influence (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), making counterparts defer to focal team members on certain decisions. Relatedly, both power and status serve as important bases when establishing social hierarchies. However, scholars also reach consensus on the utterly different consequences of power and status. Typically, power has been found to elicit negative interpersonal behaviors such as less justice towards others (Blader & Chen, 2012) and less perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016). It is also negatively related to others' perceptions of warmth (Fragale et al., 2011). On the contrary, status facilitates positive interpersonal behaviors such as more justice towards others (Blader & Chen, 2012) and more perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016). Status has also been found to positively related to warmth perception (Fragale et al., 2011).

Extending this line of research, Hays and Bendersky (2015) contrasted power versus status hierarchies at team level, with a focus on their impacts on lower-ranking team members' competitive behaviors. They found that compared with power hierarchy, status

hierarchy incites more competitive behaviors among low-ranking members. This is because status hierarchy is deemed more mutable than power hierarchy. Thus, low-ranking individuals are more motivated to climb up the hierarchical ladder by engaging in competitive behaviors. However, it should be noted that this paper merely concentrates on low-ranking individuals' motivation to move up as a consequence. This is very different from team performance as a consequence because the former represents an individual-level construct of a limited group of members, whereas the latter represents a team-level construct reflecting a collective effort.

Up until now, the above discussions about multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy and related investigations of power and status at both individual/dyadic and team levels seem to depict an appealing possibility: that it is the distinction of power and status as hierarchical bases, because of their opposing interactional consequences, that account for past mixed findings of social hierarchy-team performance relationship. In another word, power and status hierarchies may exert distinct impacts on team functioning.

Therefore, following this logic, in this dissertation, I aim to propose that the hierarchical bases of power and status may account for the previous mixed findings concerning social hierarchy-team performance relationship.

Research Needs and Objectives

Particularly, I argue that because power hierarchy is relatively objective, unanimous, and effective in guiding interactions among team members, it increases team structure clarity. This positive effect is further transmitted to more information and workload sharing, as well as less information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. Eventually, team

performance benefits from power hierarchy. Comparatively, because status hierarchy is subjective, equivocal, and futile in guiding interactions, it decreases team structure clarity. Subsequently, this effect transforms into less information and workload sharing, as well as more information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. Team performance is diminished as a result.

Moreover, time pressure moderates the effects of power and status hierarchies on team structure clarity. This is because team members under high time pressure are required to utilize any social system at hand that helps to guide their interpersonal behavioral patterns in order to complete work tasks in the shortest time possible. Thus, they tend to rely more on power and status hierarchies for these guidance and paradigm. Consequently, the effects of power and status hierarchies on team structure clarity are stronger when time pressure is high. Additionally, time pressure also strengthens the serial mediating effects of power and status hierarchies on team performance through the above team processes.

I also unpack the dynamic mechanism of the above indirect effects within power- and status-asymmetric dyads. By doing so, I hope to build theoretical foundations for an implicit bottom-up effect from dyadic level to team level team structure clarity. In particular, I propose that dyadic level power and status may have distinct impacts on instruction giving, such that instructions flow from powerful members to powerless members but instructions are restricted in status-asymmetric dyads. My theoretical model is shown in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

By explaining how power and status hierarchies impact team effectiveness as well as identifying the boundary condition and dyadic level mechanism, this thesis makes three major contributions. First, it demonstrates a novel perspective in reconciling the mixed findings concerning the social hierarchy-team functioning relationship. Divergent from previous reconciling attempts which primarily investigate the role of external environments or top-ranking individuals within teams (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Greer & van Kleef, 2010; Tarakci et al., 2016) and merely examines general influence hierarchy or confounds different hierarchies based on distinct bases (Bunderson et al., 2016; Christie et al., 2010), this thesis suggests the significance of the nature of social hierarchy. Particularly, the base of social hierarchy (i.e., power versus status) shape its functionality, such that power hierarchy benefits team effectiveness due to its role in guiding interactional behaviors, whereas status hierarchy diminishes team effectiveness due to its inefficacy in advising interactional behaviors. Consequently, this thesis urges future research to expound the bases of social hierarchy in the paper instead of confounding various bases (such as power and status) or simply using the overarching term of social hierarchy.

Second, by demonstrating the opposite effects of power and status hierarchies on team functioning, this thesis further establishes the legitimacy of power-status distinction and extends it to team level of analysis. Past literature has already demonstrated the distinctive antecedents and consequences of power and status (e.g., Blader & Chen, 2012; Blader et al.,

2016; Cho & Fast, 2018; Fragale et al., 2011; Hays, 2013). However, these discussions almost exclusively focus on individual or dyadic level. The opposite effects found in this thesis of power and status hierarchies extend this line of literature and demonstrate the significance of differentiating power from status at team level of analysis.

Third, my thesis displays the negative side of status and the positive side of power. Current accumulating evidence seems to demonstrate a consistent beneficial impact of status and a detrimental impact of power, especially at individual or dyadic level of analysis. For example, the line of literature contrasting power and status concludes that status pertains to more justice (Blader & Chen, 2012), more perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016), and less conflicts (Cho & Fast, 2018), whereas power is associated with less justice (Blader & Chen, 2012), less perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016), and more conflicts (Cho & Fast, 2018). Contrary to this research, my findings demonstrate the desirable consequences (i.e., high team structure clarity) of power hierarchy and abominable consequences (i.e., low team structure clarity) of status hierarchy. As such, this study provides a more comprehensive depiction of the consequences of power and status.

Research Overview

In my dissertation, I conducted a large-scale empirical data collection involving an initial sample of 1812 directional dyads from 613 participants in 158 workplace teams. The final sample size was 1428 dyads involving 478 participants and 122 teams from various functions and departments in two companies in distinctive industries. I hope the variety of team background would enlarge the generalizability of my conclusions.

I adopted a round-robin design within this time-lagged survey-based data collection effort. By round-robin design, in which every participant rated every other teammate, I aim to capture both power and status hierarchies within teams. Additionally, it provides data on dyadic level power and status dynamics, which helps test my hypotheses at dyadic level regarding the impact of power and status on instruction giving. Moreover, I asked participants to self-report team emergent states mechanism of team structure clarity, team processes mechanisms and external environment. These data help to test the predictions regarding team level relationships.

In summary, I wish to empirically test my hypotheses at both team and dyadic levels pertaining to the impact of power and social hierarchies on team effectiveness, by the use of this carefully-designed data collection effort.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Hierarchy and Team Functioning

As mentioned in the Introduction, the current literature concerning the impact of social hierarchy on team performance remains substantially inconclusive. On a positive side, scholars have found a beneficial effect of social hierarchy on team performance (He & Huang, 2011; Ronay et al., 2012). This is typically attributed to higher efficiency and quality of collective decision making (Anderson & Brown, 2010), a motivational rewarding mechanism in which team members contribute to team functioning in order to climb up the ladder (Anderson & Brown, 2010), as well as intra-group coordination and social order. Nevertheless, on a negative side, a detrimental effect of social hierarchy has also been observed in previous studies (Bunderson & Reagans, 2011; Greer et al., 2018). This poisonous effect has been attributed to increased process conflicts among team members and reduced team viability (Anderson & Brown, 2010).

Not surprisingly, various academic attempts have been made to reconcile these conflicting findings. Particularly, scholars identified several boundary conditions for the social hierarchy-team performance relationship. Briefly, scholars conclude that social hierarchy benefits team performance when tasks are “simple, predictable and routine” rather than “complex, difficult, and ambiguous” (Anderson & Brown, 2010, p. 68), when leaders possess appropriate characteristics (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Tarakci et al., 2016), and when team average power is low (Greer & van Kleef, 2010).

Unfortunately, these boundary conditions are theoretically limited because they exclusively concentrate around external environments outside teams and top-ranking

individuals within teams. This overlook of the nature of social hierarchy may omit a significant account for the mixed findings in the current literature. Consistent with this observation, my own review of this literature demonstrates that the majority of studies solely focus on influence hierarchy or confound power, status, and influence in the conceptualization and operationalization of social hierarchy. Therefore, the introduction of multiplicity perspective is necessary for broadening the boundary conditions of social hierarchy impacts.

Multiplicity Perspective of Social Hierarchy

Despite the long history of studying social hierarchy in organizational research, scholars only started to acknowledge the role of social hierarchy basis in the past decades. In particular, Magee and Galinsky (2008) explicitly include the phrase “valued social dimension” as part of the definition of social hierarchy and use it to describe the basis on which social hierarchy is established. As they stated, “there must be some specification and understanding of the dimension along which people are rank ordered, that dimension must have subjective value to the individuals or groups, with higher rank possessing more of the valued dimension than lower rank” (Magee & Galinsky, 2008, p. 354).

This inclusion of social hierarchy basis challenges a long-standing implicit assumption in social hierarchy literature – that “only one main hierarchy is in play at any one time” (Magee & Galinsky, 2008, p. 383) – and facilitates the emergence of multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy. Particularly, increasing discussion concentrates on the legitimacy of this single-base assumption and concludes that it is rare for teams to have isolate hierarchy. Rather, human communities such as workplace groups often have multiple

valued social dimensions based on which group members can be ranked ordered. This theoretical proposition was later empirically confirmed by Aime et al. (2014), who demonstrated that within-team hierarchical structure may be based on different team member capabilities. And external environmental demands determine the salience of each of these capabilities as valued social dimensions.

Echoing this theoretical development are explorations of various phenomenon nested within multiple hierarchies. For example, status consistency (Lenski, 1954; Stryker & Macke, 1978) was proposed to describe the situation in which one individual has high hierarchical ranking on one valued social dimension, but low such ranking on another dimension. Bacharach et al. (1993) extended this concept to organizational setting and proposed that status inconsistency may cause occupational stress because of others' conflicting expectations for the status-inconsistent individual's behavior.

Another line of research under multiplicity framework concentrates on the situation in which individuals enjoy one hierarchical ranking within a group (i.e., local ranking), whereas possessing another hierarchical ranking (i.e., global ranking) in a broader community (such as organizations) in which their group is nested. For instance, Frank (1985) specified a job-seeking context and investigated how job hunters resolve a common trade-off: whether they choose to work for a high-status organization where their own hierarchical ranking is low, or they prefer a low-status organization where their own hierarchical ranking is relatively high. Phillips (2001) offered empirical support and argued that because local comparisons within an organization are psychologically potent than global comparisons within a larger

community, individuals may prefer the job opportunities in small firms rather than big companies.

Taken together, current accumulating research and evidence offered preliminary support and exploration for multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy. However, surprisingly limited research has been conducted to explore the impacts of social hierarchies on distinct bases on team effectiveness. In this thesis, I focus on this particular aspect of multiplicity perspective and aim to explore the consequences of social hierarchies based on distinct bases. Importantly, I propose that this difference in basis helps to explain the past mixed findings regarding the effect of social hierarchy on team performance. In a way, the past mixed findings were observed because of these studies' focus on the salient and observable influential dynamics among team members (i.e., influence hierarchy). By delving into the bases on which these influential dynamics emerge, I decompose influence hierarchy into different segments and argue that each segment would distinctively impact the organizing processes and thus overall performance of teams.

In particular, I focus on power and status as the focal bases. This is because both of them have been regarded as two major bases of social hierarchy (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Furthermore, past research has shed lights on their distinct impacts at individual or dyadic level. Therefore, in the following section, I will elaborate more on this choice and also clarify their definitions and separate them from other similar constructs in the literature.

Power and Status as Two Bases of Social Hierarchy

As briefly mentioned above, the social hierarchy literature has witnessed an intriguing development during the past decade, especially in the management field. This development

features numerous efforts to clarify (and fortunately increasing consensus on) the theoretical meanings of different dimensions of social hierarchy (Blader & Chen, 2014). Among these dimensions, power and status received the most academic attention (Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Mannix & Sauer, 2006; Thye, 2000).

Following this line of research, in this thesis, power is defined as the asymmetric control over valued resources in social relations (Blau, 1964, 1977; Dépret & Fiske, 1993; Keltner et al., 2003; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Accordingly, power hierarchy is featuring a rank ordering of team members according to the number of resources each of them has. Status refers to the extent to which a team member is respected or admired by others within the group (Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Ridgeway & Walker, 1995). Similarly, a status hierarchy is characterized by team members being rank ordered with respect to the amount of respect accorded by others.

Based on these definitions, in a workplace team context, power, which pertains more to outcome control (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Galinsky et al., 2003; Georgesen & Harris, 1998; Georgesen & Harris, 2000; Gruenfeld et al., 2008; Overbeck & Park, 2001), is relatively objective. Because the amount and value of resources each team member has are often salient and transparent within a team, these resources do not freely vary according to team members' beliefs and feelings. Thus, individual power as well as dyadic power asymmetry are objective and irrespective of team member judgments and evaluations.

In comparison, status is an indicator for the social worth of an individual in the eyes of observers (i.e., other team members). Additionally, it is the result of these team members' subjective evaluative process, which scholars also commonly refer to as the status conferral

process (Chen et al., 2012; Ridgeway & Glasgow, 2000). Therefore, status is substantially dependent upon the judgments and evaluations of other individuals. This social feature also implies that the basis for evaluation of status could vary tremendously across contexts and observers. Nevertheless, in a workplace context, because competence is a salient individual characteristic and it is relevant to group effectiveness and thus other team members' benefits, it is highly likely that individual competence is regarded as a major source of status (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009).

Despite not being the focus of this dissertation, here, I still would also like to contrast power and status with other constructs that are often confounded or treated as other dimensions of social hierarchy. Particularly, I would like to focus on influence, five bases of power, socioeconomic status, Cheng et al.'s (2010) dominance-prestige framework, Bai's (2017) three routes to influence framework, five forces of power (French & Raven, 1959), and status characteristic theory (Berger et al., 1972; Berger et al., 1980).

To start with, *influence* refers to the ability to shape and transform others' opinions and behaviors (Blader & Chen, 2014; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Following the literature differentiating power from status (Blader & Chen, 2014; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), I regard influence as a direct downstream consequence of power and status. That is, power- and status-holders are able to alter the perceptions and actions of those without power or status.

It should be noted that a large number of studies investigating social hierarchy at team level conceptualize and operationalize social hierarchy from an "influence" perspective. That is, they define social hierarchy as an implicit or explicit rank order of individuals according to the influence they have. This approach is consistent with my standpoint in this thesis because

I assume influence to be a consequence of power or status at individual level. Thus, these social hierarchies based on influence can be further decomposed into power hierarchy or social hierarchy, which is essentially the focus of this thesis. What this thesis aims to achieve is to rely on this decomposition to explain the mixed effects of social hierarchy on team performance.

Socioeconomic status (SES) stands for an individual's social background and its relative social position against others. It typically includes elements such as wealth, education, and occupation (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; Kraus & Keltner, 2009). SES is distinct from status because SES is a globally acknowledged characteristic describing an individual or a family's position in a society in general. Thus, SES is likely to remain stable irrespective of who the audience is. In comparison, status is often context-specific and is likely to vary when the audience changes.

SES is also distinct from power for two major reasons. First, although an individual's wealth, education, and occupation may serve as some kind of resources, these resources may not necessarily be required or needed for team goal accomplishment. Therefore, SES may not be classified as valued resources. Second, while SES often exists irrespective of social relations and power is defined in this thesis as nested within dyadic relationships, SES is different from power by nature.

Dominance and *prestige* are a couple construct and regarded as two major approaches of obtaining social rank and influence within a community (Cheng et al., 2013). In particular, dominance is defined as "the use of force and intimidation to induce fear" (Cheng et al., 2013, p. 103) and prestige refers to "the sharing of expertise or know-how to gain respect"

(Cheng et al., 2013, p. 103). In this thesis, the framework of dominance and prestige is treated as one of the alternative perspectives of explaining social hierarchy bases. From this regard, the framework might be an alternative to the power-status framework that is investigated in this thesis. It should be noted that prestige shares the core definitional element with status with regard to receiving respect from others. The subtle difference is that prestige emphasizes the process of obtaining respect by sharing expertise whereas status incorporates fewer limitations on how to gain such respect. Therefore, prestige is appreciably distinctive from status. Arguably, prestige might also be one type of status that is based on competence. In the following review, studies examining prestige are typically treated as status research.

