

All employees are equal, but some are more equal than others

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All employees are equal, but some are more equal than others:

Dominance, agreeableness and status inconsistency among men and women

Abstract

Status inconsistency is a situation in which there is an objective or subjective mismatch between, for example, a person's education and his/her income. This mismatch may translate into status enhancement, wherein rewards exceed one's human capital, or into status detraction, wherein one's human capital exceeds one's rewards. Although status inconsistency affects employees' attitudes and behaviors, little is known about individual differences in this variable. The current study investigates whether the relationships of agreeableness and dominance—with objective and subjective status inconsistency vary by gender. We sampled 375 employees and found that agreeable men, but not dominant women, experience a backlash effect for expressing gender-non-congruent traits. In addition, our results show that agreeable employees perceive themselves as status-enhanced when in fact they are not. Finally, we show that objective status inconsistency mediates the relationships of agreeableness and dominance with subjective status inconsistency.

Keywords: Agreeableness, Dominance, Gender, Status inconsistency.

Introduction

Social status refers to a person's relative position along socially-valued dimensions such as professional expertise, educational accomplishment, job rank, and income level. (Huberman, Loch, & Öncüler, 2004; Lenski, 1954; Merton, 1967). Magee and Galinsky (2008) suggested that status is self-reinforcing: it “generates expectations for behavior and opportunities for advancement that favor those with a prior status advantage” (p. 351). In this respect, notions of social exchange and reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) suggest that the rewards that an employee receives—such as job rank and income level—should correspond to that employee's human capital (i.e., what he or she brings to the organization), which includes, for example, education, experience and performance. Consistent with prior research (e.g., Bacharach, Bamberger, & Mundell, 1993), we refer to the employee's human capital as *input statuses* and to the rewards he or she receives as *return statuses*.

Past research suggests that employees highly value and actively seek balanced or consistent employment relationships that follow equitable input-return equations (e.g., de Boer, Bakker, Syroit, & Schaufeli, 2002; Geurts, Schaufeli, & Rutte, 1999). Similarly, the effort-reward imbalance perspective (Siegrist, 1996) suggests that the employment relationship is based on a balance between perceived effort (input statuses) and rewards (return statuses). In some cases, however, an individual's ranking on a given input status might be higher or lower than the same individual's ranking on a particular return status. This situation is known as *status inconsistency* (Blocker & Riedesel, 1978; Lenski, 1954). Status inconsistency may occur in two scenarios: (a) *status detracting*, wherein input statuses are higher than return statuses (e.g., an engineer working as a technician), and (b) *status enhancement*, wherein employees' return statuses are higher than their input statuses (e.g., a CEO with only a high school diploma). Furthermore, the concept of status inconsistency may refer to objective situations as well as to subjective perceptions.

Objective status inconsistency can be identified by referring to the organization's reward allocation system, that is, by comparing a given employee's return statuses (e.g., income and job rank) against those of other employees with similar input statuses (e.g., education, performance). More specifically, many employers assign return statuses (e.g., income and job rank) to their employees on the basis of a classification of 'job foci', referring to line-of-work or job ladder-type structures. These job foci are distributed into grade levels, and a sequence of wage scales is assigned to each focus (e.g., Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). Herein, we measure objective status inconsistency on the basis of the quantifiable imbalance between employees' return statuses as reflected in wage scales (i.e., job rank related income) and employees' input statuses as reflected in their education, past performance and experience.

Subjective, or perceived, status inconsistency is based on implicit allocation norms: Employees form subjective evaluations regarding their input statuses and expectations regarding the return statuses they deserve. Employees base these evaluations and expectations on their perceptions of the effort-reward relationships in their respective organizations (Bacharach et al., 1993; Gould, 2002; Siegrist, 1996). We therefore refer to subjective status inconsistency as the perceived (as opposed to objective) imbalance between one's return statuses (job rank and income) and one's input statuses (education, past performance and experiences).

The negative effects of objective and subjective status deduction are known and include heightened levels of stress (Bacharach et al., 1993), absenteeism (Biron & de Reuver, 2012) and turnover (Creed & Saporta, 2004). The effects of status enhancement have also been studied, albeit to a lesser extent, with some evidence suggesting that status enhancement is expected to push individuals to work hard and diligently (e.g., Wisman, 2009). Yet, very little is known about individual differences in objective and subjective status inconsistency (e.g., Bacharach et al., 1993). In the current study we focus on individual differences in both

objective and subjective, detraction and enhancement. We attempt to identify employees who are more likely to experience objective status inconsistency, and employees who are more likely to develop perceptions of status inconsistency, by taking into consideration stable individual differences: we investigate how personality traits (agreeableness and dominance) and gender combine to influence objective and subjective status inconsistency of both types (detraction and enhancement).

The decision to focus on the interplay between gender and personality traits is based on shifts in the workforce. Women are increasingly likely to work in traditionally masculine jobs, and men are gravitating more towards feminine jobs (e.g., Cross & Bagilhole, 2002; McDonald, 2013), a shift that echoes post-feminist views. These views are generally constructed on paradigms of personal choice or individual equality, which construe gender diversity not merely as a means to certain ends but also as an end in itself. However, to understand the effects of gender-based workforce diversity, it is important to understand whether gender interacts with other relevant types of diversity (e.g., personality). Thus, in the present study we fill this gap in the literature by focusing on the distinct and joint effects of gender and personality on objective and perceived status inconsistency.

More specifically, we know that different personality traits are differently associated with the likelihood of striving for, and actually obtaining, desired objective outcomes (e.g., Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996; Moberg, 1998). We also know that men and women differ in objective organizational compensation (e.g., Hausmann, Tyson, & Zahidi, 2010). Extending this knowledge, and building on Judge Livingston, and Hurst (2012), we (1) argue that both objective and subjective status inconsistency are associated with gender and personality; (2) draw from socially prevalent beliefs regarding associations between gender and specific personality traits (dominance and agreeableness) to propose that a mismatch between gender and personality may have an impact on both objective and subjective status inconsistency. This impact is due to a backlash effect, i.e., social and

economic sanctions for behavior that counters gender stereotypes (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004); and (3) we acknowledge that personality has an effect on both external and internal factors, and thus argue that objective status inconsistency may serve as a mediator in the relationship between personality and subjective status inconsistency. Figure 1 graphically illustrates the proposed research model.

--- INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE ---

Agreeableness, Dominance, and Status Inconsistency

Personality traits and *objective* status inconsistency. Increasing attention has been given in recent years to the role of personality in the extent to which an individual gains rewards in the workplace. As part of this effort, studies have examined the role of agreeableness and dominance (or assertiveness, a sub-construct of extraversion) as key determinants of self-reported wage discrepancies (e.g., Heineck, 2011; Judge et al., 2012; McCrae & Costa, 1996; Mueller & Plug, 2006; Nyhus & Pons, 2005). Further refining the knowledge contributed by this body of research, we consider inconsistency between objective input and return statuses as the outcome variable, instead of focusing solely on objective return statuses such as wage discrepancies.

