LEADER–TEAM (IN)CONGRUENCE OF HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS USE, TEAM INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL, AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

A growing number of studies on high-performance work systems (HPWS) have found empirical support suggesting that leaders and employees have different views of HPWS, which may result in different effects on collective performance. Nonetheless, most studies on HPWS have solely focused on the perception of a single party (either leader or employee). This dissertation fills this void in research by examining the effect of (in)congruence of HPWS use perceived by team leaders and by their teams. Drawing from the intellectual capital perspective, this dissertation proposes that teams with congruence at high levels of HPWS use will generate higher levels of human and social capital than teams with congruence at low levels of HPWS use. Moreover, this dissertation suggests a leader's perception of lower levels of HPWS use, compared to team members, leads to higher levels of human and social capital in teams, which, in turn, influences team performance. Building on HR attribution theory, this dissertation argues that a team's response to HPWS depends partly on the attribution of their organization's motive behind HPWS use. When teams believe HPWS are implemented for employees' well-being and development, the indirect effect of leader–team congruence of HPWS use on team performance via team human and social capital will be more positive. Conversely, when teams attribute that the adoption of HPWS is to exploit employees, the indirect effect of leader–team congruence of HPWS use on team performance will be less positive.

In my dissertation, I conduct a three-wave field study to examine all hypotheses. Data was collected from a nationwide cosmetic company in China. Based on the results, I found that human capital increases when both leaders' and teams' collective perceptions of HPWS use are congruent at a high level compared to being congruent at a low level. Additionally, when teams' collective perception of HPWS use is higher than leaders' perception of HPWS use, social capital is generated more, leading to higher levels of service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior. Although the presence of team collective well-being HR attributions was not found in this dissertation, I found some support for the moderating effect of the dispersion of team well-being HR attributions, suggesting a need to examine within-team dispersion in future studies on team HR attributions. In all, the results of this dissertation emphasize the importance of examining the perspectives of both leaders and employees regarding HPWS use and of considering both the mean value and within-team dispersion of team collective HR attributions in different organizational contexts and industries. Theoretical and practical implications are also discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The literature on strategic human resource management (HRM) has established the positive effects of high-performance work systems (HPWS) on employee and organizational outcomes, with collective employee attitudes and behaviors serving as important markers of employee performance and organizational effectiveness (Huselid, 1995; Jiang et al., 2012). A limitation of this literature, however, is that it has evaluated the impact of HPWS through the lens of a single stakeholder, such as the HR professional or line manager who is accepted as an expert on HPWS implementation (e.g., Arthur, 1994; Delery & Doty, 1996). Other studies have focused on employees who experience HR practices as measurements of HPWS (e.g., Chen et al., 2018; Collins & Kehoe, 2017).

Although research on managers' or employees' reports of HPWS has enriched our understanding of HPWS, viewing HPWS from only one perspective means assuming that managerial and employee reports of HPWS are interchangeable. A modest correlation between managerial and employee-rated HPWS derived from a small-scale meta-analysis ($\bar{r}$ = .28; $\hat{\bar{\rho}}$ = .33; k = 14; N = 2,952; 95% CI = [.26, .41]; see Appendix A for studies included), shows that the difference between manager and employee perceptions of HPWS cannot be solely attributed to errors in measurements. This difference in perceptions actually indicates that each perspective provides distinct valuable information. This conclusion evokes the question of what would happen when employees’ actual experiences do not match up with what managers think they have implemented.

The positive relationship between firm-level HPWS and performance outcomes is well-established, but more attention should be paid to team-level HPWS (Takeuchi et al., 2021). Because organizational HR policies cannot include every contingency, HPWS implementation among team leaders ranges from comprehensive support to passive support to active resistance (Messersmith et al., 2011; Nishii & Wright, 2008; Pak & Kim, 2018; Wright & Nishii, 2013). Team leaders’ varied implementation patterns and qualities result in different HPWS implementations. In addition, because team members experience the same HR practices and share their perceptions with each other, single teams have a more homogeneous understanding of how HPWS are implemented, with the result that teams differ in their perceptions of HPWS. Further complicating the study of the effectiveness of HPWS is the role of the team leader: As the agent for an organization’s HPWS, a team leader has their own perceptions of HPWS use, which may or may not match the collective perceptions of the team. The primary purpose of this dissertation, then, is to investigate the outcomes of (in)congruence between a team leader’s perception and their team members’ collective perception of HPWS use.