I regard power and dominance distinct constructs. This is because dominance emphasizes the use of force against others' will and the initiation of fear. However, power only depicts the relatively objective possession of valued resources and does not imply its usage in any regards. Therefore, the power and dominance are regarded distinctive from each other. In the following review, studies examining dominance are typically not included but may be tackled if they emphasize the possession of resources. In summary, because of the differences, subtle or not, between the dominance-prestige framework and power-status framework, both are regarded as approaches of investigating social hierarchies and their bases. In this thesis, my focus originates from research about power and status and primarily concentrates on power-status framework. However, prestige research and a small number of dominance studies are reviewed when deemed appropriate.

Other than the dominance-prestige framework, Bai's (2017) framework offers extra routes to status attainment. On clarification here is that although Bai (2017) explicitly used

the terms “status” and “status attainment” in the model, his definition of status, which is “an individual’s standing or rank in a group in terms of prominence and influence” (Bai, 2017, p. 2), is more pertained to the construct of “influence” in this thesis and thus different from the construct of “status”.

In Bai’s (2017) framework, *dominance* is the default route to influence, by which individuals gain “submission and deference from others by inducing the belief that a (dominant) actor is capable of inflicting harm, thus eliciting fear, anxiety, or other discomfort” (Bai, 2017). Additionally, *competence* is regarded as a functional route to influence because by displaying outstanding task-relevant skills and expertise, individuals are able to demonstrate their instrumentality in accomplishing collective task goals. This further elicits others’ respect for skills and status conferral. Finally, *virtue*, defined as “characteristics of a person that are morally praiseworthy” (Haidt & Joseph, 2004, p. 61), is also helpful for establishing influence because it elicits others’ beliefs that the focal individual is willing to sacrifice for moral ideals and advance the good of others.

In this thesis, Bai’s three-route framework, just as Cheng’s (2013) dominance-prestige framework, is regarded as another perspective of investigating bases of social hierarchy. Similarly, dominance in Bai’s (2017) paper is regarded distinctive from power and thus not typically included in my following review. Notably, competence in this framework is similar to prestige in Cheng’s (2013) framework, both of which stands for the extent to which an individual is respected by others due to task-relevant skills and expertise. Virtue, as a unique element in Bai’s (2017) framework, is not covered by Cheng’s (2013) framework. However, because virtue contains the element of being respected by others, it is also regarded as one

part of status, as defined in this thesis. In another word, both competence and virtue paths are reviewed in the following discussions, as status-relevant research.

I follow Galinsky et al. (2015) in differentiating French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power from power and status defined in this thesis. Particularly, reward and coercive power are directly pertained to control over valued resources. Therefore, they fall under my definition of power. Legitimacy power is regarded as an independent construct from power and status. It may be a moderator in shaping the consequence of power. Expert and referent power are regarded as closely linked to status, because they represent others' admiration and respect at workplace.

Finally, I argue that status characteristics theory (Berger et al., 1972; Berger et al., 1980) is an alternative framework for explaining sources of influence. Originally developed by Berger and colleagues (Berger et al., 1972; Berger et al., 1980), status characteristics theory articulates how team members' characteristics organize their interactions within team. Particularly, team members may choose to defer to each other (similar to influence as defined in this thesis) based on targets' various personal characteristics (Balkwell, 1995; Berger et al., 1980), which are associated with individual task competence or ability. Two primary groups of such characteristics were theorized: specific status cues, defined as the characteristics that are believed to provide information about an individual's competence or expertise in relation to a specific task, and diffuse status cues, defined as the characteristics that are believed to provide information about an individual's general aptitude. Specific status cues might be regarded one type of power but it is narrower in definition. Both specific and diffuse status cues are distinct from status as defined in this thesis because neither of them pertains to

respect or admiration. It should be noted that although the term “status” is explicitly used in status characteristics theory, it is different from the status as defined in this thesis.

In the following section, I will review past literature regarding power and status. This review is primarily consistent with the above clarifications and contrasts, such that only relevant studies are included in each subsection. However, exceptions might be made when I deem the core conclusions of the reviewed studies appropriate for each subsection.

Power

In this section, I will view the power literature with a focus on the domains of management and psychology. The aim of this review is twofold. First, it aims to provide a brief summary of the current findings regarding power. Second, it attempts to lay the theoretical foundation for explaining both the interpersonal effects of power within a team context and the subsequent impacts of power hierarchy at team level.

Antecedents of Power

To start with, scholars made several attempts to explore the *antecedents* of power. It should be noted that in this line of research, power is typically conceptualized and operationalized as others’ perceptions of an individual’s power, which is slightly different from the definition of power in this thesis. Nevertheless, this definition still takes a resource perspective and incorporate the possession of resources as a core element of power definition. Thus, in this thesis, as in most power studies, I regard power antecedent literature as an inseparable part of power literature. Importantly, I would also like to point out that even power in this line of research is defined as a perception, it is still distinct from status, which is also defined as a perception, because power substantially pertains to possession of resources

whereas status has a bearing on respect and admiration. Thus, even when one person is regarded as powerful by others, he or she is not necessarily respected or admired.

Given this definition, power antecedent literature in general argues that one's power is subjectively evaluated, or people establish judgments regarding others' power, based on several social clues. Particularly, individual *behavior* is likely to be a major source of power perceptions in the eyes of others. For instance, behaviors such as uses of assertiveness, ingratiation, exchange, upward appeal, rationality, and coalition formation (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993), self-labeling with derogatory terms (Galinsky et al., 2013), and norm-violation behaviors (van Kleef et al., 2011) signal one's power in the eyes of others. Other than behaviors, individuals' *structural position* in a social network (e.g., centrality) serves as another significant social clue, indicating one's possession of resources in a social community. For example, Brass and Burkhardt (1993) found that individuals who are central in a social network tend to be perceived as more powerful.

Consequences of Power

Despite the findings regarding power antecedents, power consequences have been in the actual spotlight of power literature. This line of research found widespread impacts of power on different consequences, both intra-personally and interpersonally, and spanning across emotions, cognitions, and behaviors.

First, power has been found to impact the way focal individuals deal with social relationships, such that powerful people tend to overfocus on themselves rather than other individuals, ignore other people, and even harm others. For example, Magee and Smith's (2013) social distance theory of power argues that powerful people feel psychologically

distant from others, especially those without power. As a result, powerful people tend to engage in behaviors that favor themselves over others. Directly supporting this premise, Overbeck and Droutman (2013) found that powerful individuals are more likely to engage in social projection of self-anchoring, such that they tend to use themselves as a reference point when judging others' internal states (i.e., traits, attitudes, & state affect). More empirical support for this proposition was proposed by various studies. For example, Blader and Chen (2012) found that power is negatively related to justice towards others. Similarly, both DeCelles et al. (2012) and M. Pitesa and S. Thau (2013) found that power leads to self-interested behavior or self-serving decisions in a moral context (e.g., moral hazards), even though moral identity and accountability may weaken this effect. Furthermore, power has been demonstrated to increase the severity of punishment given by focal individuals towards transgressors, because powerful people are more certain about the fault of transgressors (Willemuth & Flynn, 2013). It also alters individuals' attributions about people of low power, such that high power participants attribute fewer human traits to low power counterparts, indicating their tendency to dehumanize others (Gwinn et al., 2013). Gettman and Gelfand (2007) observed that client power is positively related to their sexual harassment behaviors targeting professional females. In the context of negotiation, van Kleef and Cote (2007) found that low power negotiators claim less value from an angry counterpart. Finally, according to Foulk et al. (2018), psychological experience of power facilitates leader abusive behavior and their perceived incivility from others. In summary, power increases individuals' psychological distance from others, which elicits self-focus, other ignorance, and even harmful behaviors at others.

Among the studies concerning the effect of power on focal individuals' treatment of other people, a particular line of research centers the context of victim. A general conclusion is that victims tend to compromise and avoid revenge if they lack power. For example, in the context of victims' responding to perceived wrongdoing, Aquino et al. (2006) found that victim power (either relative or absolute) increases their revenge behavior, decreases forgiveness, and decreases reconciliation. Similarly, in the context of sexual harassment, victims are likely to use more self-focused coping strategies and less initiator-focused coping strategies if they lack power (Malamut & Offermann, 2001). This is because lack of power alters victims' cognitive appraisals of sexual harassing incidents such that they regard these incidents as less insulting and disturbing. Cortina and Wasti (2005) largely replicated this finding and found that social power of victims extensively determines their behavioral responses against sexual harassment – women with lower social power would adopt coping profiles that are characterized by low negotiation/confrontation and advocacy seeking compared with females with higher social power.

Approach-inhibition theory (Keltner et al., 2003) also accounts for the manner in which powerful individuals act in interactional circumstances. This theory contends that increase in power, because it is pertained to rewards and freedom, facilitates approach-related tendencies. In contrast, decrease in power, because it is associated with threat, punishment, and social restraints, elicits inhibition-related tendencies. As a result, in their review, Keltner et al. (2003) assert that power is associated with positive affect, attention to rewards, automatic information processing, and disinhibited behavior. On the contrary, lack of power

is related to negative affect, attention to threat and punishment, controlled information processing, and inhibited social behaviors.

Supporting this premise, Ferguson et al. (2010) found that individuals vary in their responses to poor performers at workplace due to their differences in power. Specifically, powerful individuals are likely to train or confront poor performers instead of compensating for or rejecting them. Jordan et al. (2012) extended this prediction and found that the effect of power on risk-taking (one type of approach-related behavior) is moderated by power stability, such that the unstable powerful and the stable powerless are more risk-taking than the stable powerful and unstable powerless. One last noticeable piece in this line of research is by Anicich and Hirsh (2017), who specifically focused on middle-power positions beyond high and low power positions. They proposed that middle power elicits vertical code-switching and subsequent role conflicts. As a result, middle power activates behavioural inhibition system (BIS) and individuals of this group feel more anxious, pay more attention to nonspecific threats, and engage in systematic and controlled cognition aiming to reduce uncertainty.

Second, power has been identified as a driver for focal individuals' emotions and well-being. Being a pioneer in this line of research, Drake and Mitchell (1977) found that power increases individual motivation and job satisfaction. Sheridan and Vredenburg (1978) also found that reward power reduces individual tension. In a non-work context, Belmi and Pfeffer (2016) showed that when being reminded of death, powerful people, compared with those without power, feel less anxious and fearful. However, Foulk et al. (2018) investigated daily experience of power and concluded that leader psychological experience of power

decreases their well-being, indicated by need fulfillment and ability to relax at home. This was due to their own negative behaviors targeting subordinates and perceived inferior relationship with others. Overall, evidence seems to suggest that at individual level, power promotes people's well-being and prepares them for negative affective experiences. Nevertheless, daily experience of power may diminish their well-being.

Finally, power has been found to be a predictor for performance. Surprisingly, though, the only piece that I found in this stream of literature (Sligte et al. 2011) demonstrates a counter-intuitive finding – that when power positions are unstable, powerless individuals tend to engage in flexible cognitive styles, less avoidant behavioral tendencies, and more global information processing approaches. As a result, the powerless in an unstable power hierarchy are likely to perform more creatively than powerful individuals. However, I believe this might be due to a survivor bias – those studies finding a positive effect might not be published due to its straightforward conclusion.

Power not only impacts powerholders, but also counterparties and observers. This assertion is consistent with my previous argument that power is a predictor of dyadic influence, which is defined as the act of shaping and transforming others' opinions and behaviors (Blader & Chen, 2014; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Supporting this proposition, Azim and Boseman (1975) demonstrated that powerful participants are able to influence involvement of powerless participants. Similarly, Cobb (1980) pointed out that reward and coercive power are positively correlated with informal influence. In general, this line of research demonstrates that power may be helpful in transforming others' perceptions and behaviors.

Comparatively, power protects powerholders and prevents them from experiencing negative treatments from others. For example, according to Near and Miceli (1986), powerful whistle-blowers are less likely to suffer from organizational retaliation. In a more recent study, Rehg et al. (2008) replicated this finding and found that retaliation is more likely to occur to powerless whistle-blowers. Lian et al. (2014) also found that reward and coercive power protect supervisors from supervisor-directed aggression.

Individual power is also a determinant of others' evaluations on them. Interestingly, its impact seems to differ across contexts. On the positive side, Mulder et al. (1986) found that formal power is positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness. de Jong et al. (2007) also demonstrated that A's dependence on B and B's dependence on A (which are occasionally used to operationalize dyadic power; see van der Vegt et al., 2010) jointly predict A's perceived receipt of help from B and thus A's trust in B. In other words, B's power increases both A's perceived help from B and A's trust in B. However, on the negative side, in the context of rehabilitation of prisoners (Bigelow & Driscoll, 1973), the use of coercive power has been found to associate with less cooperative attitudes among inmates, less normative expectations and pressures for cooperation with supervisors, lack of a cooperative informal inmate leadership, and a negative perception that supervisors have socially stubborn work values. This line of literature suggests a complex picture regarding how power is evaluated, viewed, and judged by others.

One potential explanation for the conflicting finding might be that people in general have expectations about powerholders' behaviors. Therefore, powerholders' behaviors may be interpreted differently. Consistent with this logic, van Dijke et al. (2010) discovered that

people tend to trust the authority least when the unfairly enacted procedures are from high power authorities. Similarly, because powerful people are expected to be strong, the expression of sadness will only benefit negotiation outcomes when the expresser is perceived as powerless (Sinaceur et al., 2015).

Finally, in this line of literature investigating the impact of power on others, two studies focused on leader power and how it determines team performance. Counter-intuitively, these two studies offered two different perspectives and made opposite predictions. The first study by Student (1968), based on a resource perspective, showed that power promotes team performance. However, Tost et al. (2013) focused on a communication perspective and found that leader power produces verbal dominance, which reduces team communication and team performance.

Power at Team level

Because the focus of this thesis is at team level of analysis, I review several studies on team level pertained to power-related phenomenon. By this review, I hope to give a comprehensive overview of current team level power research. Greer et al. (2011) are the among the first to explore the effect of team power on team performance. Counterintuitively, they found that team power is negatively related to team performance through process conflicts.

Other than team average power, power configuration within a team has been regarded as another important determinant of team effectiveness. In one of the early papers, Bunderson (2003) found that the effect of metafunctional expertise on decision involvement in management teams is positive when power is decentralized. However, the effect of functional

background similarity on decision involvement is positive when power is centralized. Furthermore, power dispersion is positively related to team conflict resolution when team average power low, but negatively related to conflict resolution when team power is low (Greer & van Kleef, 2010). Focusing on learning as a significant consequence, van der Vegt et al. (2010) found that the effect of power asymmetry on team learning and performance depends on the type of performance feedback received by the team. In this case, individual feedback strengthens the negative effect of power asymmetry on team learning, whereas group feedback promotes a collective orientation among team members and power asymmetry translates into a stimulus for team learning. Lastly, Tarakci et al. (2016) aim to resolve the debate around the effect of power disparity on team performance. By reassessing and evaluating the assumptions made in power disparity literature, the authors conclude that power disparity benefits team performance when powerholders are dynamically aligned with their task competence, but diminishes team performance when it is held constant or when powerholders are misaligned with their task competence.

Two papers explored power-related phenomenon at team level. The first one by van Bunderen et al. (2018) introduced internal power structure of teams as a key moderator in the relationship between intergroup conflicts and intrateam power struggles, hoping to reconcile the mixed empirical findings. They demonstrate that intrateam conflict facilitates power struggles within hierarchical teams and thus depreciates team performance, whereas intrateam conflict diminishes power struggles within egalitarian teams and benefits team performance. The second one by Aime et al. (2014) extended power configuration discussions at team level from a dynamic perspective. They proposed the construct of power

heterarchy, defined as expression of power within a team shifts among team members to align their capabilities with dynamic situational needs. They further found that power heterarchy is positively related to team creativity, especially when team members regard the shifts in power expressions as legitimate.

Status

In this section, I will go through major streams of status research. As the review of power literature, I focus on the domains of management and psychology. The aim of this review is also twofold. First, it aims to provide a brief summary of the current status literature. Second, it attempts to lay the theoretical foundation for explaining both the interpersonal effects of status within a team context and the subsequent team level consequences of status hierarchy.