Agreeable individuals tend to be cooperative, sympathetic and trusting (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992), and they are often motivated to maintain positive relationships with others. Such general likability is often recognized and appreciated by others (e.g., Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002; Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001; Liao & Chuang, 2004). However, this recognition is not necessarily reflected in higher income for the agreeable individual. Indeed, four studies have shown that agreeable employees are more likely to be found in low-wage positions, as well as to report lower income levels (Heineck, 2011; Judge et al., 2012; Mueller & Plug, 2006; Nyhus & Pons, 2005). Two mechanisms may account for this (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2008; Judge et al., 2012). First, agreeable employees are less likely to proactively voice (negotiate) wage-related

concerns. Second, agreeable individuals are more willing to settle for less favorable occupational outcomes. Thus, as Heineck (2011, p. 1032) describes it: "being nice seems not to pay".

In contrast, dominance, which is comparable to the assertiveness component of the extraversion dimension of the Big Five (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and to the agency component of Depue and Collins (1999), is positively correlated with status striving, competitiveness, and a desire for rewards (Barrick et al., 2002). In particular, dominant employees have high aspirations and are highly susceptible to the influence of rewards (Stewart, 1996). Such individuals have three factors in their favor when bargaining for better income and career conditions: (1) high motivation derived from status striving; (2) high levels of self-confidence, aggressiveness, talkativeness, and enthusiasm, all of which help them 'sell themselves' to potential employers (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Locke, 1991); and (3) high likelihood of using behaviors of manipulation, coercion and networking to get ahead (e.g., Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010; Humphrey, 1985; Rosenblatt, 2012). Drawing from the evidence above, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Agreeableness is positively associated with objective status detracting.

Hypothesis 1b: Dominance is positively associated with objective status enhancement.

Personality traits and subjective status inconsistency. Perceptions of input and return statuses may not always reflect objective input and return statuses, leading to differences between objective and subjective status inconsistencies. Therefore, employees who are objectively status-detracted or status-enhanced might actually perceive themselves as having the opposite input-return ratio. As agreeable employees often act with a view toward sustaining harmonious work relations (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001), when facing an imbalance between inputs and returns, they are likely to be motivated to resolve the resulting cognitive dissonance by reframing either inputs or returns (e.g., Lazarus, 1991). In other words, agreeable employees may downwardly estimate their inputs

or upwardly estimate their returns. Moreover, their general trust in others results in humility and gratitude (Breen, Kashdan, Lenser, & Fincham, 2010; Van de Vliert & Euwema, 1994), such that they may feel grateful and indebted to their employers for any rewards they receive.

Similar to agreeable employees, dominant employees may also inflate their returns, but due to different reasons. Unlike agreeable employees, who are characterized by modesty, dominant employees often expect to receive high return statuses, owing to their high self-confidence, self-efficacy and status striving (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1992) as well as their high aspirations (Stewart, 1996). Dominant individuals also tend to look for stereotype-confirming information that will comply with their self-image of having a dominant personality (e.g., Fiske, 1993), and may thus inflate their returns. Therefore, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 2a: Agreeableness is positively associated with subjective status enhancement.

Hypothesis 2b: Dominance is positively associated with subjective status enhancement.

Objective status inconsistency as a mediator of the relationship between personality and subjective status inconsistency. As discussed above, personality traits are expected to influence both the extent to which an employee undergoes objective status inconsistency and the employee's perceptions of that inconsistency. However, the latter perceptions are not formed in a vacuum: People have only general estimates of the degree to which their human capital is rewarded, and thus search for cues that help them structure such information. As objective inputs and returns are often explicit (employees are aware of their education and rank related income), employees are likely to use such objective information when inferring input-return (in)consistency. Thus, we hypothesize that objective status inconsistency mediates the relationship between personality and perceived status inconsistency. At the same time, as suggested by the theory of affective information processing (Le Doux, 1996), only some of the information available in one's psychosocial

environment undergoes conscious processing (Siegrist et al., 2004). Thus the mediation effect of objective status inconsistency is expected to be only partial. Accordingly, we propose:

Hypothesis 3: Objective status inconsistency partially mediates the associations of (a) agreeableness and (b) dominance with subjective status inconsistency.

Main and Moderating Effects of Gender

Gender and objective status inconsistency. Since the 1980s, media coverage and public debate about gender-related inequalities at work have gained momentum, and public awareness of women's subordinate position has increased, together with efforts to improve the situation (e.g., Heery, 2006). However, and despite affirmative action and other attempts to equalize salaries and other employment conditions, statistics indicate that gender inequalities are still highly prevalent. In 2012 the mean income per capita in the US was 35% greater among men than among women (US Census Bureau, 2013), and in the Netherlands, where the current study took place, the corresponding income gap was 17% (OECD, 2013). Notably, studies have shown that wage disparities between the genders continue to persist for men and women with similar education, experiences and performance profiles (e.g., Jagsi et al., 2012; Kirchmeyer, 2002). In line with this body of literature, we propose that women's position on a wage scale (objective return status) is not commensurate with their objective inputs:

Hypothesis 4: Gender is associated with objective status inconsistency, such that women are likely to undergo objective status detracting, while men are likely to undergo objective status enhancement.

Gender and subjective status inconsistency. The association between gender and subjective status inconsistency is less clear than the association between gender and objective status inconsistency. On the one hand, status beliefs about women and men—i.e., shared cultural schemas about status that reflect and are legitimized by beliefs about men's and women's competence-related attributes (e.g., Ridgeway, 2001; Berger & Zelditch, 1985)—

are quite prevalent. In general, women are often socially perceived as less competent than men, and thus as deserving of lower compensation (Balkwell & Berger, 1996; Eckes, 1994). These gender-related beliefs are extremely powerful, persistent, and easily activated (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ridgeway, 2001), and may lead women to experience status enhancement (i.e., think that they are being rewarded more than they deserve). On the other hand, studies have shown that women are aware of income inequalities, even if they are sometimes hesitant to speak openly and to claim adequate returns by making their employers aware of gender discrimination (e.g., Jordan, Pate, & Clark, 2006; Leslie & Gelfand, 2008). In this case, women may perceive themselves as status-detracted. Therefore, we may expect women to experience either form of subjective status inconsistency. In a similar manner, men may be as likely to perceive status detraction as they are to perceive status enhancement. More specifically, men earn more than women and enjoy more benefits (high job rank, etc.) and might consequently perceive themselves as status-enhanced; conversely, men might rationalize these return statuses by deflating the value associated with such rewards (leading to status detraction) or perceive them as commensurate with their input statuses (reflecting status consistency). The direction of influence is unclear, and we therefore do not put forward a hypothesis regarding gender and perceived status inconsistency. In what follows, we argue that consideration of individual personality traits can enable us to draw clearer expectations regarding each gender's perceptions of status inconsistency, as well as to provide a more nuanced view of the circumstances under which each gender is subjected to objective status inconsistency.