Because high levels of leader–team congruence regarding HPWS use results in effective delivery that can be corroborated, it is vital that a team leader and their team reach a consensus on the content and use of HPWS, as well as on appropriate role requirements and team expectations. The incongruence of HPWS use between a leader and the team, in contrast, suggests discrepancies in the understanding of HPWS implementation and of related role requirements and expectations. If a team cannot effectively assimilate the work expectations of HPWS from their leader because of poor communication, the HPWS outcomes are not likely to be positive. It is possible that a team leader may perceive a higher or lower degree of HPWS use than their team. For example, when team leaders overestimate the level of HPWS use understood by their team, team members will not enact desired behaviors and will therefore lose the benefits of HPWS. Conversely, when team leaders underestimate the level of HPWS use understood by the team, members may anticipate work intensification stemming from unreasonable demands, which would undermine any positive outcomes of HPWS. In both cases, the incongruence of HPWS use between a team and its leader may cause team effectiveness to decrease or tall altogether.

The multi-stakeholder perspective recognizes that work teams include team leaders and team members who interact and pursue the same goals (Bernerth et al., 2021; Carter & Mossholder, 2015; Cole et al., 2013; Gibson et al., 2009). Consistent with the tenet of team effectiveness models that highlights the importance of team processes (Mathieu et al., 2017), this paper draws upon the intellectual capital perspective (Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005), especially regarding human and social capital, to understand team processes through which the (in)congruence of HPWS use influences team performance. The intellectual capital perception offers promising ground for building and sustaining competitive advantage (Kang & Snell, 2009; Li et al., 2019; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005). Similarly, intellectual capital, by way of its human and social capital elements, offers a holistic mechanism by which to effectively understand the leader–team congruence of HPWS on team performance. Specifically, *team human capital* refers to the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) embedded in team members (Crook et al., 2011). Team social capital is resources possessed by team members resulting from their relationships within the team (Oh et al., 2006).

When a team and its leader share a consensus on HPWS use, ambiguity about certain role expectations associated with HPWS is significantly reduced. This process also meets a team's need for role clarity and provides a common reference point for achieving team objectives. Team members understand the objectives of HPWS and can direct efforts toward behavior that is appreciated and rewarded. Consequently, team members are more likely to appreciate the benefits of HPWS, invest in them, and feel personally accountable for their success. The synergistic effects of high-performance work practices such as extensive training, pay for performance, and teamwork can be maximized when leaders' and team members' perceptions are aligned. This alignment promotes team human and social capital generation. Team human capital is critical for team performance because employees need to have sufficient KSAOs to complete tasks and meet goals. In a workplace environment where team members have strong connections (i.e., social capital) with each other, team members will likely exhibit trust, norms of obligations and expectations, and effective communication (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), thereby becoming more willing to contribute to their team to the best of their abilities.

In addition, there is growing evidence to support the notion that managers need to ensure that employees understand why certain HR practices are in place to accomplish the desired effects of HPWS (Nishii et al., 2008). Ostroff and Bowen (2016) also called for an integration of both the content approach (examination of which HR practices lead to desirable outcomes) and the process approach (examination of how and why HR practices lead to desirable outcomes) when explaining the HRM-performance relationships. With this as my motivation, I examine the moderating effect of team HR attributions (the process approach) on the association between the leader–team congruence of HPWS (the content approach) and the two mediators mentioned above.

HR attributions reflect an individual's perception of why certain HR practices are implemented (Nishii et al., 2008), and these attributions influence individuals' reactions to HPWS implementation and affect employees, teams, and organizational performance (Guest et al., 2021; Nishii et al., 2008; Yang & Arthur, 2021). I build on and extend this existing research to argue that team HR attributions moderate the impact of the congruence of HPWS. Team HR attributions emerge when team members' perceptions overlap gradually and develop a shared understanding of the intent of HR practices through dynamic interaction and information exchange (Fan et al., 2020). It comes as no surprise that team HR attributions vary because different attributional styles stem from team members' personalities, experiences, and relationships among teammates and different types of team-level HPWS implementation.