Antecedents of Status

Unlike power research which is to some extent dominant by power consequence investigations, status research has been exploring its various antecedents. Essentially, this attempt reflects academic interests in finding approaches to obtain others' admiration and respect. The accumulating conclusions suggest various status predicting factors spanning across personality, behaviors, and emotions.

The primary source of status is individual characteristics. Among these characteristics, personality is an important one. For instance, Anderson et al. (2001) found that extraversion predicted high status but neuroticism predicted lower status in males. Bendersky and Shah (2013) extended this conclusion by adopting a dynamic perspective, arguing that extraversion in the long run leads to status losses whereas neuroticism is related

to status gains. Beyond the Big Five Personalities, Flynn et al. (2006) demonstrated that self-monitors maintain higher status compared with others. This is because self-monitors are accurate in perceiving status dynamics and establish a generous reputation.

Other than personality, individual physical appearances also predict status. For example, physical attractiveness has been found to predict individual status in males (Anderson et al., 2001).

Individual behavior is another important group of predictors of status. In general, behaviors that demonstrate competence or benefit general public tend to be significant status determinants. For example, Anderson et al. (2012) showed that overconfidence makes other people estimate high competence of focal individuals and thus confer high status to them. Kennedy et al. (2013) extended this conclusion in a more recent study and replicated this finding even when manipulating the actual ability of focal individuals to be salient. Focusing on speech styles as signals of competence and contribution to public good, Fragale (2006) demonstrated that powerful speech styles lead to more status conferrals when task interdependence was low, and powerless speech styles lead to more status conferrals when task interdependence was high. The mechanisms include inferred perceived trait agency and trait communality. Lastly, generosity, as an indicator of contributing to the good of others, has been found to positively predict status (Flynn, 2003). Similarly, Halevy et al. (2012) identified costly contributions to public goods to be predictors of status conferral, such that generous contributions of resources simultaneously increase prestige (which is regarded as an indicator of status, as clarified previously) but decrease dominance. This effect is particularly salient when intergroup goal incompatibility is high rather than low.

Interestingly, the expression of emotions in a social context is intensely investigated as a predictor of status because scholars regard it as a critical status cue. Tiedens (2001) pioneered this line of research and found that people confer more status to targets who express anger than sadness. Extending Tiedens's (2001) work, Brescoll and Uhlmann (2008) investigated the joint effects of gender and anger expression on status conferral. They concluded that anger expressors, compared with sadness expressors, were conferred higher status, but this effect is reversed for females. Lastly, Cheng et al. (2010) examined the emotion of pride and demonstrated that hubristic pride elicits dominance whereas authentic pride facilitates prestige.

The sources of status are not limited to personality, behaviors, and emotional expressions of focal individuals. Others' status perceptions about them may also come from the relationship between focal individuals and other entities. One typical example of this perspective is individuals' social structural positions within a group. According to Lin (1999), social structural positions offer social capital which helps to establish status attainment. Similarly, Venkataramani et al. (2010) demonstrated that leaders who have higher quality relationships with their bosses and who were more central in their peer networks are perceived as having greater status.

Finally, status may emerge due to changes in external environment. For example, in a victimization circumstance, third party punishing transgressors increases victims' self-perceived membership status within the group (Okimoto & Wenzel, 2011), such that they feel respected and enjoy high self-esteem. Cultural context also makes a difference. For instance, cultural orientation impacts people's preferences of warmth versus competence in status

evaluations, such that individuals with individualistic orientation tend to associate high status with competence, whereas individuals with collectivistic orientation are likely to associate high status with warmth (Torelli et al., 2014). Another recent study by Ronay et al. (2020) showed that environmental inequality attracts and favors dominance-oriented rather than prestige-oriented leaders, compared with equal society. Neeley (2013) found in a qualitative study that a shift of language from French to English in a French high-tech company leads to status changes of employees such that non-English native speakers experienced loss in status.

Consequences of Status

Other than status antecedents, studies concerning the consequences of status are also rapidly accumulating. These consequences also span cross focal individuals' behaviors, cognitions, and emotions. The first group of consequence, not surprisingly, is influence. As discussed previously, influence is a common downstream outcome of both power and status. Empirical studies offer strong support for this premise. For example, Cobb (1980) pointed out both expert and referent power (again, similar to status, as discussed previously) to be positively correlated with informal influence. Moreover, De Kwaadsteniet and van Dijk (2010) found out that status serve as a cue for tacit coordination, such that low status people are inclined to defer to the preferences of prestigious people. Additionally, Cheng et al.'s (2010) dominance-prestige framework proposes prestige to be important predictor of influence. While prestige is regarded as sharing core elements with status in this thesis, their research demonstrates a positive impact of status on influence. Similarly, in Bai's (2017) framework, competence and virtue are significant determinants of influence. Because both competence and virtue are closely associated with status, his work provides further support

for the status-influence relationship. Finally, Redhead et al. (2019) examined the longitudinal relationships between prestige and influence and concluded that prestige is effective in influence attainment over time.

Another general conclusion about status consequence is that status promotes other-friendly behaviors because people with high status are motivated to engage in such status-consistent behaviors to maintain others' admiration and respect for them. Consistent with this finding, Lount and Pettit (2012) demonstrated that high status drives people to trust others, because they tend to perceive others as having more positive intentions such as benevolence. Similarly, Hays and Blader (2017) found that legitimate status increases people's generous behaviors in order to maintain their positive image. Interestingly, Arnett and Sidanius (2018) offered a seemingly conflicting but logically coherent story. They found that high status people, in order to maintain their high-status image, are likely to conceal their high-status identities to preserve social harmony. This finding suggests that people may be discomfort with elevating status above others.

However, recently, the premise that high status people engage in status-consistent behaviors starts to receive challenges in various unique contexts. For example, Kennedy and Anderson (2017) examined the context of objecting unethical practices, and found that possessing high status makes people less likely to engage in principled dissent (i.e., stop others' wrongdoing). This is because people with high status are more identified with their organizations and tend to see the unethical practices as ethical. In the context of status threat, high-status people have been found to engage in more aggressive responses, compared with low-status individuals (Porath et al., 2008). Moreover, Graffin et al. (2008) explore the role

of status of CEOs in the economic outcomes of top management members. They discovered that CEO status is positively related to top management members' average compensation as well as the difference in compensation between the CEO and other members of top management team. When facing job threats, low status individuals exhibit a winnowing response, whereas high status individuals engage in a widening response (Smith et al., 2012). Particularly, those with low status tend to activate smaller and tighter subgroups of their networks, but those with high status are likely to activate larger and less constrained subsections of their networks. As a result of this difference, low status individuals may only have restrained access to new information, which damages their future employment opportunity. Lastly, Pettit et al. (2016) adopted a dynamic perspective and found that people are more likely to cheat in order to prevent negative status change compared with realizing positive status changes.

Status not only impacts status-holders themselves, but also observers' attitudes about them. Essentially, this line of literature focuses on whether status acts as a blessing or curse in impacting others' interactions with focal individuals. On the one hand, studies demonstrate an impact of status on others' positive behaviors toward status-holders. For instance, Yukl et al. (1996) found that agent referent power is positively related to target commitment. Furthermore, in a distributive collaboration work environment, Sheldon et al. (2006) investigated the status of partner and concluded that partner status protects them from being negatively evaluated in the case of time delay. This effect is mediated by evaluations of partner competence. Indirectly supporting this premise, Simcoe and Waguespack (2011) focused on name-based signals (i.e., status) and found that name-based signals explain the

difference in publication rates between high- and low-status authors. Howell et al. (2015), based on status characteristics theory, demonstrated that all ascribed, assigned, and achieved status are positively related to voice recognition and subsequent supervisory performance evaluation.

On the other hand, there are also studies suggesting status to be a curse for focal individuals. This is because people typically have expectations about status holders' behaviors. Therefore, any wrong-doing by them might be exaggerated and negatively evaluated by others. Consistent with this logic, Graffin et al. (2013) found that high status Members of the British Parliament (MPs) are not more likely to abuse the expense system than low-status peers. However, they indeed are more likely to be targeted by the press and voters for their breach of the regulations. This status curse further explains why high-status MPs are more likely to exit in case of scandals, even though they have a higher retention rate in the absence of scandals.

One group of status consequences pertains to its spillover effect. These studies depict the impact of focal individuals' status on other people. In an intergroup setting, Pettit and Lount (2010) found that people work harder when their individual performance is compared to a lower status, rather than higher-status out-group member. This is because they feel threatened when such comparisons occur. Additionally, Prato and Ferraro (2018) focused on newcomers and discovered that the status of newcomers negatively predicts the performance of organizational incumbents. This is because high status newcomers generate only limited knowledge spillovers compared to the resources that they drain from incumbents.

Finally, there are heated debates around the impact of status on performance. This line of literature seems to depict a rather complex picture, instead of a simple positive effect. To start with, Bendersky and Shah (2012) adopted a dynamic perspective and examined the effect of status gain and loss on individual performance. They found that higher status at the end of the group's life is related to higher individual performance. Importantly, those who gain status perform worse than those who maintain high status all the time. They also do not perform better than those who maintain stable low-status positions. Those who lose status actually perform as well as those who maintain high status. Altogether, these results suggest that people may trade off resources that they could have used to improve individual performance for opportunities to enhance their status.

Bothner et al. (2012) also made an attempt to solve the puzzle by asking if status acts as an asset or liability for performance. They concluded with a curvilinear relationship such that low to moderate levels of status grant individuals access to both tangible and intangible resources and thus improves their performance, whereas moderate to high levels of status might elicit complacency and distraction for individuals and thus diminish their performance. Lastly, Marr and Thau (2014) compared the performance differences after status loss for individuals with different initial status position. They found that after a comparable loss of status, people with high initial status positions may have difficulty performing well because they experience more self-threat. In conclusion, investigations regarding status-performance relationship exert a complex picture, especially when dynamic perspective is taken into consideration.

Status at Team level

Similar to power research review, because the focus of this thesis is at team level of analysis, I also review several studies on team level pertained to status-related phenomenon. By this review, I hope to give a comprehensive overview of current team level status research. To start with, a primary focus of status-related research at team level is team or group status. According to Ellemers et al. (1992), membership in a group with high status is more attractive than membership in a low status group. This effect is more salient in minority groups than in groups of majority size. van Leeuwen and Täuber (2011) explored group status on outgroup helping. They showed that members of low status groups are more likely to use outgroup helping, because it is a strategic tool to demonstrate their group's knowledge and boost its reputation. Lastly, Chang et al. (2017) found a positive effect of inter-group status on intra-group status concern, which further facilitates cooperative collective process and outcomes.

Second, the majority of investigations of status at team level, which is also the focus of this thesis, pertain to status hierarchy. A stream of research focuses on the impact of status hierarchy on individuals. Diefenbach and Sillince (2011) emphasized the prevalence and persistence of status hierarchy, arguing that even if there might be slight differences regarding formality, status hierarchy is prevailing and enduring. Christie and Barling (2010) investigated the impact of status hierarchy on individual performance and health. They found that team status inequality is negatively related to individual performance and health for low status individuals when uncooperative behavior is high. Focusing on individual disruptive competitive behaviors, Hays and Bendersky (2015) compared status versus power hierarchies

and found that status hierarchy, which is more mutable, encourages low ranking members' disruptive competitive behavior. Finally, Wellman et al. (2020) differentiated shapes of hierarchies and argued that hierarchy skewness increases team member perspective-taking motivation, which further facilitates team member team-optimal behavior and team performance.

Scholars not only investigated the impact of status hierarchy on individuals, but also explored its impact on team as a collective, especially on team performance. The findings are not conclusive. As early attempts, Bunderson and Reagans (2011) suggested a negative impact of social hierarchy on team learning. However, Ronay et al. (2012) and He and Huang (2011) found a positive effect. Focusing on a different indicator of hierarchy, Wellman et al. (2020) demonstrated that negatively skewed formal hierarchy enhances team performance.

Given these inconclusive findings, recent studies aim to reconcile the results. Consistent with Li et al. (2016) argument that context might be a significant boundary condition for social hierarchy-team performance relationship, Anderson and Brown (2010) proposed type of tasks, leaders, corrupting effects of power, member motivation, and coordination as boundary conditions. Tarakci et al. (2016) provide further support by arguing that the extent to which top-ranking individuals are competent moderates the relationship between hierarchy and team performance. Moreover, Bunderson et al. (2016) proposed that types and associated operationalization of hierarchy determine if hierarchy is functional or not – whereas hierarchy as cascading relations of dyadic influence reflects the functionality, hierarchy as inequality represents the dysfunctionality of social hierarchy. The meta-analysis

by Greer et al. (2018) shows a general negative effect on team effectiveness, mediated by conflicts. The moderators include team structure and hierarchy itself. The positive effect is mediated by coordination and moderators were not found.

I would like to point out that in the above-mentioned studies, the phrase “status hierarchy” is frequently used to refer to their core construct. However, if their operationalization of hierarchy is carefully examined, one may conclude that their hierarchy is primarily influence hierarchy, or a combination of power, status, or influence hierarchies. Due to the difficulty in clearly identify the nature of hierarchies in these studies, I follow the usage of “status hierarchy” in the original papers and review them in this section.

Third, at team level, scholars have been studying status configuration such as proportion of high/low status members. For instance, Chattopadhyay et al. (2004) investigated the proportion of lower status category members in a team. They found that this proportion will impact work-group prototype valence, prototype clarity, and prototypicality of all group members. Their later study (Chattopadhyay et al., 2010) further concluded that high-status team members working with higher proportions of lower-status team members reported fewer instances in which colleagues accused them of incompetence or breached norms of professional conduct, as well as lower levels of negative emotions and negative behaviors. Lower-status members reported higher levels of these outcomes when working with higher proportions of higher-status team members. A study by Groysberg et al. (2011) found that groups benefited initially from having high status members. With higher proportions of individual stars, however, the marginal benefit decreased before the slope became negative. Lastly, Zyphur et al. (2009) focused on status distribution and demonstrated

that testosterone-status mismatch, which describes the extent to which team members' status is aligned with their testosterone, lowers collective efficacy and team performance.

Finally, at team level, scholars examine the phenomenon of status conflicts. This construct is initially proposed by Bendersky and Hays (2012) and defined as “disputes over people’s relative status (i.e., respect) positions in their group’s social hierarchy” (Bendersky & Hays, 2012, p. 323). They found that status conflict is negatively related to team performance after controlling for other types of conflicts, through the mechanism of group information sharing. Chun and Choi (2014) explore the antecedents of status conflicts and demonstrated average and dispersion of need for power to be important antecedents. Kilduff et al. (2016) extended the discussions about status conflicts by arguing that upward disagreements, in which both parties believe themselves as higher in status than the counterparty, are exceptionally detrimental for team functioning. All in all, status conflicts within teams are harmful for teams.

Power vs. Status

Now that I separately reviewed the power literature and status literature. Here, I will review the studies that simultaneously investigated power and status. The majority of the current studies comparing power and status focus on the individual level. Particularly, these studies conclude that power elicits negative interpersonal behaviors whereas status facilitates positive interpersonal behaviors. For example, Blader and Chen (2012) found opposing effect of status and power on individual justice towards others, such that status is positively related to justice towards others but power is negatively related to justice towards others. Blader et al. (2016) extended this view and found that status facilitates perspective taking whereas

power diminishes it. However, power and status have been shown similar with regard to others' perceptions. An example is that both power and status both predict others' dominance judgment (Fragale et al., 2011). Another study by Yu and Blader (2020) also suggests power and status to be similar in their mediating roles in the relationship between social class and subjective well-being. With regard to power and status antecedents, Hays (2013) demonstrated that males desire power more than females but females desire status more than males.

Other than a direct comparison between power and status, their joint effects have also been investigated at individual level. As one of the first attempts, Fragale et al. (2011) looked at people's perceptions about power without status – their conclusion is that power leads to lower warmth but status moderates the relationship. Power without status is perceived low warmth but power with status is regarded warmth. Fast et al. (2012) demonstrated a similar pattern that power without status is positively associated with more destructive interpersonal behavior. This finding is further replicated by Anicich et al. (2015), who found that power without status drives interpersonal conflicts, and Cho and Fast (2018), who suggested that power without status is positively related to less precocial behavior.