Gender, personality and objective status inconsistency. Social role theory has proposed explanations for the disparities between men and women (Kark & Eagly, 2010; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Specifically, society perceives women as agreeable, caring and self-effacing, but not highly agentic, whereas it expects men to be dominant, agentic and self-assertive, but not communally oriented (e.g., Kark & Eagly, 2010; Prentice & Carranza,

2002). These gender-stereotypical expectations produce social and economic reprisals, or "backlash effects" (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004), toward men and women who show deviant (counter-stereotypical) behavior (e.g., Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts, 2012), namely, who express gender-non-congruent personality traits. Thus, dominant women are often subject to gender-role constraints and penalties, which may negatively influence the compensation they receive in the workplace (Ritter & Yoder, 2004, Amanatullah & Tinsley, 2013). Several studies confirm that, compared with dominant men, dominant women are more likely to be passed over for high-paying and high-status positions (e.g., Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004) and to be paid lower salaries (e.g., Mueller & Plug, 2006). We therefore propose:

Hypothesis 5a: Gender moderates the association between dominance and objective status inconsistency, such that dominance will be associated with objective status enhancement among men, and with objective status detraction among women.

Next, we argue that both agreeable men and agreeable women are likely to undergo objective status detraction (pertaining to no moderation effect of gender), albeit for different reasons. First, as observed by Judge et al. (2012), agreeable men are expected to undergo objective status detraction because of backlash effects; the possession of feminine rather than masculine attributes (e.g., niceness; modesty) may put them in a disadvantaged position, for example, when negotiating rewards or future career steps (e.g., Heilman & Wallen, 2010; Judge et al., 2012). Second, agreeable women, despite being socially evaluated more positively than dominant women in many cases (Carli & Bukatko, 2000; Rudman & Fairchild, 2004), often find it difficult to successfully negotiate higher income (e.g., Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Nieva & Gutek, 1981) and, as presented above, are more likely to undergo objective status detraction due to both their gender and personality. We therefore do not expect to find a moderation effect of gender on the agreeableness-objective status inconsistency relationship.

Gender, personality and subjective status inconsistency. As described above, women, and especially agreeable women, are expected to be objectively status-detracted. This may create a cognitive dissonance that these women may resolve by either changing their behavior (i.e., lower their input statuses, which is expected to be less likely among agreeable women) or changing their perceptions of return status allocation. For example, agreeable women may change their perception regarding their job rank, and attribute their lower job rank to factors associated with their non-work obligations, rather than to a deliberate act by the organization, which would signal a poor exchange relationship. Agreeable women are also more likely to adhere to gender-related beliefs regarding return status allocation (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ridgeway, 2001). Moreover, women are more likely than men to blame themselves for failures (i.e., engage in self-effacing bias when making attributions; McHugh, Frieze, & Hanusa, 1982). Changing their perceptions might thus help women resolve any cognitive dissonance, without the fear of triggering undesirable responses on the part of the organization, and while maintaining a cooperative, supportive approach in their relationships with supervisors and coworkers. For agreeable men, it is difficult to predict how gender and agreeableness will combine to affect perceptions of status inconsistency. As argued above, men have a greater likelihood than women to be objectively status-enhanced (Hypothesis 4), whereas agreeable employees have a greater likelihood than non-agreeable employees to be objectively status-detracted (Hypothesis 1a). Thus, agreeable men will probably experience less cognitive dissonance compared with agreeable women. We therefore propose:

Hypothesis 5b: Gender moderates the positive association between agreeableness and subjective status enhancement, such that the association between agreeableness and subjective status enhancement will be stronger among women, compared to men.

In contrast to agreeable women, dominant women seek advancement and other high, clearly recognizable rewards (Barrick et al., 2002). This puts them in an awkward position:

The assertiveness and self-confidence of dominant women, which would mark a comparably qualified man as competent for high-status positions, instead become the reason these women fail to attain the social status that—like dominant men—they strongly desire (Barrick et al., 2002; Heilman et al., 2004). Because dominant women fight against gender-stereotypical norms, it becomes increasingly difficult for them to obtain the same rewards for their contributions that their male counterparts receive (e.g., Heilman et al., 2004). This situation of relative deprivation is likely to raise dominant women's cognitive awareness of their input-return imbalance, whereas among dominant men these discrepancies are not expected. Thus, we propose:

Hypothesis 5c: Gender moderates the association between dominance and subjective status inconsistency, such that among women, dominance will be associated with subjective status detracting, while among men, dominance will be associated with subjective status enhancement.

Finally, we examine a moderated mediation hypothesis, focusing on the potential effect of gender on the indirect association between personality and subjective status inconsistency via objective status inconsistency. In particular, we propose that, for at least three reasons, agreeable women's subjective status inconsistency is more directly a function of their personality traits (independent of objective status inconsistency) than are men's or dominant women's perceptions of status inconsistency.

First, agreeable women may be less strongly affected by factual information, whereas men and dominant women are more likely to actively search for and take account of information that provides more accurate and complete knowledge when handling various work-related situations. For example, Tannen (1990) argued that men tend to use a "report style," aiming to communicate factual information, whereas women more often use a "rapport style," which is more concerned with building and maintaining relationships (and thus more likely to characterize agreeable women). Second, women, and particularly agreeable women,

may have less access to status-related information. Benschop (2009), suggesting that networking and gendering are intertwined, found that, compared with women, men dedicate more resources to networking to increase their access to formal and informal information. Third, in general, men and women differ in their attitudes toward and appreciation of monetary rewards, suggesting that such rewards may be less noticeable in agreeable women's cognitive processing. For example, compared with men, women have been found to be less concerned about managing their financial situations and are generally less preoccupied with money (e.g., Jackson, 1989; Kaman & Hartel, 1994). Accordingly, we propose that agreeable women are less likely to interpret and respond to objective status inconsistency, and therefore we expect to find the mediation effect mainly among men and among dominant women:

Hypothesis 6: Gender moderates the mediation of objective status inconsistency such that the indirect associations of (a) agreeableness and (b) dominance with perceived status inconsistency by way of objective status inconsistency are less likely to be observed among agreeable women than among men or among dominant women.