Specifically, I focus on *team-level employee well-being HR attribution* and on *employee exploitation HR attribution*; the former refers to team members' collective perception that HPWS exist to enhance employee well-being and development, whereas the latter describes a team's collective perception that HPWS are put in place to exploit employees. When team members have higher levels of employee well-being HR attribution, they have a positive perception of HPWS implementation, believing that the practices are employee-oriented and meant to help employees grow, develop, and prosper. Therefore, team members become more engaged in HPWS to reciprocate favorable treatment from their employer, thereby generating more benefits (i.e., increased team human and social capital). However, when there is a high level of employee exploitation HR attribution, the positive effect of high (vs. low) congruence is weakened. Team members believe that the organization implements HPWS to control or exploit employees, which leads to lower involvement in the practices and reduces the gains of congruence. In summary, the positive effect of congruence of HPWS use on promoting team human capital and social capital will be magnified (vs. reduced) when there is a higher level of employee well-being or a lower level of exploitation HR attributions.

My dissertation contributes several important theoretical insights to the research on HRM systems. First, prior studies have mainly focused on the leader or employee reports on the use of HPWS, resulting in varying degrees of support for its positive effects. Therefore, examining the (in)congruence effect of HPWS use from multiple stakeholder perspectives is theoretically and practically valuable. Further, while Strategic HRM scholars have traditionally focused on a two-dimensional fit (i.e., external and internal fit) of HRM systems (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988; Kehoe, 2021), this study advances the literature by examining the (in)congruence between a leader's and the team’s perceptions of HPWS use, which is a third type of fit. Moreover, rather than considering this congruence as a binary concept (i.e., congruent or incongruent), this study explores (a) how varying levels of congruence with HPWS use relate to the team human and social capital and team performance and (b) whether incongruence is directional by examining cases whether it evokes the asymmetrical incongruence effect) by examining cases where the leader's perception of HPWS is higher or lower than that of the team's, thereby revealing any asymmetrical incongruence effect.

My dissertation makes the second contribution by using intellectual capital as a lens through which to investigate how and why team-level congruence on HPWS use translates into team performance. Multiple studies have pointed to the limitation of a sole focus on individual dyadic level congruence effect (e.g., congruence between an individual team member’s perception and their team leader’s perception), as managers in the organizations need to lead, motivate, and influence individuals as well as teams as a whole (e.g., Cole et al., 2013; Gibson et al., 2009; Seong et al., 2012). To understand the influences of the leader–team congruence of HPWS on team performance, I focus on two theoretically distinct team processes: team human capital and team social capital. As a result, this paper helps bridge the conversation between strategic HRM and team literature.

Third, this dissertation integrates the perception and the intent of HPWS implementation to examine the black box between the HR system and team effectiveness by including the team-level employee HR attributions. In doing so, this paper also helps address the scarcity of research on team HR attributions compared with the extensive literature on individual HR attributions. Drawing on HR attribution theory (Nishii et al., 2008), I argue that team-level employee well-being (vs. exploitation) HR attributions strengthen (vs. weaken) the positive effects of leader–team congruence of HPWS on team performance via team human and social capital. Although I did not find support for the effect of team-level HR attributions, it may be worthwhile to take into account team size and team tenure and further insights and analysis on the results are presented in the result and discussion sections. My dissertation The theoretical model is depicted in Figure 1.