Three more studies are worth noticing for simultaneously investigating power and status. First, Yu et al. (2019) developed a bipartite measure of social hierarchy, involving scales measuring both perceived power and status. This measure is also adopted in my thesis. Second, To et al. (2020) explored the transition between power and status. They concluded that culture may facilitate this transition such that vertical collectivism drives people to regard powerful targets as also prestigious, and horizontal collectivism urges people to

consider prestigious targets as also powerful. Third, as far as I am aware of, Hays and Bendersky (2015) is the only study that compared power hierarchy and status hierarchy at team level. However, their focal dependent variable still lies at individual level, emphasizing the moving-up motivation of a subset group of team members (i.e., low-ranking individuals). They found that because status hierarchy is more mutable than power hierarchy, it is more likely to promote low-ranking individuals' disruptive competitive behaviors.

Based on my literature review, there is no empirical study contrasting power and status hierarchies with regard to their impact on team functioning. In the following, I made one of such attempts to simultaneously examine the impact of power and status hierarchies on team functioning.

CHAPTER 3: HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Given that the literature on power versus status has demonstrated a possibility for reconciling mixed social hierarchy-team performance relationship findings by focusing on the bases of social hierarchy as power and status. In the sections below, I will follow this direction and develop hypotheses regarding how and why power and status hierarchies exert opposite effects on team emergent states, team processes, and team performance.

Power Hierarchy, Status Hierarchy, and Team Structure Clarity

In this thesis, team structure clarity is defined as the extent to which team members agree that their team is well-organized with an unequivocal division of labor and unambiguous procedures for coordinating and prioritizing work (Antino et al., 2019; Bunderson & Boumgarden, 2010). According to this definition, team structure clarity represents a critical team emergent state – a construct that “characterizes properties of the team that are typically dynamic in nature and vary as a function of team context, inputs, processes, and outcomes” (Marks et al., 2001, p. 357). Importantly, team structure clarity describes team members’ collective and shared cognitive and motivational states. One crucial implication for high team structure clarity is that team members have a clear picture of each other’s job roles and responsibilities. Additionally, it depicts the strength and unambiguity of shared norms and expectations among team members regarding each other’s appropriate interpersonal behaviors, attitude, and emotional expressions.

Building upon this definition and the nature of team structure clarity, I argue that power and status hierarchies shall exert opposite impacts on it, because of their different characteristics. One pioneer study suggesting this distinction between power and status

hierarchies is by Hays and Bendersky (2015). They examined the impacts of both hierarchies on the low-ranking team members' competitive behaviors and found that compared with power hierarchy, status hierarchy engenders more competitive behaviors among these team members. This is because status hierarchy is deemed more mutable than power hierarchy, which boosts low-ranking team members' perceived opportunity to move up and their motivation to climb up the ladder. As a result, they engage in competitive behaviors, which are considered effective approaches of gaining prestigious positions in a hierarchy.

One important takeaway from Hays and Bendersky's (2005) research is that people have distinct perceptions about social hierarchies on difference bases. Particularly, they pointed out that status hierarchy is deemed more mutable than power hierarchy because status is voluntarily conferred by others based on subjective perceptions of other team members' ability to contribute to the group (in a typical workplace team, this is highly likely to be competence), whereas power is relatively objective and defined by the value of resources one has. Consistent with this premise, I argue that it is more likely for team members to have consensus on power hierarchy rather than status hierarchy. This is because status is based on subjective perceptions and power is based on objective resource possessions. The former is typically is less tangible whereas the latter are more tangible. Moreover, individuals grant status on a voluntary basis in which they have almost complete freedom on deciding who to respect. Comparatively, they have highly limited choices on who possess resources and who does not. As a consequence, consensus is likely to emerge among team members concerning power hierarchy but not status hierarchy. It should be noted, though, that Hays and Bendersky's (2005) work does not diminish the value of my dissertation. This is because

their focus of dependent variable lies at individual level. Moreover, it represents only a subgroup of team members (i.e., low-ranking individuals). Whereas low-ranking individuals' motivation to move up explains a small portion of team effectiveness, my dissertation, by investigating team performance as consequence, shall make an adequate theoretical contribution.

Additionally, even when team members have consensus on who has more status, they may not have consensus on expectations for these high-status individuals. One important reason is that resources that defined power are typically domain specific. In other words, powerful individuals are only powerful in the domain in which the resources are useful. In comparison, the respect and admiration that defined status are domain free. That is, once an individual receives respect from others, this individual will be respected and admired across contexts by others. This difference consequently suggests a consensus on role expectations among power-asymmetric team members, such that team members agree on powerful individuals' taking charge of only the issues they possess resources about and not the other issues. Comparatively, similar consensus may not be reached among status-asymmetric team members because low status individual may assume high status individuals to take charge of every aspect of the job whereas high status individuals may only take charge of the issues that they are familiar with.

Moreover, in a workplace team, power hierarchy clearly signals that people assigned with more valued resources (i.e., powerful people) are supposed to be contribute more to the team shared goal. For example, they are supposed to utilize their resources on most difficult tasks, or they are supposed to conserve their resources in order to help powerless teammates

to resolve work problems. Importantly, this expectation is explicit and should be shared by all team members. However, in a status hierarchy, these expectations may be ambiguous. High status people might regard status as a reward for their past performance and do not regard it as an obligation to commit to the group in future. In comparison, low status people may take it for granted that they are not able to resolve any difficult problems at work and it is high-status team members' job to fix the problems.

As a result of the distinct characteristics of power and status hierarchies, as well as the associated perceptions about them, team members as a collective in a power hierarchy shall have consensus on who should work on what. They also have clear expectations about their own role as well as others' expectations about themselves. In comparison, in a status hierarchy, high-status individuals and low status individuals might have conflicting opinions on each team member's roles and responsibilities. Consequently, power hierarchy is likely to be related to high team structure clarity whereas status hierarchy is likely to be related to low team structure clarity. Thus:

Hypothesis 1: Power hierarchy is positively related to team structure clarity.

Hypothesis 2: Status hierarchy is negatively related to team structure clarity.

The Effects on Information Sharing and Information Withholding

I hypothesize that the team emergent states (i.e., team structure clarity) derived from power and status hierarchies may further impact team processes including information sharing, information withholding, workload sharing, team social loafing, and status conflicts. Despite the view that team emergent states and team processes are often regarded as parallel mechanisms between team inputs and team outputs, it is also argued that team emergent

states may act as proximal outcomes of team inputs and serve as another inputs for team processes (Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Marks et al., 2001; Schippers et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2011). Following this line of research, I hypothesize that team structure clarity mediates the impact of power and status hierarchies on team processes. Together with these team processes as second-stage mediators, team structure clarity also contributes to serial mediations between power or status hierarchies and team performance.

In a power hierarchical team, once team members have a clear picture on who does what, they are more likely to recognize that information within a team is uniquely divided among team members (Bunderson & Boumgarden, 2010). Moreover, they are able to discern and locate the need for information (i.e., who needs information) in order to accomplish work tasks (Liang et al. 1995, Moreland et al. 1996, Moreland 1999, Moreland & Myaskovsky 2000). They shall also be able to discern and locate the information source (i.e., who has the information; Liang et al. 1995, Moreland et al. 1996, Moreland 1999, Moreland & Myaskovsky 2000). Furthermore, with every team member aware of each other's expectations among themselves, they are motivated to communicate the information in a power hierarchical team. In other words, when power hierarchy is high, team information sharing is promoted whereas team information withholding is inhibited.

Comparatively, in a status hierarchical team, members may have ambiguous and equivocal understandings about communicating information. Additionally, information roadmap can be vague and fuzzy for team members, such that they are not aware of what information is needed nor who has the information needed. More importantly, team members in status hierarchical teams might have contradictory opinions on whether they should share

information. For example, high-status individuals would assume themselves to be an information hub where information should naturally flow to them, whereas low-status individuals may assume information collection as the job for high-status individuals. Therefore, team members lack the motivation to share information. In other words, team members may engage in less information sharing and more information withholding behaviors in status hierarchical teams due to low team structure clarity. Taken together:

Hypothesis 3: Power hierarchy is a) positively related to information sharing and b) negatively related to information withholding through team structure clarity.

Hypothesis 4: Status hierarchy is a) negatively related to information sharing and b) positively related to information withholding through team structure clarity.

Team processes such as information sharing and information withholding shall directly determine team performance. In the literature, information has been long recognized as a key factor facilitating team performance. This is because diverse informational input may enhance the quality of decision making (Mesmer-Magnus & Dechurch, 2009), help to offer solutions to work problems (De Dreu, 2007), provide more efficient and effective approaches to accomplish asks (De Dreu, 2007), as well as promote positive climate states such as trust and cohesion (Mesmer-Magnus & Dechurch, 2009). As a result, attempts to communicate and spread information within teams are positively related to team performance. Meanwhile, any obstacle to free flow of information shall diminish team performance.

Based on this argument, I hypothesize that information sharing and information withholding act as second-stage mediators in the relationship between power and status hierarchies and team performance. Particularly, as a result of increased team structure clarity

and subsequently boosted information sharing and hindered information withholding due to power hierarchy, these teams tend to benefit from better decision making and more problem solutions and thus perform better. In comparison, those teams with high status hierarchy are likely to experience low team structure clarity, low information sharing, and high information withholding. These teams therefore perform worse. Thus:

Hypothesis 5: The positive effect of power hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and a) information sharing or b) information withholding.

Hypothesis 6: The negative effect of status hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and a) information sharing or b) information withholding

The Effects on Workload Sharing and Team Social Loafing

A second group of team processes proposed in this paper pertain to the distribution of workload among team members, including team workload sharing and team social loafing. These two are selected because both of them have been identified as significant team processes for successful team performance (Erez et al., 2002; George, 1992; Price et al., 2006). In addition, they represent the extent to which tasks are fairly distributed and accomplished by all team members, which involve substantial interactional coordination. While team structure clarity portrays the prerequisite of such coordinations, it is theoretically coherent to include workload sharing and team social loafing as team processes underlying the effect of power and status hierarchies on team performance.

Specifically, in a team where each team member's role and responsibility are clear and interpersonal behavioral paradigm is unambiguous (i.e., high team structure clarity), team members are likely to divide and coordinate work in a reasonable, widely-accepted, and unequivocal way. In another word, collective work tasks are divided in a manner that there is no work left out, there is no one working on redundant tasks, and everyone has clear tasks to work on. Importantly, even when there are impromptu tasks, the normative behavioral guidance specified by the team structure clarity shall promptly resolve the task-dividing puzzle. As a result, team structure is positively related to workload sharing but negatively related to team social loafing.

Integrating the above arguments with H1 and H2, I hypothesize that the high team structure clarity elicited by power hierarchy shall transfer to better team workload sharing. Meanwhile, it also helps to minimize team social loafing. In comparison, the diminished team structure clarity transits the impact of status hierarchy to less workload sharing. It also elicits more team social loafing. Thus:

Hypothesis 7: Power hierarchy is a) positively related to workload sharing and b) negatively related to team social loafing through team structure clarity.

Hypothesis 8: Status hierarchy is a) negatively related to workload sharing and b) positively related to team social loafing through team structure clarity

Furthermore, consistent with previous arguments that team processes act as proximal outcomes of team emergent states and direct input for team effectiveness, I propose that workload sharing and team social loafing are the second-stage mediators underlying the effect of power and status hierarchies on team performance.

In particular, because workload sharing reflects the extent to which team members do a fair share of team work, it is logically associated with higher team performance when team members do not shirk. This prediction has also been confirmed by several empirical pieces (Barrick et al., 1998; Campion et al., 1993; Campion et al., 1996). Similarly, as long as team members start to avoid their own share of work or their own responsibility, the overall performance of teamwork may suffer because divided shares of tasks remain unfinished. More importantly, because one member's work output might be used as another member's work input, social loafing by team members may cause a chain of unfinished tasks, which eventually lead to diminished team performance.

Integrating the above arguments with previous mediating effects, I propose that team workload sharing and team social loafing further transfers the impact of hierarchies on team structure clarity to team performance. Therefore:

Hypothesis 9: The positive effect of power hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and a) workload sharing or b) team social loafing.

Hypothesis 10: The negative effect of status hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and a) workload sharing or b) team social loafing.

The Effects on Status Conflicts

In this thesis, status conflict is defined as disputes among team members over each other's relative hierarchical positions in social hierarchy (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). It is regarded as an important team process through which team inputs may impact team effectiveness (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Kilduff et al., 2016). Moreover, because status conflict emergence may come from motivations to move up and failed interpersonal

communications and coordination (Chun & Choi, 2014), it might serve as an immediate consequence of team structure clarity.

Specifically, in a power hierarchical team where team members aware of each other's roles and responsibilities, they are less likely to disagree with each other on hierarchical positions and rankings. Importantly, even in the case of such disagreements, because team structure clarity offers a paradigm and guidance on how to resolve these disagreements, team members tend to resolve these disputes in a prompt manner without objections. In comparison, in a status hierarchical team where team member roles and responsibilities are ambiguous, team members may encounter numerous debates over who do what and who defers to whom. Moreover, these teams often lack a system and guidance to resolve conflicting opinions. As a result, status conflicts could easily emerge because of low team structure clarity.

In other words, team structure clarity that is impacted by power and status hierarchies is likely to transmit the impact to status conflicts. Thus:

Hypothesis 11: Power hierarchy is negatively related to status conflicts through team structure clarity.

Hypothesis 12: Status hierarchy is positively related to status conflicts through team structure clarity

Finally, I argue that status conflicts act as a second-stage mediator between power and status hierarchies and team performance. Particularly, status conflicts hinder team performance because it serves as a distraction which focuses team members' attention on obtaining hierarchical positions rather than working on tasks (Bendersky & Hays, 2012).

Additionally, decisions that benefit individual hierarchical positions might be made even though they hurt team functioning (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). As a result, status conflict is negatively related to team performance.

Integrating previous hypotheses, I propose that status conflicts triggered by status hierarchy and reduced team structure clarity may decrease team performance, whereas power hierarchy and associated team structure clarity may decrease status conflicts and thus promotes team performance. Therefore:

Hypothesis 13: The positive effect of power hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and status conflicts.

Hypothesis 14: The negative effect of status hierarchy on team performance is serially mediated by team structure clarity and status conflicts.

The Moderating Role of Time Pressure

Time pressure, defined as a perception that there is insufficient time to accomplish teamwork tasks (Beck & Schmidt, 2013; Menzies, 2005), is proposed as the moderator between power and status hierarchies and team structure clarity. I chose it as a boundary condition in this dissertation for several reasons. First, time is pervasive and an inseparable aspect of almost every team task. In current organizations, almost all decisions are made and almost all assignments are finished under some kind of deadline (Kelly & Karau, 1999). Second, research has demonstrated its impact on people's behavioral and cognitive patterns (Beck & Schmidt, 2013; Kelly & Karau, 1999). While team structure clarity is a collective cognition of team members, it may be shaped by time pressure as well other than the two social hierarchies. Finally, team literature has long identified time pressure as a significant

predictor of team performance (Pepinsky et al., 1960). More importantly, it has been argued to be a critical boundary condition for the effect of team structure on team productivity (Pepinsky et al., 1960). Thus, time pressure is selected as the moderator in the relationship between social hierarchy and team functioning.

I argue that when time pressure is high, team members tend to rely more on power and status hierarchies in order to accommodate and adjust their own interpersonal behaviors within teams, such that they are able to accomplish work tasks in a quickest possible manner. In this case, the positive effect of power hierarchy and the negative effect of status hierarchy on team structure clarity are both strengthened. Specifically, when time pressure is high, team members are motivated and even required to prioritize their speed of finishing work tasks (Maruping et al., 2015). This requirement propose demands on team members, such that they make use of any existing observable social cues to guide their interpersonal behaviors in order to achieve minimum coordination in the shortest time. Because of the prevalence of social hierarchies, team members shall easily turn to power or status hierarchies for such social cues, and they may give up other approaches when seeking social clues with an attempt to save time.

Following this premise, when time pressure is high, team members in a power hierarchical team are likely to identify and quickly solidify each other's job roles and responsibilities. Moreover, because they avoid wasting time on other approaches when seeking social clues, they are less affected and more reliant on power hierarchy. Furthermore, because of their strong belief in power hierarchy in guiding their interpersonal behaviors, they are more likely to follow it when trying to resolve conflicting opinions or to figure out

who shall defer to whom. Consequently, teams under high time pressure enjoy more increase in team structure clarity as a result of power hierarchy.