Methods

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from employees in one of the three head offices of a large multinational electronics company based in the Netherlands. All employees with fixed contracts ($n = 1,390$), were asked to complete a web-based survey, with confidentiality guaranteed by the researchers. Among these employees, 375 agreed to participate and completed the survey (a response rate of 27%). Respondents were informed in general terms that the goal of the study was to examine diverse issues in the workplace, such as job-related behaviors and attitudes. To assess the risk of sample bias, we used a t -test to compare the 375 employees in the sample with the entire workforce of the firm along demographic variables. The results indicated no significant differences between the sample and the population (age ($t = 0.20$, n.s.), gender ($t = 0.50$, n.s.), education ($t = 0.25$, n.s.), tenure ($t = 0.96$, n.s.), and

part/full-time contract ($t = 0.66$, n.s.)). Table 1 presents a demographic breakdown of the analyzed sample ($n = 355$, due to list-wise deletion of observations).

Measures

Dominance and agreeableness. These personality traits were measured on the basis of the HEXACO-60 (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Dominance was measured using five items from the HEXACO-60 Extraversion scale, and agreeableness was measured using ten items from the HEXACO-60 Agreeableness scale. The former is in line with prior research (see Watson & Clark, 1997) that suggests that the broad, higher-order trait of extraversion can be decomposed into several distinct traits, including dominance. A sample item from the dominance scale: ‘When I’m in a group of people, I’m often the one who speaks on behalf of the group’. A sample item from the agreeableness scale: ‘Some people say that they have never seen me angry’. Participants responded to each item by ranking a 5-point Likert scale (1=‘strongly disagree’, 5=‘strongly agree’). Cronbach’s coefficients for the dominance and agreeableness scales were .79 and .76, respectively.

Objective status inconsistency was assessed on the basis of employees’ wage scales, an indicator of the return statuses income and job rank. Wage scale is frequently reported as the most important component of reward (e.g., Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005) and which can be objectively measured. Specifically, using archival income data, we calculated difference scores between the wage scale and the input status scores (tenure, education, performance) by regressing the income scores on the respective tenure, education and performance scores (based on employee appraisal data gathered from the organizations’ files) and saving the standardized residual scores (Williams, Zimmerman, & Mazzagatti, 1987). The standardized residual scores, representing objective status inconsistency, were included in our multivariate analyses. Positive scores indicated objective status enhancement, negative scores indicated objective status detracting, and zero indicated status consistency.

Subjective status inconsistency, similarly to objective status inconsistency, was assessed on the basis of two return statuses, namely, income and job rank and three input statuses, namely education, career experience, and performance . Employees were asked to rank each return status in comparison to three input statuses, for a total of 6 items: ‘Compared to my [*education level*] / [*career experience*] / [*performance level*], I judge my [*income*] / [*job rank*] as...’ Respondents ranked each return status on a 5-point scale, ranging from -2 (‘lower’), through 0 (‘equal’), to 2 (‘higher’). We used these values [(-2)–2], instead of the more frequently used values (1–5), to facilitate the interpretation of the subjective status inconsistency scores. The negative values [(-2), (-1)] indicate status detracting, the positive values (1, 2) indicate status enhancement, and zero pertains to status consistency. Cronbach's coefficient for the scale was 0.86. This operationalization of status inconsistency is in line with prior research (e.g., Bacharach et al., 1993; Biron & de Reuver, 2012; Blocker & Riedesel, 1978) suggesting that a continuous operationalization better captures the nature of status inconsistency than a dichotomic operationalization.

Gender. Respondents were asked to indicate their gender (0 = male; 1 = female).

Control variables. In order to rule out any spurious relations, we controlled for age, education, tenure (in years) and type of contract (full-time or part-time employee). We also controlled for the personality traits of agreeableness or dominance (in those analyses in which they were not independent variables) and neuroticism. Neuroticism is associated with substantial gender effects, such that women are more neurotic compared to men (e.g., Vianello, Schnabel, Sriram, & Nosek, 2013). Furthermore, fairness perceptions have been shown to be negatively associated with neuroticism, and positively associated with dominance and agreeableness (e.g., Nudelman, 2013). Neuroticism was measured using ten items from the HEXACO-60 emotionality scale (Cronbach's coefficient 0.75). A sample item from this scale: ‘I worry a lot less than most people do’ (reversed).

Statistical Analysis

We tested our study hypotheses in three steps. First, we examined the main effects of agreeableness, dominance and gender on both objective and subjective status inconsistency (Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, 4), using a simple stepwise regression. Second, to investigate the indirect (mediation) effect (Hypothesis 3), we applied the procedure suggested by MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007), using the bootstrapping method (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) with an SPSS application (PROCESS, Model 4) provided by Preacher and Hayes (2004). Next, we tested whether gender interacts with agreeableness and dominance in predicting objective and subjective status inconsistency (Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c), by entering the interaction terms of gender and agreeableness, and of gender and dominance, after centering the values of these terms as recommended by Aiken and West (1991). Finally, to test the moderated mediation effects (Hypothesis 6), we followed the procedure described by Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005), testing the possibility that the mediation effect is gender-contingent. We used PROCESS, Model 8, provided by Preacher and Hayes (2004). This application provides a method for probing the significance of conditional indirect effects at different values of the moderator (i.e., gender). Finally, to better capture the interaction effects, we conducted simple slope analyses using high and low scores of agreeableness and dominance based on +1 and -1 standard deviations from the mean.

Results

Means, standard deviations, frequencies and correlations among the variables are displayed in Table 1. As objective and subjective status inconsistency range from negative scores (pertaining to status detraction) to positive scores (pertaining to status enhancement), positive correlations suggest that a variable is associated with a tendency towards status enhancement, whereas negative correlations suggest that a variable is associated with a tendency towards status detraction. The bivariate results show that dominance and agreeableness are associated with objective status inconsistency but not with subjective status inconsistency. Dominance was found to be associated with objective status enhancement

($r = 0.25, p < .01$), whereas agreeableness was found to be associated with objective status detractor ($r = -0.17, p < .01$). Table 1 also indicates that, as expected, women are more likely to undergo objective and subjective status detractor ($r = -0.31$ and $r = -0.26, p < .01$, respectively).

--- INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE ---

The results of our multivariate analyses testing the study hypotheses are presented in Tables 2 and 3. For simplicity and clarity we present the results for agreeableness (Table 2) and dominance (Table 3) separately. In each analysis we controlled for the possible confounding effects of either dominance or agreeableness in addition to age, gender, tenure, fulltime employment, education and neuroticism. Due to the high correlation between age and tenure we repeated the analysis with either age or tenure, as well as with both age and tenure, but the results remained consistent.