In comparison, teams under low time pressure are not restricted by time and are not obligated to prioritize time when accomplishing work tasks. Therefore, they may rely on other approaches or social clues other than power hierarchy to guide their interpersonal behaviors. This may substantially undermine the impact of power hierarchy on team structure clarity.

Similarly, when time pressure is high, team members in status hierarchical teams are likely to rely on status hierarchy to establish a paradigm or norm guiding their interpersonal behaviors. Because status hierarchy is typically ambiguous and because high status individuals and low status individuals may have conflicting expectations about each other, teams under high time pressure may suffer more when establishing team structure clarity.

However, when time pressure is low, team members in status hierarchical teams may adopt other social clues to adjust their behaviors. This practice is likely to restrain the negative impact of status hierarchy on team structure clarity. Taken together, I propose that time pressure strengthens both the relationship between power hierarchy and team structure clarity and between status hierarchy and team structure clarity.

Hypothesis 15: The positive effect of power hierarchy on team structure clarity is moderated by time pressure, such that the positive relationship is stronger when time pressure is high.

Hypothesis 16: The negative effect of status hierarchy on team structure clarity is moderated by time pressure, such that the negative relationship is stronger when time pressure is high.

Given that time pressure strengthens the impacts of both power and status hierarchies on team structure clarity, and given that team structure clarity transmits the impacts of both social hierarchies to team performance, together with several team processes as second-stage mediators, I integrate these hypotheses and propose that time pressure moderates the serial mediations from power and status hierarchies to team performance. In particular, when time pressure is high, because teams benefit more from power hierarchy when establishing team structure clarity, they also produce better team performance from more information sharing and workload sharing, as well as less information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. On the contrary, teams benefit less from power hierarchy in team performance when time pressure is low. Moreover, the negative indirect effects of status hierarchy on team performance through team structure clarity and team processes are stronger when time pressure is high but weaker when time pressure is low. Thus:

Hypothesis 17(a-e): The five serial mediations from power hierarchy to team performance proposed in H5, H9, and H13 are moderated by time pressure, such that these serial mediations are stronger when time pressure is high.

Hypothesis 18(a-e): The five serial mediations from status hierarchy to team performance proposed in, H6, H10, and H14 are moderated by time pressure, such that these serial mediations are stronger when time pressure is high.

The Effects on Instruction Giving at Dyadic Level

In previous hypotheses, I argue that at team level, power hierarchy would benefit the establishment of team structure clarity because it is typically objective, salient, and unanimous. It is also likely to be admitted and adopted for behavioral guidance among team members. In comparison, status hierarchy is subjective, implicit, and ramifying in nature. It tends to cause confusions among team members regarding how one shall behave.

While these assumptions have been tackled in the past literature (e.g., Hays & Bendersky, 2015), these discussions are relatively general and lack detailed articulation on how power or status dynamics may guide perception establishment and subsequent behavioral changes. Thus, in this section, I focus on dyadic level and propose instruction giving as a potential mechanism by which dyadic power or status asymmetry transmits to individual perceptions regarding interpersonal relationships.

Specifically, I argue that for power-asymmetric dyads, powerful parties naturally experience a sense of power (Anderson et al., 2012). This sense of power drives them to engage in behaviors that are aligned with their power-related social positions. Additionally, it facilitates themselves to do whatever they are intrinsically motivated to do. In this case, while powerful individuals' instruction giving is expected and aligned with their power-related social positions and while powerful individuals typically have the desire to communicate their wills to others, these individuals are more likely to give instructions to powerless team members. Importantly, powerless team members, due to sense of powerlessness, are also defaulted to wait for instructions from powerful individuals. This shall further encourage powerful team members' instruction giving to powerless team members.

In comparison, in status-asymmetric dyads, high status individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their high-status social positions, they are less likely to be bossy and give direct instructions to those without status. In addition, because status is also closely pertained to competence at workplace, low status individuals may even expect high status individuals to finish the job tasks on their own. In this case, high-status team members are less likely to give instructions to low-status team members in status-asymmetric dyads. Therefore:

Hypothesis 19: At dyadic level, B's power in the eyes of A is positively related to B's instruction giving to A.

Hypothesis 20: At dyadic level, B's status in the eyes of A is negatively related to B's instruction giving to A.

It should be noted that what is implicit in these two hypotheses is that instruction giving helps to clarify job roles, responsibilities, and interaction norms between two team members. This may further transfer to team-level team structure clarity. However, due to lack of data, I do not make these predictions here nor test them in data analysis. This will be acknowledged in the Limitation and Future Research subsection in the Discussion section.

CHAPTER 4: METHOD AND RESULTS

Sample and Procedures

Because scholars have identified the potential threats of using homogeneous samples when studying social hierarchy at team level (e.g., Bunderson et al., 2016), it is suggested in the literature to use a diverse sample if possible. In this thesis, I take this concern into consideration and approached two distinct companies for data collection. Specifically, in order to test the hypotheses, I collected data from teams working in a state-owned bank and a Chinese baijiu production and sales company, both of which are located in a southwestern province in China. Importantly, to mitigate the concern of using homogeneous sample and to extend the generalizability of our finding, the sample teams that are recruited in this study span cross various functions in two companies.

Particularly, work teams in the bank span across various front-office, mid-office, and back-office departments, including but not limited to Big Corporate Banking Team, Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (SME) Banking Team, Financial Market Team, Trade Finance Team, and Human Resources (HR) Teams. Similarly, work teams in the baijiu production and sales company span across production, administration, sales, and other supporting departments. I believe this profile of teams offer adequate functional diversity as a sample in general, which helps to increase the validity of my empirical findings.

Despite the functional diversity, I believe all these teams can be grouped together and studied as a larger sample because a standard data collection protocol was used to collect the data (Bunderson et al., 2016). In particular, based on the definition of teams by Mathieu et al. (2019) and Kozlowski and Bell (2013), I sampled work teams in both companies that meet

the following criteria: (a) the teams must have at least three members; (b) the teams must perform organizationally relevant work; (c) team members shall socially interact (primarily face-to-face, or virtually) frequently; (d) team members shall share common goals; (e) there shall be certain interdependencies among team members; and (f) team members may have different roles and responsibilities.

My pre-survey interviews with several sampled teams suggest that the above criteria have been extensively satisfied. For example, in the bank, teams are the basic functional unit. Typically, several employees formally form a workgroup with a designated leader to carry out specific tasks. The boundaries of these workgroups are also clear, with team members being able to precisely identify the leaders, team members and outsiders of the group. In addition, although cross-team coordination exists, most work is conducted within teams among team members. Similar observations were also made by interviewed team members in the baijiu production and sales company. In particular, small-sized formal teams with several employees and one designated leader compromise a basic functional unit. Additionally, the boundaries of these teams are clear and within-team coordination extremely common. Therefore, I regard both companies and sampled teams as an appropriate context for testing my hypotheses.

The HR departments in both companies helped me with the general logistics and provided me basic information regarding the teams, such as the nature of the team tasks, and name and contact information of participants. Then I used standardized instruments and procedures to collect the data. In particular, I distributed surveys to all team members in all sampled teams at two separate time points with an interval of approximately three weeks in-

between. At T1, surveys consist of two sections – a round-robin section in which each team member rated every other colleague in the same team regarding their power, status, and influence, and a self-report section in which all team members provide information regarding team familiarity and individual demographic information. At T2, surveys also consist of two sections – a round-robin section in which each member report every other team member’s instruction-giving to them, and a self-report section in which every participant report team structure clarity, information sharing, information withholding, workload sharing, team social loafing, status conflicts, team performance, and time pressure.

Initially, I approached 80 teams at the bank and 78 teams at the baijiu production and sales company. These invited teams consist of 158 leaders and 455 team members, involving 1812 directional dyads. Among the invited team leaders and members, 144 leaders and 422 team members participated in T1 study. After matching data, I excluded the teams which only have data from less than 3 participants. This practice yields a final T1 sample of 131 teams, involving 131 team leaders, 383 team members, as well as 1538 dyads. Thus, at T1, team level response rate is 82.91% and dyadic level response rate is 84.88%. At T2, 142 leaders and 412 team members provided their responses. I followed the same practice in excluding the teams with less than 3 respondents. This yields a final T2 sample of 142 teams, involving 142 team leaders, 409 team members, and 1622 dyads. Thus, at T2, team level response rate is 89.87% and dyadic level response rate is 89.51%. I matched the data across time. The matching yields a final sample of 122 teams involving 122 team leaders, 356 team members, and 1428 dyads. Therefore, across time, the team level response rate is 77.22% and dyadic level response rate is 78.81%.

Teams had on average 3.92 participants ($SD = .5$), with an average team age of 35.55 years old ($SD = 5.2$), an average work tenure of 145.60 months ($SD = 65.3$), an average organizational tenure of 114.10 months ($SD = 64.7$), an average team tenure of 56.06 months ($SD = 38.9$), and an average leader tenure of 45.66 months ($SD = 33.5$). Most participants (86.1) have a high-school degree or higher and about half of the participants (53.3%) are females.

Measures

Given that all the scales I used were originally developed in English but used in a Chinese context, I followed a translation-back-translation procedure to set up the survey (Brislin, 1980). A seven-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree/never*; 7 = *strongly agree/always*) was used throughout the surveys in this study.

Power and status hierarchies. I adopted the centralization approach by Bunderson et al. (2016) to operationalize both power and status hierarchies in this study. This approach conceptualizes social hierarchies as one type of inequality in which one or several team members dominate power or status. It has been widely adopted in management literature spanning from macro research (e.g., He & Huang, 2011) to micro research (Rulke & Galaskiewicz, 2000). Following this stream of studies, in this article, I operationalize power and status hierarchies by calculating the coefficient of variation of team members' individual power and status centrality. This power and status centrality is derived from the dyadic ratings of power and status provided by each participant.

Therefore, power and status hierarchies are calculated by three steps. In the first step, all participants including both leaders and members rate every other individual within the

same team with regard to the extent to which s/he considers the ratee as of high power or high status. Because of the round-robin design, to reduce participants' psychological burden, a shorter version of Yu et al. (2019) scale was used. Specifically, three items were used to measure power: "This coworker has a great deal of power at work", "This coworker has authority to discipline others when needed", and "His/her designated role allows this coworker to control a lot of resources". Another three items were used to measure status: "This coworker has a good reputation in my eyes", "I look up to him/her because s/he is good at his/her job", and "S/he is admired by me at work because s/he is seen as competent at work". These items were selected based on the factor loading results reported by Yu et al. (2019) as well as a subjective evaluation of whether they match the study context or not. The Cronbach's alphas for power and status are .83 and .90, respectively.

In the second step, I calculated individual power and status centrality scores by averaging other team members' ratings of the focal individual's power and status scores. In the final step, following the practices in social hierarchy research (Bunderson et al., 2016), I dichotomize the power and status individual centrality scores and then calculate the coefficient of variation scores for each team. This coefficient of variation score is calculated as the ratio between standard deviations and mean of power and status individual scores. To certain extend, it refers to relative standard deviation (Bedeian & Mossholder, 2000). Eventually, a higher coefficient of variation score for each team stands for a steeper power or status hierarchy.

It should be noted that I included both team members and team leaders when calculating team social hierarchy. There are two major reasons for this practice. First, based

on my pre-data collection interviews and field observations, most team leaders are regarded a significant part of the teams and they maintain highly intense communications with their subordinates. Typically, the surveyed team leaders' major role is to lead team members to accomplish specific work tasks. More often than not, they get their hands dirty by working with team members on specific tasks. For example, during my field observation, one team leader spent several hours discussing with one of her team members about details of a report (such as content, structure, font, color of figures, etc.) and she revised this report in person before final submission. Second, although the team leaders have access to certain valuable resources (such as skip leaders), they do not have the authority to formally reward or punish their team members. This prevents team leaders from easily altering team social hierarchy. As a result of these team characteristics, I believe that excluding team leaders when calculating team social hierarchy only represents an incomplete depiction of the team hierarchical structure and dynamics. Therefore, I included data about team leaders when I calculate team power and status hierarchy.

Team structure clarity. Following Antino et al. (2019), I measured team structure clarity by using Bunderson and Boumgarden (2010) five-item scale. Also consistent with Antino et al. (2019), I asked team leaders to report the extent to which their team is organized through elaborated division of labor and has unambiguous procedures for coordinating work tasks. Sample items are "Goals and priorities are clearly communicated" and "Our individual roles are very clear and we don't stray from them". The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .87.

Team information sharing. I measured team information sharing by using a two-item scale by Gong et al. (2013). I asked all participants to rate the extent to which they as a team communicate and exchange task-relevant information with each other. A sample item is “Team members exchange ideas with each other to analyze and solve problems”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .94.

Team information withholding. Following Pan and Zhang (2018) I measured team information withholding by using a four-item scale by Lin and Huang (2010). I asked all participants to report the extent to which they fail to provide information even when the information is important and necessary. A sample item is “When my team members request information from me, I sometimes offer team members some other information instead of what they really want”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .98.

Team workload sharing. I measured team workload sharing by using a five-item scale from Erez et al. (2002). I asked all team members to rate the extend to which they divide and share their work tasks within their teams. Sample items include “Team members did his or her fair share of the work on the team’s task”, and “Team members were fair in doing his or her fair share of the less pleasant team tasks”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .92.

Team social loafing. I measured team social loafing using a nine-item scale by George (1992). Specifically, I asked all team members to report the extent to which team members avoid their own share of work tasks within a group. Sample items include “Some members of my team do not do his or her share of the work” and “Some members of my team

leaves work for other teammates which he or she should really complete”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .98.

Status conflicts. I measured status conflicts using a four-item scale by Bendersky and Hays (2012). I asked team members to rate the extent to which they have disputes over their relative hierarchical positions in their group’s social hierarchy. Sample items include “My team members frequently took sides (i.e., formed coalitions) during conflicts”, and “My team members experienced conflicts due to members trying to assert their dominance”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .85.

Team performance. Following past research (e.g., Zhang et al., 2007), I used three items from Ancona and Caldwell (1992) to measure team performance. Team members were asked to evaluate the efficiency, quality, and overall achievement of their work. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .93.

Time pressure. Following Maruping et al. (2015), I used a four-item scale from Durham et al. (2000) to measure time pressure. Leaders report the extent to which their team as a collective feel that they have little time to complete their work. Sample items include “We are not afforded much time to complete our tasks” and “Task durations are often short.”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .91.

Dyadic power and status. Dyadic power and status were measured using three items, separately, selected from Yu et al. (2019). Due to their dyadic nature, they were measured in a round-robin design. Details about these measures have been reported in the measures of power and status hierarchies.

Dyadic instruction giving. To capture the instruction giving at dyadic level, I used one item “In the past three weeks, this coworker gave me instructions and orders at work”. Only one item was used in order to reduce the psychological burden of participants in a round-robin design.

Control variables.¹ We controlled for several variables in our analysis. Consistent with past research examining power or status dispersions (Greer & van Kleef, 2010), I controlled for *team average power* and *team average status*. Both of them are calculated as the team-level average of individual power or status centrality scores, which were used to calculate power and status hierarchies. Further, given that both team emergent states and team processes may emerge from team member daily interactions, I controlled for two other factors that may have critical impact on them. First, I controlled for *team size*. Team size is operationalized based on the archival data from HR departments. It is also the number of employees that are invited to participate in this study. Second, I controlled for *familiarity among team members* because familiar team members tend to interact more on a daily basis and have stronger emergent states (Sieweke & Zhao, 2015). Team familiarity is measured at individual level by one item asking about how familiar they are with each other. Then, the responses are aggregated to team level. Finally, we controlled for other demographic

¹ The findings remained virtually the same with or without these control variables. Additionally, because team influence hierarchy is regarded as a consequence of power or status hierarchy, I also measured team influence hierarchy as a control variable. It was operationalized the same way as power and status hierarchy. Supplementary analyses controlling for team influence hierarchy yielded virtually the same results. Due to space limitation, detailed results are not reported in this manuscript but can be obtained upon request.

information including team average age, education level, work tenure, organizational tenure, team tenure, and leader tenure.