--- INSERT TABLES 2 & 3 ABOUT HERE ---

Main Effects

Supporting Hypotheses 1a and 1b, agreeableness was associated with objective status detractor (Table 2, Model 1, $B = -0.20, s.e. = 0.10, p < .05$), whereas dominance was associated with objective status enhancement (Table 3, Model 1, $B = 0.32, s.e. = 0.08, p < .01$). In line with Hypothesis 2a, agreeableness was found to be associated with subjective status enhancement (Table 2, Model 2, $B = 0.15, s.e. = 0.07, p < .05$). Hypothesis 2b was not supported, as we did not find a significant association between dominance and subjective status enhancement (Table 3, Model 2, $B = -0.06, s.e. = 0.06, n.s.$).

In line with Hypothesis 4, compared with men, women underwent objective status detractor to a greater extent (Table 2, model 1, $B = -0.64, s.e.=0.12, p < .01$; Table 3, model 1, $B = -0.66, s.e.=0.12, p < .01$).

Mediation Effects

Following procedures discussed by MacKinnon and colleagues (2007), and in accordance with Hypothesis 3, we confirmed that objective status inconsistency mediated the associations of both agreeableness and dominance with perceived status inconsistency. As Tables 2 and 3 suggest (see the lower parts of the tables), respectively, that the bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (CI) around the unstandardized indirect effects of agreeableness (Table 2, -0.09, -0.01) and dominance (Table 3, 0.04, 0.11) did not include zero, thus supporting the mediation effect.

Moderation Effects –Objective Status Inconsistency

We expected gender to moderate the associations between dominance and objective status inconsistency (Hypothesis 5a), but a moderation analysis did not provide support for this hypothesis (Table 3, Model 1, $B = 0.06$, $s.e. = 0.16$, $n.s.$). However, to better understand where men and women are positioned on the objective status inconsistency continuum, we conducted simple slope analyses for high (+1 s.d.) versus low (-1 s.d.) dominance and agreeableness (Figures 2 & 3). In both figures, we found partial support for hypothesis 5a such that non-congruency between gender and personality lead to backlash effects among men: Dominant men are status enhanced, while non-dominant men experience objective status consistency ($B = 0.22$, $s.e. = 0.01$, $t = 3.14$, $p < .01$). In a similar manner, non-agreeable men are objectively status-enhanced, while agreeable men do not enjoy this enhancement and experience objective status consistency ($B = -0.15$, $s.e. = 0.01$, $t = -2.14$, $p < 0.05$).

Figures 2 & 3 also indicate that all women are objectively status-detracted to some degree (supporting hypothesis 4). Specifically, as shown in figure 3, both agreeable and non-agreeable women experience similar levels of status detraction (the slope is not significant; $B = -0.05$, $s.e. = 0.01$, $t = -0.71$, $n.s.$). Interestingly, as shown in figure 2, dominant and non-dominant women differ on their levels of status detraction, but the effect does not resonate with hypothesis 5a: Dominant women experience less status detraction compared to non-

dominant women, indicating that they are not 'penalized' for their personality ($B = 0.26$, $s.e. = 0.01$, $t = 3.71$, $p < .01$).

Moderation Effects –Subjective Status Inconsistency

We expected gender to moderate the associations between personality and subjective status inconsistency (Hypotheses 5b & 5c). Indeed, both hypotheses were supported: gender moderated the association between agreeableness and subjective status inconsistency (Table 2, Model 2, $B = 0.41$, $s.e. = 0.14$, $p < .01$) and moderated the association between dominance and subjective status inconsistency (Table 3, Model 2, $B = -0.29$, $s.e. = 0.11$, $p < .01$). To further explore these interaction effects, and to better understand where men and women are positioned on the subjective status inconsistency continuum, we conducted simple slopes analyses for high (+1 s.d.) versus low (-1 s.d.) levels of dominance and agreeableness (Figures 4 & 5).

Consistent with Hypothesis 5b, the positive association between agreeableness and subjective status enhancement was significant among women (Table 2, $B = 0.42$, $s.e. = 0.12$, $t = 3.658$, $p < .01$) and insignificant among men (Table 2, $B = 0.01$, $s.e. = 0.089$, $t = 0.18$, n.s.). Furthermore, figure 4 indicates that all men perceive themselves as status-enhanced (i.e., above zero), whereas among women, agreeable women perceive themselves as status-enhanced, while non-agreeable women perceive themselves as status consistent.

Consistent with Hypothesis 5c, the association between dominance and subjective status detraction was significant among women (Table 3, $B = -0.26$, $s.e. = 0.09$, $t = -2.70$, $p < .01$), whereas among men there was no association between these variables (Table 3, $B = 0.04$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $t = 0.53$, n.s.). The interactions plotted in Figure 5 show that all men perceive themselves as status-enhanced (i.e., above zero), whereas among women, non-dominant women perceive themselves as status-enhanced, while dominant women perceive themselves as status consistent.

--- INSERT FIGURES 2,3,4,5 ABOUT HERE ---

Moderated Mediation Effects

We found that among men, objective status inconsistency mediated the effects of both agreeableness (Table 2, $B = -0.04$, $s.e. = 0.02$, bootstrap 95% CI, -0.09, -0.01) and dominance (Table 3, $B = 0.07$, $s.e. = 0.02$, bootstrap 95% CI, 0.04, 0.11) on subjective status inconsistency. Among women, such mediation effects were observed for dominance (Table 3, $B = 0.08$, $s.e. = 0.04$, bootstrap 95% CI = 0.01, 0.17) but not for agreeableness (Table 2, $B = -0.01$, $s.e. = 0.05$, bootstrap 95% CI, -0.12, 0.07). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Discussion and Implications

Summary of Results

Although status inconsistency, and particularly status detraction, is associated with negative outcomes for both employees and organizations (e.g., Biron & de Reuver, 2012; Creed & Saporta, 2004), the mechanisms that lead to its development are not entirely clear. Our study pioneers in examining the associations of two possible antecedents, namely, agreeableness and dominance, with both objective and subjective status inconsistency, and the moderating role of gender. With regard to objective status inconsistency, we found that, whereas dominant men undergo objective status enhancement, agreeable men experience objective status consistency, suggesting that agreeable men are subjected to a backlash effect. We also found that all women are objectively status-detracted. However, among dominant women, in contrast to agreeable men, no backlash effect was observed; the more dominant a woman, the less likely she is to be objectively status-detracted.

We also found that personality and gender interact in predicting subjective status inconsistency. All men perceived themselves as status-enhanced, as did agreeable and non-dominant women. Dominant and non-agreeable women, however, perceived themselves as status-consistent. Finally, a moderated mediation analysis indicated that objective status inconsistency mediated the association between dominance and subjective status

inconsistency among both men and women, whereas the association between agreeableness and subjective status inconsistency was mediated by objective status inconsistency among men but not among women.