For dyadic-level hypothesized relationships, because I aim to explore the unique effects of dyadic power and status on instruction giving and thus dyadic level clarification of job roles and responsibilities, I controlled for dyadic influence in order to tease out its effect on interpersonal dynamics. Dyadic influence is measured in round-robin design using two highest-loading items from Bunderson et al. (2016). A sample item is “When we disagree, I yield to this person’s perspective”.

Analytic Strategy

Because my hypotheses can be divided into two sections: team-level hypotheses and dyadic-level hypotheses, I tested them separately. At team level, I conducted ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analyses to test my hypotheses. I used macros from Hayes (2017) to test all my team-level hypotheses. To test indirect effects, I estimated the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the indirect and conditional indirect relationships with 20,000 bootstrapping iterations (Preacher & Selig, 2012).

At dyadic level, because the data collected from round-robin design have a complex nested structure in which individuals are nested within both teams and dyads, I used the hierarchical linear modeling application of social relations model (SRM) by Kenny (1994). This approach helps to resolve the data nested structure issue and has been used in previous research investigating dyadic relationships within teams (e.g., Lam et al., 2011, Tse et al., 2013). Particularly, the random effect estimates demonstrate the portion of the total variance in dependent variable (i.e., instruction giving) that should be attributed to characteristics of

perceivers, targets, dyads, and teams. Furthermore, the fixed effect estimates show the strength of effect of independent variables (i.e., dyadic power and dyadic status) on dependent variable (i.e., instruction giving). These estimates are similar to unstandardized regression coefficients in OLS. When conducting SRM, I first ran a “null-model” in which no predictors are included. This is used as a reference for subsequent analyses and to partition the variance in instruction giving to perceiver, target, dyad, and team levels. Then, I put ran another model by including two predictors (i.e., dyadic power and status) to test my hypotheses at dyadic level.

Results

Descriptive Statistics at Team Level

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics and correlations for all team-level variables. As shown, power hierarchy is positively related to team structure clarity, although non-significant, whereas status hierarchy is negatively related to team structure clarity. In addition, power hierarchy is significantly and positively correlated with information sharing while significantly and negatively correlated with information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. In comparison, status hierarchy is significantly and negatively correlated with information sharing and workload sharing. Finally, power hierarchy has a non-significant and positive correlation with performance, but status hierarchy is significantly and negatively related to team performance. These correlations provide initial support for our hypotheses at team level.

Insert Table 1 about here

Hypotheses Testing at Team Level

Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to but status hierarchy is negatively related to team structure hierarchy. As shown in Model 1 in Table 2, there is a positive relationship between power hierarchy and team structure clarity ($b = .42, p < .05$) and a negative relationship between status hierarchy and team structure clarity ($b = -.53, p < .05$). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Insert Table 2 about here

Hypotheses 3a and 4a predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to information sharing through team structure clarity and status hierarchy is negatively related to information sharing through team structure clarity. As shown in Model 2 in Table 2, there is a positive relationship between team structure clarity and information sharing ($b = .37, p < .05$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and information sharing and between status hierarchy and information sharing through team structure clarity are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .16; 95% CI: [.025, .335]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.20; 95% CI: [-.397, -.043]). Thus, Hypotheses 3a and 4a were supported.

Insert Table 4 about here

Hypotheses 3b and 4b predicted that power hierarchy is negatively related to information withholding through team structure clarity and status hierarchy is positively related to information withholding through team structure clarity. As shown in Model 3 in Table 2, there is a negative relationship between team structure clarity and information withholding ($b = -.48, p < .01$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and information withholding and between status hierarchy and information withholding through team structure clarity are negative and positive separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = $-.20$; 95% CI: $[-.431, -.028]$; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = $.25$; 95% CI: $[.039, .558]$). Thus, Hypotheses 3b and 4b were supported.

Hypotheses 5a and 6a predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to team performance, and status hierarchy is negatively related to team performance, through team structure clarity and information sharing. As shown in Model 4 in Table 2, there is a positive relationship between information sharing and team performance ($b = .28, p < .01$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team performance, and between status hierarchy and team performance, through team structure clarity and information sharing are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = $.04$; 95% CI: $[.003, .116]$; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = $-.06$; 95% CI: $[-.143, -.004]$). Thus, Hypotheses 5a and 6a were supported.

Hypotheses 5b and 6b predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to team performance, and status hierarchy is negatively related to team performance, through team

structure clarity and information withholding. As shown in Model 5 in Table 2, there is a non-significant negative relationship between information withholding and team performance ($b = -.07, n.s.$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team performance, and between status hierarchy and team performance, through team structure clarity and information sharing are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI including zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .01; 95% CI: [-.007, .060]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.02; 95% CI: [-.086, .009]). Thus, Hypotheses 5b and 6b were not supported.

Hypotheses 7a and 8a predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to workload sharing through team structure clarity and status hierarchy is negatively related to workload sharing through team structure clarity. As shown in Model 6 in Table 2, there is a positive relationship between team structure clarity and workload sharing ($b = .42, p < .01$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and workload sharing and between status hierarchy and workload sharing through team structure clarity are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .17; 95% CI: [.027, .353]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.22; 95% CI: [-.434, -.041]). Thus, Hypotheses 7a and 8a were supported.

Hypotheses 7b and 8b predicted that power hierarchy is negatively related to team social loafing through team structure clarity and status hierarchy is positively related to team social loafing through team structure clarity. As shown in Model 7 in Table 2, there is a negative relationship between team structure clarity and team social loafing ($b = -.53, p$

< .01). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team social loafing and between status hierarchy and team social loafing through team structure clarity are negative and positive separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = -.22; 95% CI: [-.486, -.032]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = .28; 95% CI: [.051, .608]). Thus, Hypotheses 7b and 8b were supported.

Hypotheses 9a and 10a predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to team performance, and status hierarchy is negatively related to team performance, through team structure clarity and workload sharing. As shown in Model 8 in Table 2, there is a positive relationship between workload sharing and team performance ($b = .64, p < .01$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team performance, and between status hierarchy and team performance, through team structure clarity and workload sharing are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .11; 95% CI: [.019, .247]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.14; 95% CI: [-.296, -.026]). Thus, Hypotheses 9a and 10a were supported.

Hypotheses 9b and 10b predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to team performance, and status hierarchy is negatively related to team performance, through team structure clarity and team social loafing. As shown in Model 9 in Table 2, there is a non-significant negative relationship between team social loafing and team performance ($b = -.00, n.s.$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team performance, and between status hierarchy

and team performance, through team structure clarity and team social loafing are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI including zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .00; 95% CI: [-.030, .035]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.00; 95% CI: [-.049, .034]). Thus, Hypotheses 9b and 10b were not supported.

Hypotheses 11 and 12 predicted that power hierarchy is negatively related to status conflicts through team structure clarity and status hierarchy is positively related to status conflicts through team structure clarity. As shown in Model 10 in Table 2, there is a negative relationship between team structure clarity and status conflicts ($b = -.32, p < .01$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and status conflicts and between status hierarchy and status conflicts through team structure clarity are negative and positive separately. Both had a 95% CI excluding zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = -.13; 95% CI: [-.295, -.016]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = .18; 95% CI: [.022, .399]). Thus, Hypotheses 11 and 12 were supported.

Hypotheses 13 and 14 predicted that power hierarchy is positively related to team performance, and status hierarchy is negatively related to team performance, through team structure clarity and status conflicts. As shown in Model 11 in Table 2, there is a non-significant negative relationship between status conflicts and team performance ($b = .00, n.s.$). As shown in Table 4, the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated that the indirect relationships between power hierarchy and team performance, and between status hierarchy and team performance, through team structure clarity and status conflicts are positive and negative separately. Both had a 95% CI including zero (*power hierarchy indirect effect* = .00;

95% CI: [-.020, .020]; *status hierarchy indirect effect* = -.00; 95% CI: [-.030, .023]). Thus, Hypotheses 13 and 14 were not supported.

Hypotheses 15 and 16 predicted that time pressure strengthens the positive relationship between power hierarchy and team structure clarity and the negative relationship between status hierarchy and team structure clarity. As shown in Table 3, the interactive effect of power hierarchy and time pressure on team structure clarity was positive and significant ($b = .14, p < .05$), but the interactive effect of status hierarchy and time pressure on team structure clarity was non-significant ($b = -.05, n.s.$). Following Cohen et al. (2003), in Figure 2, I plot the interactive effect of power hierarchy at two levels (i.e., $\pm 1 SD$) of time pressure. The simple slope tests indicated that power hierarchy was positively related to team structure clarity at high levels of time pressure ($\beta = .61, p < .01$), but was not significantly related to it at low levels of time pressure ($\beta = .25, n.s.$). Taken together, Hypothesis 15 was supported and Hypothesis 16 was not supported.

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypotheses 17 and 18 predicted that the serial mediations from power hierarchy to team performance and from status hierarchy to team performance were moderated by time pressure. As shown in Table 5, results from the 20,000 iterations of bootstrapping indicated two such indirect effects that are significantly moderated. First, the indirect relationship from power hierarchy to team performance through team structure clarity and information sharing was moderated by time pressure, such that the indirect effect was significant when time

pressure was high (*indirect effect* = .06; 95% CI: [.003, .143]) but not when it was low (*indirect effect* = .02; 95% CI: [-.014, .084]). Second, the indirect relationship from power hierarchy to team performance through team structure clarity and workload sharing was moderated by time pressure, such that the indirect effect was significant when time pressure was high (*indirect effect* = .17; 95% CI: [.058, .332]) but not when it was low (*indirect effect* = .07; 95% CI: [-.042, .213]). Detailed of other models can be found in Table 5. Taken together, these results supported Hypothesis 17a and Hypothesis 17c but not others in Hypotheses 17 and 18.

Insert Table 5 about here

Descriptive Statistics and Variance Partitioning at Dyadic Level

Table 6 reports descriptive statistics and correlations for all dyadic-level variables. As shown, both dyadic power and dyadic status are positively related to instruction giving. Table 7 presents the variance partitioning results in dyadic power, dyadic status, dyadic instruction giving, and dyadic influence. For all these variables, over 45% of total variance was attributed to dyadic level and dyadic-level variance consist of the most portion of total variance. These findings provide initial evidence and legitimacy for studying instruction giving and the antecedents of power and status at dyadic level.

Hypotheses Testing at Dyadic Level

Hypotheses 19 and 20 predicted that at dyadic level, power and status of B in the eyes of A are positively and negatively related to B's instruction giving to A, separately. As shown

in Table 8, B's power in the eyes of A is positively related to B's instruction to A ($b = .39, p < .001$) and B's status in the eyes of A is negatively related to B's instruction to A ($b = -.17, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 19 and 20 were supported.

Importantly, this finding suggests that at dyadic level, interpersonal power and status dynamics may impact instruction giving between two parties. This may further determine the role clarity between two team members. As a result of this dyadic-level dynamics, team structure clarity may emerge from a bottom-up process. In another word, our investigation at dyadic level provides lower-level evidence for the team level relationship between power and status hierarchies and team structure clarity.

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Relying on the literature regarding the multiplicity perspective of social hierarchy and the literature contrasting power and status, this thesis makes an attempt to reconcile the mixed findings concerning the social hierarchy-team performance relationship. Particularly, it proposes that the base of social hierarchy determines its functionality. Power hierarchy, because it is objective, unanimous, and effective in guiding interactions, increases team structure clarity. This effect is further transmitted to higher team performance through more information and workload sharing, as well as less information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. In contrast, status hierarchy, because it is subjective, equivocal, and futile in guiding interactions, decreases team structure clarity. This effect further transforms into lower team performance through less information and workload sharing, as well as more information withholding, team social loafing, and status conflicts. Moreover, these effects are strengthened by time pressure. At dyadic level, power and status are positively and negatively related to instruction giving, separately, offering one potential mechanism underlying the dynamics on how power and status asymmetry transfers to role clarity.

The results demonstrate general support for the hypotheses. Particularly, team structure clarity mediates the effect of power and status hierarchies on all proposed team processes. The serial mediating effects hold for information sharing and workload sharing paths. Time pressure moderates the effect of power hierarchy on team structure clarity. It also moderates the two serial mediating effects from power hierarchy to team performance

through information and workload sharing. Finally, at dyadic level, power and status have opposite effects on instruction giving.

Theoretical Implications

This thesis makes several theoretical implications. First, it offers a novel perspective in reconciling the mixed findings concerning the impact of team social hierarchy on team functioning. Divergent from previous academic attempts which primarily examine the role of external environments or top-ranking individuals within the team (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Greer & van Kleef, 2010; Tarakci et al., 2016), this thesis suggests the significance of the nature of social hierarchy. Particularly, the valued social dimension (i.e., power versus status) essentially shapes the functionality of social hierarchies, such that objective power hierarchy benefits team effectiveness due to its role in guiding interactional behaviors, whereas subjective status hierarchy diminishes team effectiveness due to its inefficacy in advising interactional behaviors.

As such, in contrast to previous research which typically confounds power and status in the theorization and operationalization of social hierarchy, this dissertation articulates that it is important to expound the bases of social hierarchy, as the distinctions in these bases generate thoroughly distinct interactional schema among team members, which essentially determine team functioning.

Additionally, this dissertation suggests that the traditional approach in both micro (Bunderson et al., 2016) and macro management literature (He & Huang, 2011) of focusing on mere influence hierarchy may be vague in nature. This is because influence hierarchies might be established on either power or status (or in a more complex case, both) structure

within a team. In other words, influence hierarchy, in a way, can be regarded as the salient manifestation of a team's power or status structure. While this dissertation demonstrates the distinct consequences of power and status hierarchies, it is therefore critical to delve into the bases of influence hierarchy.

It should be noted that this dissertation by no means denies the contribution of past theoretical attempts reconciling the mixed findings concerning the consequences of social hierarchy. Instead, by investigating the role of time pressure, it concurs with this line of research regarding the importance of external environment in reconciling past mixed findings. The value of this dissertation thus lies in providing a novel lens in achieving the same objective while acknowledging the value of past research.

Second, by demonstrating the opposite effects of power and status hierarchies on team functioning, this thesis further establishes the legitimacy of power-status distinction with a focus on team level of analysis. Additionally, it demonstrates the importance of differentiating among power, status and influence. Past literature has already demonstrated the distinctive antecedents and consequences of power and status (e.g., Blader & Chen, 2012; Blader et al., 2016; Cho & Fast, 2018; Fragale et al., 2011; Hays, 2013). However, these discussions almost exclusively focus on individual or dyadic level. My thesis extends this line of literature and suggests the significance of differentiating power hierarchy from status hierarchy at team level of analysis. Moreover, because current investigations of social hierarchy typically examine influence hierarchy (e.g., Bunderson et al., 2016) and because influence has been shown as a consequence of power and status at individual or dyadic level,

my thesis also demonstrates the importance of separating power and status hierarchies from influence hierarchies.

Third, my thesis suggests a negative side of status and a positive side of power. Current accumulating evidence seems to demonstrate a consistent beneficial impact of status and a detrimental impact of power, especially at individual or dyadic level of analysis. For example, the line of literature contrasting power and status concludes that status pertains to more justice (Blader & Chen, 2012), more perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016), and less conflicts (Cho & Fast, 2018), whereas power is associated with less justice (Blader & Chen, 2012), less perspective taking (Blader et al., 2016), and more conflicts (Cho & Fast, 2018). Contrary to this research, my findings demonstrate the desirable consequences (i.e., high team structure clarity) of power hierarchy and abominable consequences (i.e., low team structure clarity) of status hierarchy. Hence, my study provides a more comprehensive depiction of the consequences of power and status.

Forth, related to the above point, my thesis identifies the shared mechanism through which power and status hierarchies exert distinct impacts on team functioning. This mechanism is important because it captures people's shared cognitions, assumptions, and norms regarding their interactional behavioral patterns. Moreover, it not only portrays people's belief on what they themselves should do and what others should do, but also represents what they think others expect them to do. Therefore, this meta-cognition element helps to make team structure clarity an extension of previous research contrasting power versus status which primarily focus on a straightforward effect about how power and status shapes individual behavioral tendencies.

Fifth, by investigating the impact of power- and status-asymmetry on dyadic level instruction giving, this thesis helps to depict the interactional dynamics through which power and status shape mutual role clarity. Additionally, this attempt helps to lay the theoretical foundation for an implicit bottom-up effect in which dyadic-level power and status asymmetries transform into team structure clarity. Thus, this study shed lights on the potential examinations of other detailed bottom-up routes which lead dyadic-level power- and status-asymmetries to team emergent states or team processes.

Finally, this thesis identifies the boundary condition of time pressure in the effect of social hierarchies on team performance. In this way, it integrates the nature of social hierarchy and external environments as two groups of predictors of team functioning. This is also consistent with and extending previous arguments that the effectiveness of social hierarchy can be substantially context-specific and it is crucial to simultaneously investigate environmental factors when evaluating social hierarchies (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Li et al., 2016).

Practical Implications

While this thesis offers theoretical implications to broad academic research concerning social hierarchy, power, and status, it also provides several practical implications, especially for organizational policy makers and team leaders. First, my research suggests that a team shall be structured with a power hierarchy, in which certain members possess more work-related resources than others. Ideally, this structure shall be publicly announced, promoted, and all agreed-on among team members. It is also important to ask team members to rely on this structure to guide their interpersonal behaviors, including addressing

conflicting opinions, ambiguous workflows, and other ad-hoc work requirements. In this way, teams are able to establish a functional system in which team members reach consensus regarding each individual's roles and responsibilities. Importantly, they reach consensus pertained to expectations of each other's behavioral patterns. Such consensus should contribute to free flow of information, feasible workload sharing, and less status conflicts. These healthy team processes would eventually lead to better team performance. On the contrast, if a team is constructed with equal distribution of power among team members, ambiguity and confusions could emerge in case of conflicting opinions and ad-hoc work requirements. Such ambiguity and confusions would elicit chaotic information flow, workload sharing, as well as unnecessary competition and rivalry among employees for hierarchical positions within the team, which ultimately diminish team performance. In conclusion, organizational practitioners are suggested to maintain a power hierarchy in frontline workplace teams.

While sustaining a power hierarchy, practitioners are also advised to minimize the status differences among team members. In an optimal situation, all team members shall be encouraged to pay equally high respect to each other. Moreover, they should be explicitly informed to avoid using individual status or dyadic status differentials as a paradigm or guidance in social interactions, especially when they try to resolve conflicting opinions, ambiguous workflows, and other ad-hoc work requirements. This is because, this presumed paradigm or guidance may not be shared among team members. Thus, relying on it to guide interpersonal behaviors might elicit turbulence in information sharing and workload sharing, as well as costly contest for hierarchical positions, all of which might depreciate team

performance. In conclusion, the findings from this study recommend maintaining small status differences among team members in workplace teams.

Finally, team leaders are suggested to constantly monitor time pressure and regulate its impact on team processes. In particular, team leaders should be aware that individuals are more likely to rely on power and status hierarchies in guiding their interpersonal behaviors when time pressure is high. Given the beneficial impact of power hierarchy and the poisonous impact of status hierarchy, team leaders should encourage employees' reliance on power hierarchy while discouraging their reliance on status hierarchy under high time pressures. One potential coping strategy might be to inform team members about the positive consequences of power hierarchy and negative consequences of status hierarchy. Such an announcement should limit the guiding role of status hierarchy on interpersonal behaviors and sustain the guiding role of power hierarchy. Consequently, when time pressure is high, teams should benefit more from power hierarchy and avoid the toxin of status hierarchy if team leaders engage in appropriate practices.

Limitations and Future Research

First, despite that I implicitly predicted a relationship at dyadic level in which dyadic power is positively but dyadic status is negatively related to dyadic role clarity, this relationship was not fully hypothesized or tested in the current study. Instead, I used workplace instruction giving as a proximate variable for dyadic role clarity. The underlying logic is that role clarity, especially when work tasks and demands are ambiguous or when external environment is uncertain, substantially relies on mutual agreement on temporary working arrangements. Such dyadic temporary working arrangements are most clear and

efficient when one person is making decisions and in charge while the other one is merely following. Therefore, by demonstrating that dyadic power and status predicts work instruction giving, I wish to present a logical link from dyadic power and status to role clarity. Nevertheless, this reasoning is not empirically confirmed in this thesis, which eventually proposes questions around its legitimacy. Thus, future research is encouraged to empirically, either through field study or lab experiments, investigate the indirect relationship from dyadic power and status to dyadic role clarity via instruction giving.

Second, this study was conducted exclusively in the Chinese context, which is characterized by high power-distance orientation belief. Power distance orientation belief is typically defined as individuals' awareness and acceptance of differences in power among people (Hofstede, 1980). By definition, people with high power-distance orientation belief should legitimize a steep power hierarchy and rely heavily on it in guiding their behaviors in social contexts. Consequently, a justifiable implication can be made that the effects of power hierarchy found in this study might be weakened in other cultural contexts which feature low power-distance orientation belief. Nevertheless, I do not intend to hypothesize a null relationship between power hierarchy and team structure clarity in such situations. This is because power hierarchy has been universally identified as a fundamental structure within human social groups (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). More importantly, individuals across cultural contexts have been found to rely on this structure for social cues in interpersonal contexts (Anderson & Brown, 2010). Thus, I predict a weak but positive effect of power hierarchy on team structure clarity in cultural contexts characterized by low power distance orientation belief.

Nevertheless, it remains vague regarding the role of power distance orientation belief in altering the negative impact of status hierarchy on team structure clarity. This is because people in high power-distance cultures may not necessarily accept status differences among people. Thus, the moderating role of power distance orientation belief in the relationship between status hierarchy and team structure clarity (or team performance in general) remains largely unpredictable.

Other than the high power distance orientation belief, the Chinese culture also features more horizontal collectivism, which emphasizes achieving ingroup goals through equality (To et al., 2020; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998), as opposed to vertical collectivism (Sivadas et al., 2008), referring to an orientation that emphasizes achieving ingroup goals via hierarchy (To et al., 2020; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Building on this finding, we may infer that employees in the Chinese context are less likely to rely on both power and status hierarchies in guiding their social behaviors. In another word, the impacts of power and status hierarchies are weaker in the Chinese context – suggesting a stronger positive effect of power hierarchy and a stronger negative effect of status hierarchy on team functioning in other cultural contexts featuring vertical collectivism.

Taken together, the findings in this dissertation might be substantially restricted by the Chinese cultural context, which features high power distance orientation belief and high horizontal collectivism. While both cultural factors might alter the relationships proposed in the theoretical model, future research is thus encouraged to empirically test these relationships in other cultural contexts and extend the generalizability of the findings in this dissertation.

Third, among various potential boundary conditions that might restrict the impacts of power or status hierarchy on team functioning, I exclusively focus on time pressure in this dissertation. While this decision is justifiable both theoretically and empirically, future research is still encouraged to explore the moderating role of other environmental factors. As mentioned in The Moderating Role of Time Pressure section of Chapter 3, time pressure is investigated theoretically in this dissertation because it is prevalent, alters people's behavioural and cognitive patterns, as well as predicts team performance. Additionally, based on my pre-data-collection interviews, time pressure is an inseparable part of participants' daily work and it directly determines considerable behavioural patterns of employees. As a consequence of these theoretical and empirical reasons, time pressure is selected as the focal moderator in this dissertation.

I acknowledge the existence of other moderators such as task complexity (Bunderson et al., 2016) and task interdependence (Ronay et al., 2012), which have been proved to be significant boundary conditions in the relationship between social hierarchy and team performance. Indeed, if we follow the work on social hierarchy (Bunderson et al., 2016; Ronay et al., 2012) or the work on general teamwork (Brown & Miller, 2000; Pepinsky et al., 1960), then all these situational factors (i.e., time pressure, task complexity, and task interdependence) shall be taken into theoretical consideration and treated as moderators in the model.

Nevertheless, the focus on only time pressure instead of the other two was primarily guided by the context in which data were collected. In particular, based on my pre-data-collection interviews and field observations in these contexts, the front-line workplace teams

in both companies did not have to accomplish complex tasks. Most of their daily jobs were highly structured or straightforward. Additionally, the interdependence among team members was moderate instead of highly salient. Comparatively, time pressure was a widely-shared situation for most of the teams. For instance, during one of my field observations, I witnessed workplace teams in a bank brand having meetings on a daily basis. During those daily meetings, the key performance indicators were reminded by brand managers to all employees, such that these employees are motivated to meet their goals in time (typically the end of every week or month). In sum, my observations concluded with the selection of time pressure rather than other situational factors as the moderator in the theoretical model. This decision was further supported by my empirical data analyses, which failed to demonstrate the moderating roles of either task complexity or task interdependence.

Forth, the dissertation is extensively established upon survey-based field study, even though longitudinal design was adopted and data were collected from different source. One major limitation of this design is that it offers limited support for the causal relationships among the constructs. This brings threats to the empirical conclusions when serial mediations are proposed and tested in this study. Therefore, future research is encouraged to offer more evidence for the causal chains proposed in this paper, ideally with the use of experimental design which has been shown to be a powerful approach to test causality. Moreover, because the surveys involve a round-robin design, they are relatively long in length for participants. This might have caused participant fatigue, as evidenced by high reliabilities coefficients for information withholding and social loafing, as well as high correlations among information withholding, social loafing, status conflicts, workload sharing, and team performance.

Fifth, the context of this dissertation is small workplace teams with an average team size of around 4 people. Although this phenomenon of small sample size was coherent with my field observations when I noticed that most workplace teams were functioning as a relatively small basic unit with typically 3 to 5 team members, this small team size might bring challenges to the generalizability of my conclusions to teams with more team members (Bunderson et al., 2016). Specifically, because all team members within small-sized teams are able to maintain relatively frequent communications with each other, the role of social hierarchy as a coordinator (Magee & Galinsky, 2008) might be weakened. Instead, its role as a clarification mechanism (especially when team members face ambiguous situations) is exaggerated. Based on this logic, we might argue that in relatively large teams, because of lack of intense communications among team members, social hierarchy exerts impacts on teams more through a coordination mechanism rather than a role clarity mechanism. Additionally, this impact might be stronger for power hierarchy because it is typically widely-acknowledged among team members. In comparison, status hierarchy may be less effective as a coordination channel because it is difficult for all team members to maintain an accurate evaluation of status in a large team, in which members even barely know each other. Unfortunately, because most workplace teams in my sample only have less than 6 team members, I was unable to test the above predictions in a subset of sample with larger sample size. Therefore, future research is encouraged to examine the impacts of both power and status hierarchy in large-sized teams.

Sixth, for a similar reason concerning communication density, the findings in this thesis may not be generalizable to virtual teams. Due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic as

well as technological development, virtual teams are becoming increasingly popular within organizations and even have a tendency to replace face-to-face teams in certain circumstances. Against this backdrop, it is important to investigate the impacts of power and status hierarchies on team functioning in a context of virtual teams. Theoretically, because of limited communication time among team members, it is less likely for them to familiarize themselves with every other colleague. Thus, it is difficult for them to establish consensus on status hierarchy. In comparison, power hierarchy, because it is often formalized and assigned by upper management, is typically widely-acknowledged. Therefore, in virtual teams, the effect of power hierarchy is likely to be stronger than in face-to-face teams, whereas the effect of status hierarchy is likely to be weaker than in face-to-face teams.

Seventh, as mentioned in the Power vs. Status section in Chapter 2, in a team, power and status hierarchy might be aligned with each other. In other words, despite that power and status are treated as orthogonal constructs in this dissertation, there is a possibility for power-status alignment in a team. In this circumstance, powerful individuals are also of high status and powerless individuals are those of low status. Although this phenomenon is beyond the scope of this dissertation, it merits future research's attention. If the role clarity logic used in this dissertation continues to be adopted to explain the impact of power-status alignment, we might infer a positive effect of power-status alignment on team performance. This prediction echoes the finding from strategic management field, which demonstrates a positive effect of status-buyer position alignment in the market (Shen et al., 2014). Taken together, future research is encouraged to explore the alignment between power and status in a team and its impact on team functioning.

Finally, in this thesis, I exclusively focus on power and status as two fundamental and distinct hierarchical bases. However, according to context perspective of social hierarchy, there are other types of bases based on which social hierarchies can be established (Aime et al., 2014). For instance, Cheng et al.'s (2010) dominance vs. prestige framework highlights the possible existence of dominance hierarchy and prestige hierarchy. Additionally, current evidence seems to suggest a beneficial effect of prestige hierarchy but a detrimental effect of dominance hierarchy (Cheng, 2020; Maner, 2017; Maner & Case, 2016). Nevertheless, this finding should not be regarded as contrasting to the conclusion from this dissertation. This is because, as mentioned in Chapter 2, dominance and power, as well as prestige and status, are two pairs of distinct constructs. It is thus illegitimate to compare and contrast their effects. Moreover, past research examining dominance-prestige framework primarily adopts a lab experimental design. This design often diminishes the domain-free feature of status (or prestige). In this case, the findings from this literature might be restricted and thus portrays a seemingly contrasting picture from my dissertation. Taken together, although the findings from my dissertation should not be treated as conflicting with the findings from Cheng et al. (2010), future research is encouraged to explore the consequences of social hierarchies established on different hierarchical bases, such as dominance and prestige, preferably using non-lab-experimental design such as field study.