Contribution of the Study

Previous studies have indicated that personality traits such as agreeableness and dominance are associated with self-reported income discrepancies among employees. Our study supports these findings and refines them by taking into account not only employees' return statuses but also their input statuses; that is, we focus on the broader concept of status inconsistency. As such, our study makes an important theoretical contribution in that it extends notions of input-return balance from the realm of the interpersonal to the intrapersonal context. More specifically, whereas research has predominantly focused on the *socio-psychological* nature of justice assessments (with individuals comparing their input/return ratios to those of referent others), our work approaches the issue from a *socio-structural* perspective, in which individuals base their expectations regarding the input–return relationship on a referent structure that is derived from social standards—such as the firm's rules of allocation or implicit norms of allocation (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972; Jackson, 1962). Furthermore, few studies have examined status inconsistency as a focal variable, and those that have (e.g., Creed & Saporta, 2004) are limited in that they only examined its potential outcomes rather than its antecedents. Our study also extends early findings regarding social role theory as well as existing theory on gender and equality by demonstrating how personality traits interact in complex ways with gender, such that it is difficult to consider the effect of personality traits on various outcomes without considering gender-specific differences. Moreover, to our knowledge, our study is the first to propose a mechanism through which personality may affect perceived status inconsistency, namely by affecting objective positioning on status hierarchies.

Gender and Personality

Interestingly, the findings of the present study diverge from those of previous meta-analyses (e.g. Costa, Terracciano & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994) in that we did not identify an association between gender and personality. This may have to do with the culture within which our study took place (the Netherlands), where masculinity-versus-femininity score differences are small (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). This does not mean that in the Netherlands there are no agreeable women or dominant men, or that these traits do not have an effect on status inconsistency, but rather that baseline levels of agreeableness and dominance do not differ substantially between men and women (see also De Vries & Born, 2013). We suggest that this lack of difference can be regarded as a strength of the study, because the associations we identified cannot be attributed to ceiling or floor effects.

Gender, Personality and Status Inconsistency

Consistent with the findings of Judge and colleagues (2012), which indicated that "men earn a substantial premium for being disagreeable," (p. 404), our results indicated a backlash effect among men (namely, dominant men are objectively status-enhanced, whereas agreeable men do not enjoy such enhancement). Interestingly, although agreeable men were objectively status-consistent, they perceived themselves as status-enhanced. Considering that agreeable women also perceived their return statuses to be much more positive than they actually were, our findings suggest that the tendency of agreeable individuals to sustain harmonious work relations (e.g., Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001) outweighs these individuals' objective observations of return status allocation.

We did not observe a comparable backlash effect on women who do not conform to gender stereotypes, namely, dominant women. Notably, however, while these women are better off compared with non-dominant women (i.e., they undergo objective status detraction to a lesser degree), they still do not cross the 'status consistency barrier'. This may be the outcome of a 'catch-22' situation: when they show themselves to be strong, confident and leader-like, they are rejected as being 'masculine'; when they restrain their natural dominance,

they may be regarded as less capable. In other words, as Rudman (2005, p. 115) put it, women who experience backlash “may curb agentic behavior, resulting in misperceptions of incompetence.” Thus, although they are considered to be highly effective (e.g., Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014), dominant women do not enjoy the benefits of being such outstanding employees (i.e., they still undergo objective status detraction), and they accurately realize it (as indicated in the significant mediation effect).

We also found that among women, the influence of agreeableness on subjective status enhancement is direct (we did not find a mediation effect), suggesting that agreeable women’s conformity to the female gender stereotype relates to low expectations regarding their career outcomes (Gasser, Flint, & Tan, 2000; Moore, 2006) and to a general attribution of low importance to status. Therefore, although agreeable women are objectively status-detracted, they perceive themselves as status-enhanced—which helps them to resolve the cognitive dissonance that objective status detraction might otherwise lead them to experience.

Implications

The findings of this study have several implications. First, our study shows that women in general and agreeable men receive lower returns than do dominant men. This unfairness could be abolished by designing appraisal and compensation systems that are more structured and objective (based on input statuses) and are less dependent on negotiation skills. Such a system might not only reduce the likelihood of gender- and personality-based discrepancies but also help diversify the firm’s workforce by means of attracting, retaining and motivating male and female employees of different personalities. Furthermore, understanding how personality and gender combine to affect both subjective and objective status inconsistencies can also help firms design interventions that incorporate individual differences into equality practices, such as more nuanced affirmative action initiatives.

Second, although agreeable men experience a backlash effect, dominant women do not. It may be that, for women, gender-based backlash effects are more myth than reality.

This may have to do with such social trends as more women entering traditionally masculine occupations and occupying managerial positions (e.g., Cross & Bagilhole, 2002; McDonald, 2013). These trends are likely to mask gender-based differences in the degree to which personality traits are reflected in appraisal and reward systems. Accordingly, managers and practitioners should strongly aim to identify gender-based differences in return status allocation.

Third, our findings may refine gender theory by suggesting that gender roles may manifest themselves differently in objective versus subjective contexts. Such an approach can be relevant to other domains, for example, the work-life balance (WLB) domain, where subjective perceptions held by men and women regarding their ability to effectively balance their work and non-work roles may differ from objective measures of WLB such as work-home time allocation and how relevant others (e.g., spouses, children) evaluate the employee's WLB (e.g., Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009).

Fourth, the differences we identified in the degree to which status inconsistency perceptions are influenced by actual (objective) status inconsistency suggest that there may be certain employee populations (e.g., agreeable men and women) who are less aware of actual status-related data in their environment (they feel enhanced when objectively they are not). Although this may be convenient for employers, who benefit from paying less while being considered generous, we do not see ignorance as a blessing. Our findings may contribute towards the growing support for increasing transparency in organizational compensation systems. Indeed, one of the main reasons for new compensation laws recently adopted in the UK and the US, which considerably limit pay secrecy schemes, was to establish a tighter link between compensation and employees' skills and performance, and to prevent employment discrimination (e.g., Belogolovsky & Bamberger, 2014; Colella, Paetzold, Zardkoohi, & Wesson, 2007; Danziger & Katz, 1997). Moreover, it is possible that both agreeable men and agreeable women take additional factors into consideration when

assessing their return statuses. Understanding how these employees calculate their input-return balance may also aid managers and HR practitioners in building career and compensation schemes.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of our study should be considered in light of its limitations, some of which may also offer research opportunities. First, the relatively low response rate might limit the generalizability of our findings. Still, as mentioned above, *t*-test analyses indicated that there were no significant differences between our sample and the firm's entire workforce with respect to demographic variables such as gender and age.

Second, although our study included an objective measure of status inconsistency (i.e., wage scale), we also relied on self-reported data for measuring the associations between individual traits and perceived status inconsistency. It is thus important to consider the threat of common method variance (CMV). However, as Spector (2006) suggests, small inter-construct correlations often counter the idea that CMV is a universal inflator of correlation. In our study, correlations among the self-reported variables were rather modest, ranging from -.31 to .03. Moreover, CMV leads to an attenuation of the interaction term, which makes interaction effects more difficult to find. This implies that finding interaction effects in data with possible CMV “should be taken as strong evidence that an interaction effect exists” (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010, p. 470).