APPENDICES, TABLES AND FIGURES

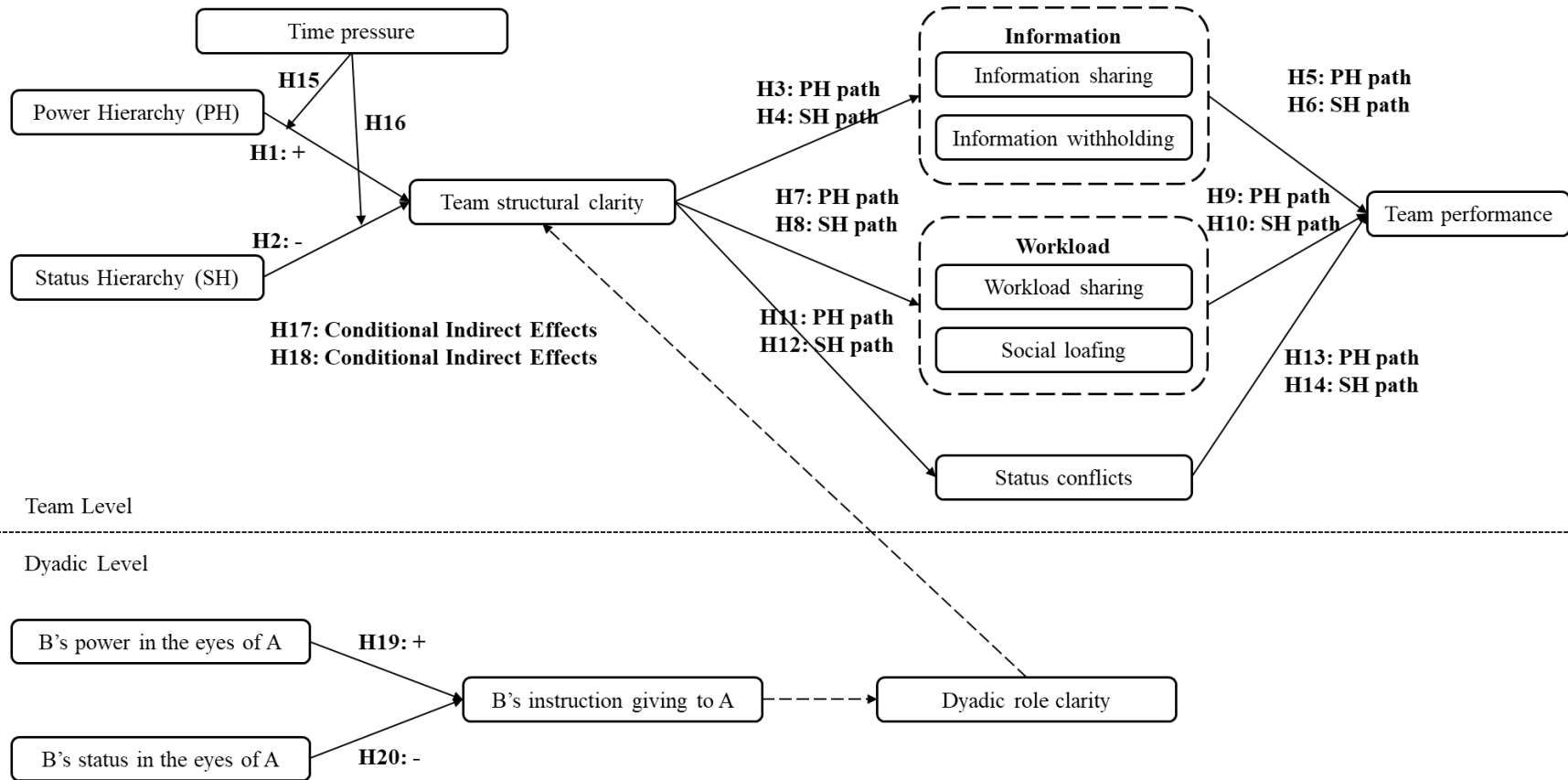


Figure 1. *The Conceptual Model*

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables at Team-level

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Team average age	35.55	5.20	—								
2. Team average education	2.59	.76	-.28**	—							
3. Team average work tenure	145.60	65.31	.90**	-.39**	—						
4. Team average org. tenure	114.10	64.69	.77**	-.17	.82**	—					
5. Team average team tenure	56.06	38.88	.53**	-.11	.46**	.51**	—				
6. Team average leader tenure	45.66	33.48	.49**	-.04	.44**	.50**	.79**	—			
7. Team size	3.92	.52	.11	-.01	.09	.09	-.02	.03	—		
8. Team average familiarity	5.77	.75	.24**	-.54**	.31**	.13	.04	-.05	-.07	—	
9. Team average power	.45	.22	.04	.12	-.03	.04	.17	.16	.02	.04	(.83)
10. Team average status	.64	.25	.09	-.13	.06	-.06	.02	-.01	-.19*	.44**	.08
11. Team power hierarchy	.98	.65	-.08	-.10	-.01	-.05	-.20*	-.19*	-.01	-.05	-.83**
12. Team status hierarchy	.54	.50	-.17	.21*	-.16	-.04	-.07	-.03	.01	-.54**	-.05
13. Team structure clarity	5.59	.75	.22*	-.33**	.26**	.10	.06	.13	-.01	.39**	-.02
14. Information sharing	5.72	.57	.16	-.29**	.15	.04	.19*	.13	-.06	.28**	-.13
15. Information withholding	2.55	1.01	-.08	.39**	-.18	-.03	-.05	.06	.08	-.26**	.40**
16. Workload sharing	5.61	.57	.08	-.49**	.15	-.02	-.07	-.13	-.06	.53**	-.18*
17. Team social loafing	3.05	.94	-.05	.31**	-.13	.01	-.02	.06	.09	-.18*	.46**
18. Status conflicts	3.47	.85	.03	.33**	-.06	.05	.00	.13	.10	-.18	.45**
19. Team performance	5.56	.64	.18*	-.60**	.25**	.04	-.02	-.11	-.10	.56**	-.16
20. Time pressure	4.79	1.32	.07	.19*	.02	.03	-.03	.01	.04	-.07	-.06

Note. $N = 122$. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The figures on the diagonal in parentheses are the alpha coefficients.

Table 1 – Cont.
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables at Team-level

Variables	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Team average age											
2. Team average education											
3. Team average work tenure											
4. Team average org. tenure											
5. Team average team tenure											
6. Team average leader tenure											
7. Team size											
8. Team average familiarity											
9. Team average power											
10. Team average status	(.90)										
11. Team power hierarchy	-.07	(.83)									
12. Team status hierarchy	-.84**	.11	(.90)								
13. Team structure clarity	.15	.09	-.26**	(.87)							
14. Information sharing	.32**	.19*	-.32**	.53**	(.94)						
15. Information withholding	-.02	-.32**	.09	-.40**	-.43**	(.98)					
16. Workload sharing	.30**	.14	-.38**	.64**	.69**	-.54**	(.92)				
17. Team social loafing	-.14	-.37**	.09	-.39**	-.50**	.82**	-.48**	(.98)			
18. Status conflicts	-.08	-.36**	.06	-.26**	-.40**	.73**	-.44**	.81**	(.85)		
19. Team performance	.30**	.12	-.37**	.59**	.55**	-.49**	.83**	-.39**	-.36**	(.93)	
20. Time pressure	.05	.05	.01	-.14	.01	.09	-.03	.17	.25**	.02	(.91)

Note. N = 122. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The figures on the diagonal in parentheses are the alpha coefficients.

Table 2
Unstandardized Coefficients of the Hypothetical Model at Team-level

Variables	<i>M1</i>		<i>M2</i>		<i>M3</i>		<i>M4</i>		<i>M5</i>	
	Team structure clarity		Information sharing		Information withholding		Team performance		Team performance	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>
Team average age	.02	.03	.01	.02	.05	.04	.00	.02	.01	.02
Team average education	-.10	.10	-.11	.07	.27*	.13	-.28**	.06	-.29**	.06
Team average work tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average organizational tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average team tenure	.00	.00	.00*	.00	-.01*	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average leader tenure	.01*	.00	.00	.00	.01*	.00	.00*	.00	.00*	.00
Team size	-.09	.13	.01	.09	.10	.15	-.08	.07	-.07	.08
Team average familiarity	.25*	.12	-.05	.08	-.01	.14	.11	.07	.09	.07
Team average power	.95	.50	-.10	.35	2.03**	.62	-.60*	.30	-.48	.32
Team average status	-.92	.48	.71*	.34	.07	.60	.05	.29	.26	.30
Team power hierarchy	.42*	.17	.14	.12	.19	.22	-.18	.10	-.13	.11
Team status hierarchy	-.53*	.26	.06	.18	-.08	.32	-.05	.15	-.04	.16
Team structure clarity			.37*	.07	-.48**	.12	.27**	.06	.34**	.06
Information sharing							.28**	.08		
Information withholding									-.07	.05

Note. $N = 122$. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The results remain stable when the control variables are excluded from the analyses.

Table 2 – Cont.
 Unstandardized Coefficients of the Hypothetical Model at Team-level

Variables	<i>M1</i>		<i>M6</i>		<i>M7</i>		<i>M8</i>		<i>M9</i>	
	Team structure clarity		Workload sharing		Team social loafing		Team performance		Team performance	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>
Team average age	.02	.03	-.01	.02	.04	.03	.01	.01	.00	.02
Team average education	-.10	.10	-.18**	.06	.19	.11	-.19**	.05	-.30**	.06
Team average work tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average organizational tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average team tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.01*	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average leader tenure	.01*	.00	.00*	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00*	.00
Team size	-.09	.13	.00	.07	-.05	.14	-.07	.06	-.08	.08
Team average familiarity	.25*	.12	.10	.07	.08	.13	.03	.06	.10	.07
Team average power	.95	.50	-.76**	.28	2.64**	.56	-.13	.26	-.62	.34
Team average status	-.92	.48	.28	.27	-1.74**	.54	.07	.24	.25	.31
Team power hierarchy	.42*	.17	-.17	.10	.32	.19	-.03	.09	-.14	.11
Team status hierarchy	-.53*	.26	-.03	.14	-.78*	.29	-.01	.13	-.03	.17
Team structure clarity			.42**	.05	-.53**	.11	.10	.06	.37**	.07
Workload sharing							.64**	.09		
Team social loafing									.00	.05

Note. $N = 122$. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The results remain stable when the control variables are excluded from the analyses.

Table 2 – Cont.
Unstandardized Coefficients of the Hypothetical Model at Team-level

Variables	<i>M1</i>		<i>M10</i>		<i>M11</i>	
	Team structure clarity		Status conflicts		Team performance	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>
Team average age	.02	.03	.05	.03	.00	.02
Team average education	-.10	.10	.25*	.11	-.30**	.07
Team average work tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average organizational tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Team average team tenure	.00	.00	-.01**	.00	.00	.00
Team average leader tenure	.01*	.00	.01**	.00	.00*	.00
Team size	-.09	.13	.01	.13	-.08	.08
Team average familiarity	.25*	.12	.03	.12	.10	.07
Team average power	.95	.50	2.21**	.53	-.61	.34
Team average status	-.92	.48	-.99	.51	.25	.31
Team power hierarchy	.42*	.17	.25	.18	-.14	.11
Team status hierarchy	-.53*	.26	-.48	.27	-.03	.16
Team structure clarity			-.32**	.10	.37**	.06
Status conflicts					.00	.06

*Note. N = 122. * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01.*

The results remain stable when the control variables are excluded from the analyses.

Table 3
Unstandardized Coefficients of the Hypothetical Moderating Effects at Team-level

Variables	<i>M12</i>	
	Team structure clarity	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>
Team average age	.02	.03
Team average education	-.07	.10
Team average work tenure	.00	.00
Team average organizational tenure	.00	.00
Team average team tenure	-.01*	.00
Team average leader tenure	.01*	.00
Team size	-.11	.12
Team average familiarity	.23*	.11
Team average power	1.01*	.50
Team average status	-.92	.48
Team power hierarchy (PH)	-.22	.35
Team status hierarchy (SH)	-.37	.61
Time pressure (TP)	-.18*	.09
PH*TP	.14*	.07
SH*TP	-.05	.11
Team structure clarity		
Information sharing		
Information withholding		
Workload sharing		
Team social loafing		
Status conflicts		

Note. $N = 122$. PH = Team power hierarchy; SH = Team status hierarchy; TP = Time pressure. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.
The results remain stable when the control variables are excluded from the analyses.

Table 4
Summary of Hypothesized Indirect Effects at Team-level

Indirect Effects	Estimate	LLCI	UCLI
<i>Mediations</i>			
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing	.16	.025	.335
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing	-.20	-.397	-.043
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding	-.20	-.431	-.028
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding	.25	.039	.558
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing	.17	.027	.353
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing	-.22	-.434	-.041
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing	-.22	-.486	-.032
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing	.28	.051	.608
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts	-.13	-.295	-.016
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts	.17	.022	.399
<i>Serial Mediations</i>			
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing → Team performance	.04	.003	.116
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing → Team performance	-.06	-.143	-.004
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding → Team performance	.01	-.007	.06
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding → Team performance	-.02	-.086	.009
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing → Team performance	.11	.019	.247
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing → Team performance	-.14	-.296	-.026
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing → Team performance	.00	-.030	.035
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing → Team performance	-.00	-.049	.034
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts → Team performance	.00	-.020	.020
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts → Team performance	-.00	-.030	.023

Note. $N = 122$. *LLCI* = lower level of the 95% confidence interval; *UCLI* = upper level of the 95% confidence interval.

Table 5
Summary of Hypothesized Conditional Indirect Effects at Team-level

Indirect Effects	Estimate	LLCI	UCLI
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing → Team performance			
High time pressure	.06	.003	.143
Low time pressure	.02	-.014	.084
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information sharing → Team performance			
High time pressure	-.05	-.145	-.002
Low time pressure	-.05	-.134	.018
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding → Team performance			
High time pressure	.02	-.005	.079
Low time pressure	.01	-.008	.035
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Information withholding → Team performance			
High time pressure	-.02	-.069	.007
Low time pressure	-.02	-.072	.009
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing → Team performance			
High time pressure	.17	.058	.332
Low time pressure	.07	-.042	.213
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Workload sharing → Team performance			
High time pressure	-.14	-.319	-.017
Low time pressure	-.13	-.303	.044
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing → Team performance			
High time pressure	.00	-.029	.053
Low time pressure	.00	-.016	.024
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Team social loafing → Team performance			
High time pressure	-.01	-.050	.026
Low time pressure	-.01	-.055	.022
Power hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts → Team performance			
High time pressure	.01	-.015	.038
Low time pressure	.00	-.008	.017
Status hierarchy → Team structure clarity → Status conflicts → Team performance			
High time pressure	-.01	-.037	.013
Low time pressure	-.01	-.038	.011

Note. $N = 122$. LLCI = lower level of the 95% confidence interval; UCLI = upper level of the 95% confidence interval.

Table 6
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables at Dyadic-level

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. B's influence in the eyes of A	5.18	1.10	(.85)			
2. B's power in the eyes of A	4.05	1.54	.18**	(.83)		
3. B's status in the eyes of A	5.74	.95	.30**	.20**	(.90)	
4. B's instruction giving to A	5.40	1.24	.47**	.46**	.14**	—

Note. $N = 122$. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The figures on the diagonal in parentheses are the alpha coefficients.

Table 7
Summary of Variance Partitioning Results

Source of variance	<i>Dyadic power</i>		<i>Dyadic status</i>		<i>Dyadic influence</i>		<i>Instruction giving</i>	
	<i>Est.</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Est.</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Est.</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Est.</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Team variance	.06 (2.4%)	.369	.09 (10.0%)	< .001	.12 (9.9%)	< .001	.05 (1.7%)	—
Perceiver (Actor) variance	.50 (20.7%)	< .001	.28 (30.0%)	< .001	.33 (27.6%)	< .001	.69 (21.9%)	< .001
Target variance	.69 (28.6%)	< .001	.03 (3.1%)	.016	.07 (5.5%)	< .001	.99 (31.3%)	< .001
Dyadic variance	1.17 (48.3%)	< .001	.52 (56.8%)	< .001	.68 (56.9%)	< .001	1.43 (45.1%)	< .001

Note. $N = 478$ individuals in 1428 dyads from 122 teams. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 8
Unstandardized Coefficients of the Hypothetical Moderating Effects at Dyadic-level

Variables	<i>B's instruction to A</i>	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>p-value</i>
B's influence in the eyes of A	.61	< .001
B's power in the eyes of A	.39	< .001
B's status in the eyes of A	-.17	< .001

Note. $N = 478$ individuals in 1428 dyads from 122 teams. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

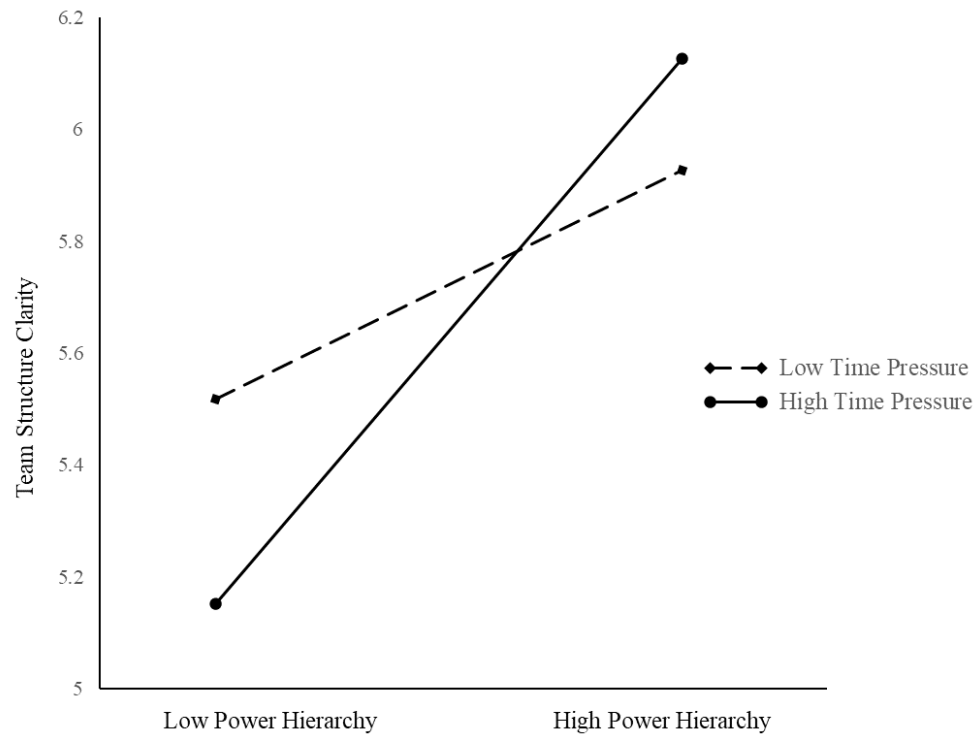


Figure 2. *Interaction Effect Between Power Hierarchy and Time Pressure on Team Structure Clarity*

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