Third, owing to length limitations of the research survey, we did not collect data on participants' equity sensitivity. Although prior research in employee samples (unlike in student samples) shows no relationship between gender and equity sensitivity (e.g., King & Miles, 1994; Roehling, Roehling, & Boswell, 2010), equity sensitivity can be related to dominance and agreeableness. In their equity sensitivity model, Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1987) distinguished between "entitled" and "benevolent" individuals. Whereas entitled individuals, like those who are dominant, have high aspirations and expect to receive high

rewards (e.g., Stewart, 1996), benevolent individuals are characterized as being agreeable and friendly and are more giving while expecting little in return (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). This may suggest that by including dominance and agreeableness in our study, we also refer to important aspects of the equity sensitivity model. It may still be helpful to add equity sensitivity as a control variable in future studies.

Finally, our study may offer limited generalizability, as it was conducted among a sample of individuals employed in only one electronics firm in the Netherlands. Future research might test the model proposed in this study among workers employed in other industries and countries.

Conclusion

This research provides evidence that personality traits and gender may independently and jointly account for objective and subjective reward inequalities. The growing number of women and men in nontraditional jobs (e.g., Cross & Bagilhole, 2002; McDonald, 2013), where they can express their dominance and agreeableness, respectively, together with the shift toward limiting pay secrecy, may create new challenges for both managers and HR practitioners. This calls for a reexamination of conventional practices of equality and the development of new reward, appraisal and career planning programs.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations (Pearson) of the Measured Variables (n = 355).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Dominance	3.29	0.64									
2 Agreeableness	3.39	0.52	-0.31**								
3 Objective status inconsistency	0.00	0.99	0.25**	-0.17**							
4 Subjective status inconsistency	0.32	0.679	-0.02	0.08	0.32**						
5 Gender (% women)	33%	-	0.05	-0.01	-0.31**	-0.26**					
6 Age (years)	42.97	9.93	-0.19**	0.12*	0.03	0.20**	-0.37**				
7 Tenure (years)	16.13	11.50	-0.23**	0.16**	0.00	0.19**	-0.32**	0.84**			
8 High education (%)	87.5%	-	0.10	-0.07	0.00	-0.02	-0.22**	-0.18**	-0.27**		
9 Contract (% fulltime)	82%	-	0.00	-0.06	0.27**	0.12*	-0.42**	0.07	0.05	0.09	
10 Neuroticism	2.71	0.05	-0.15**	-0.06	-0.12*	-0.04	0.21**	-0.07	-0.07	-0.09	-0.21**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Min/max scores: Status Inconsistency: (-2) – (+2): Negative values represent status detraction, and positive values represent status enhancement; Dominance, Agreeableness, Neuroticism: 1-5; High education: bachelor's or master's level.

Table 2

Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects of Agreeableness on Subjective Status Inconsistency, Mediated by Objective Status Inconsistency, and Moderated by Gender.

Predictor variable	B	s.e.	t	R ²
Model 1: $F(9,341) = 10.62^{**}$				0.22 ^{**}
Main effect on the mediator variable:				
objective status inconsistency				
Agreeableness	-0.20*	0.10	-2.10	
Gender	-0.64 ^{**}	0.12	-5.24	
Agreeableness * Gender	0.20	0.20	1.02	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.40	
Tenure	-0.01	0.01	-1.15	
Education	-0.11*	0.05	-2.33	
Contract	0.42 ^{**}	0.14	3.04	
Dominance	0.32 ^{**}	0.08	3.99	
Neuroticism	-0.00	0.10	-0.04	
Model 2: $F(10,340) = 8.23^{**}$				0.19 ^{**}
Main effect on the dependent variable:				
subjective status inconsistency				
Objective status inconsistency	0.21 ^{**}	0.0	5.55	
Agreeableness	0.15*	0.07	5.55	
Gender	-0.12	0.09	-1.32	
Agreeableness * Gender	0.41 ^{**}	0.14	2.94	
Age	0.001	0.00	0.39	
Tenure	0.01	0.01	1.54	
Education	0.06*	0.03	1.99	
Contract	0.04	0.10	0.41	
Dominance	-0.06	0.06	-0.98	
Neuroticism	0.02	0.07	0.25	
Simple slope moderation analysis:				
Conditional direct effect of agreeableness on Subjective status inconsistency by gender				
	B	s.e.	t	
Men	0.01	0.08	0.18	
Women	0.42 ^{**}	0.12	3.65	
Moderated mediation analysis:				
Bootstrap results for conditional and unconditional indirect effect of agreeableness on subjective status inconsistency by gender				
	Boot indirect effect	Boot s.e.	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
Whole sample	-0.04*	0.02	-0.09	-0.01
Men	-0.06*	0.02	-0.11	-0.02
Women	-0.01	0.05	-0.12	0.07

Note. $n = 351$, unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Negative values represent status detraction, and positive values represent status enhancement. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.

Table 3

Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects of Dominance on Subjective Status Inconsistency, Mediated by Objective Status Inconsistency, and Moderated by Gender.

Predictor variable	B	s.e.	t	R ²
Model 1: $F(9,341)=10.49^{**}$				0.22 ^{**}
Main effect on the mediator variable:				
objective status inconsistency				
Dominance	0.32 ^{**}	0.08	3.98	
Gender	-0.66 ^{**}	0.12	-5.37	
Dominance * Gender	0.06	0.16	0.39	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.47	
Tenure	-0.01	0.01	-1.26	
Education	-0.11 [*]	0.05	-2.48	
Contract	0.40 ^{**}	0.14	2.89	
Agreeableness	-0.20 [*]	0.10	-2.07	
Neuroticism	0.01	0.10	0.06	
Model 2: $F(10,340)=8.02^{**}$				0.19 ^{**}
Main effect on the dependent variable:				
subjective status inconsistency				
Objective status inconsistency	0.22 ^{**}	0.04	5.76	
Dominance	-0.06	0.06	-0.99	
Gender	-0.12	0.09	-1.30	
Dominance * Gender	-0.29 ^{**}	0.11	-2.63	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.43	
Tenure	0.01	0.01	1.47	
Education	0.06	0.03	1.88	
Contract	0.00	0.10	0.05	
Agreeableness	0.15 [*]	0.07	2.12	
Neuroticism	0.00	0.07	0.01	
Simple slope moderation analysis:				
Conditional direct effect of dominance on Subjective status inconsistency by gender				
	B	s.e.	t	
Men	0.04	0.07	0.53	
Women	-0.26 ^{**}	0.09	-2.70	
Moderated mediation analysis:				
Bootstrap results for conditional and unconditional indirect effect of dominance on subjective status inconsistency by gender				
	Boot indirect effect	Boot SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
Whole sample	0.07 [*]	0.02	0.04	0.11
Men	0.07 [*]	0.02	0.04	0.11
Women	0.08 [*]	0.04	0.01	0.17

Note. $n = 351$, unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Negative values represent status detraction, and positive values represent status enhancement. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit

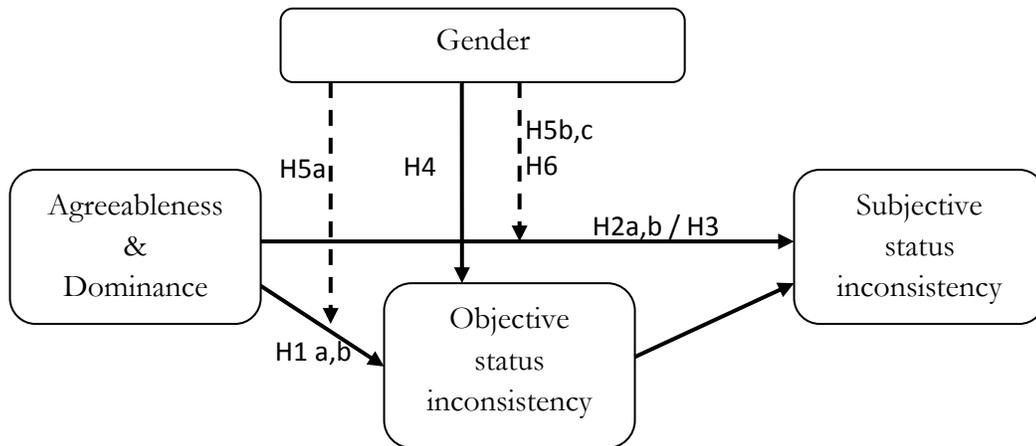


Figure 1. The proposed theoretical model

Note: Solid lines represent main effects; dotted lines represent moderation effects. H= Hypothesis.

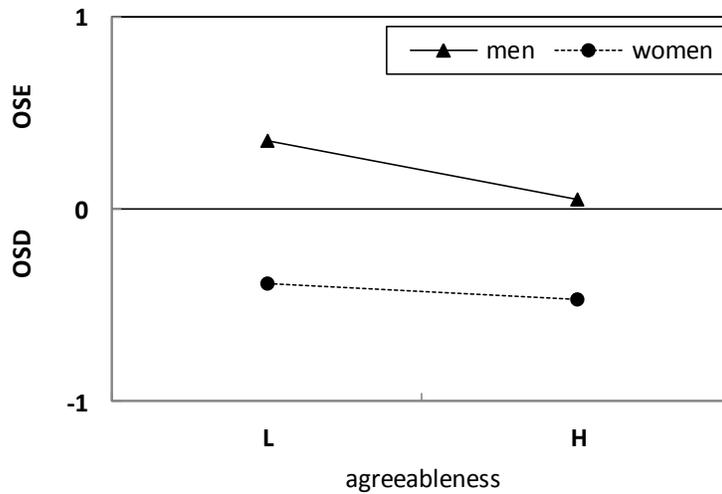


Figure 2. *The association between agreeableness and objective status inconsistency as a function of gender.* L=low, -1 standard deviation; H=high, +1 standard deviation; OSD = Objective status detraction; OSE= Objective status enhancement. B values: male = -0.15, $p < 0.05$; female = -0.05, n.s.

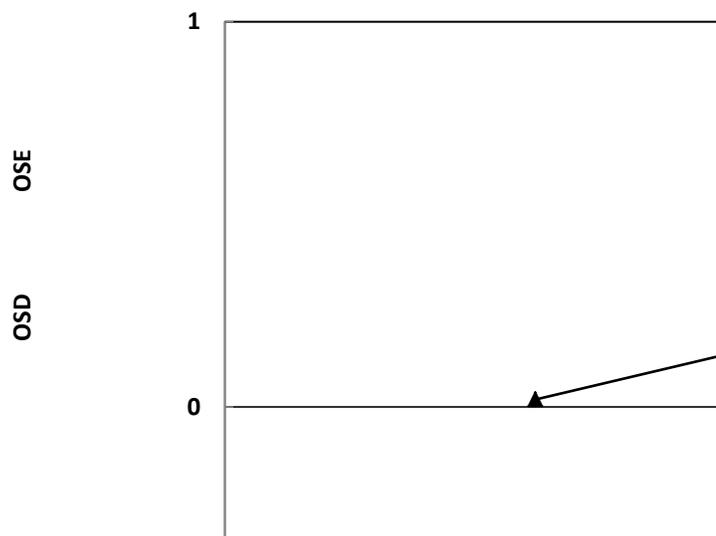


Figure 3. *The association between dominance and objective status inconsistency as a function of gender.* L=low, -1 standard deviation; H=high, +1 standard deviation; OSD = Objective status detraction; OSE= Objective status enhancement. B values: male = 0.22, $p < .01$; female = 0.26, $p < .01$



Figure 4. *The association between agreeableness and subjective status inconsistency as a function of gender.* L=low,-1 standard deviation; H=high, +1 standard deviation; SSD = Subjective status detraction; SSE= Subjective status enhancement. B values: Male=0,01 ns, female=0.42, $p<.01$

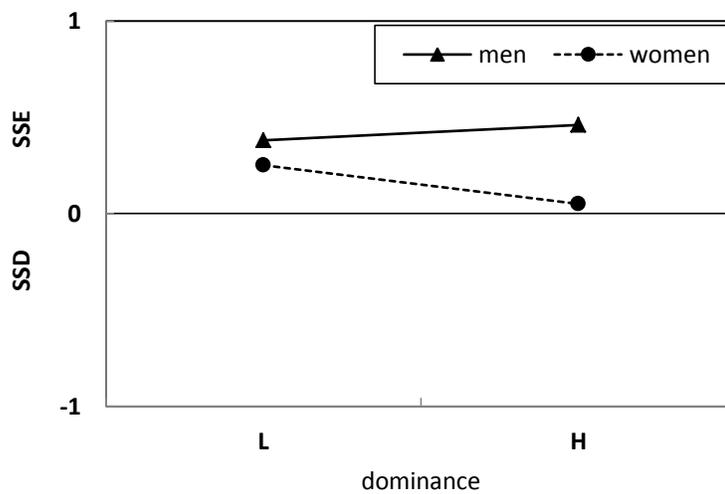


Figure 5. *The association between dominance and subjective status inconsistency as a function of gender.* L=low,-1 standard deviation; H=high, +1 standard deviation; SSD = Subjective status detraction; SSE= Subjective status enhancement. B values: male = 0.04 n.s.; female = -0.26, $p<.01$