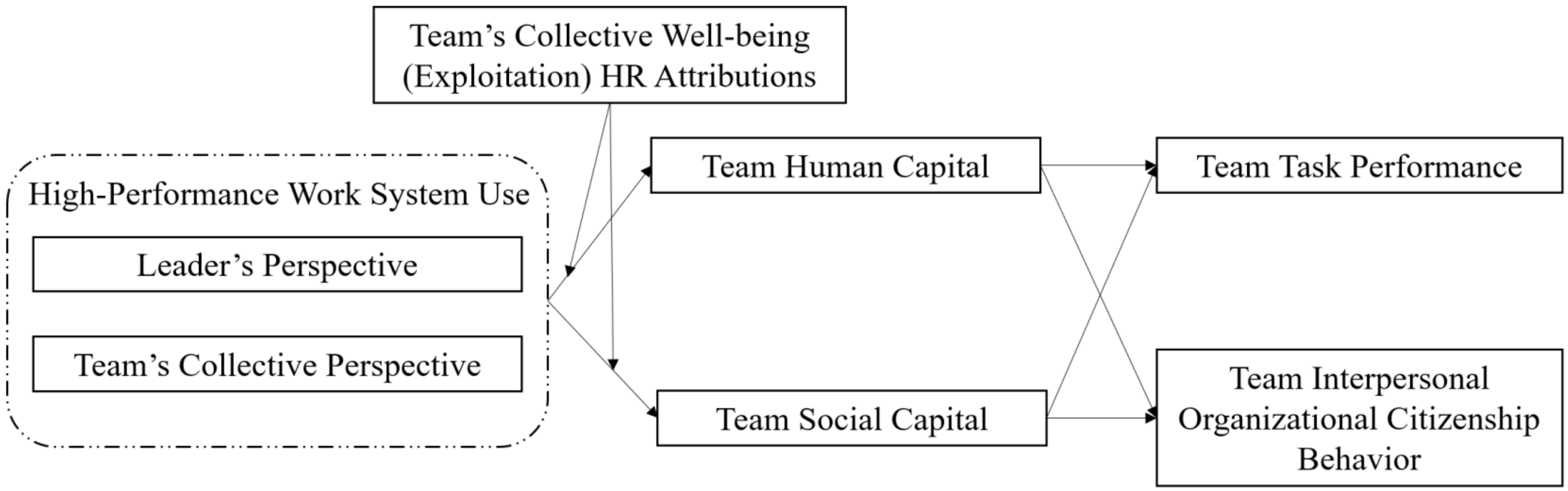


Figure 1. Theoretical Model

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I first provide an overview of the existing literature on HPWS, including the leader–team (in)congruence and the role of leaders' communication. Next, I introduce intellectual capital theory and specifically review team human and social capital. Last, I describe the extant theories and research on employee HR attributions.

High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS)

The importance of people as a source of competitive advantage has stimulated scholars' and practitioners' interests in understanding how human resources can improve organizational performance, resulting in a proliferating body of research labeled strategic human resource management (HRM). Wright and McMahan (1992) originally described strategic HRM as research on "the pattern of planned human resource deployments and activities intended to enable a firm to achieve its goals" (p. 298). More recently, Jackson and colleagues (2014) defined strategic HRM literature as

> the study of HRM systems (and/or subsystems) and their interrelationships with other elements comprising an organizational system, including the organization's external and internal environments, the multiple players who enact HRM systems, and the multiple stakeholders who evaluate the organizations' effectiveness and determine its long-term survival. (p. 4)

Consistent with the emphasis on performance-enhancing HR systems in strategic HRM literature, researchers have long paid attention to HPWS, a bundle of high-performance work practices that, when aligned, can provide a firm competitive advantage by promoting employee competencies and motivation (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Huselid, 1995). For example, many studies, including several meta-analytic reviews (e.g., Combs et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Rabl et al., 2014; Subramony, 2009), have shown that HPWS are associated with better operational and financial performance (e.g., Takeuchi et al., 2007), higher levels of human capital (e.g., Kehoe & Collin, 2007; Liao et al., 2009), and increased employee satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Messersmith et al., 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2009).

Over the past three decades, HPWS have been measured in several ways where different sets of high-performance work practices are included. For example, Huselid (1995) measured HPWS using 13 items that comprise selection, training, incentive compensation, employee participation, and flexible work arrangement. Bae and Lawler (2000) studied HR practices across five domains: extensive training, empowerment, highly selective staffing, performance-based pay, and broad job design. Takeuchi and colleagues (2007) adapted Lepak and Snell's (2002) 21-item commitment HR system to capture HPWS, which include job rotation, employee involvement, selection, training, result-based performance appraisal, pay for performance, and job design. Overall, the consensus is that a valid HPWS measure needs to have the ability-, motivation-, and opportunity-enhancing practices that correspond to the ability-motivation-opportunity model (Jiang et al., 2017).

Another related debate that runs through the HPWS literature is whether leader-reported HPWS are more accurate about performance than employee-reported HPWS. Whereas leaders are expected to have the most information about their implementation of HPWS, subordinates are influenced by leaders' implementation style or communication styles and thus may witness or experience HPWS to different extents (Nishii & Wright, 2008). Social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) suggests that leaders and subordinates have distinct processes by which they make evaluations and reach conclusions. Leaders and subordinates likely have their respective information in their social environments and different motivations, which contributes to their having different perceptions. Namely, leaders and subordinates may have dissimilar interactions and evaluations of HPWS implementation, which results in subordinates having varying information from their leaders and, subsequently, weaker rating convergence. Moreover, leaders and subordinates may be driven by different motivations. For instance, leaders may tend to overestimate their implementation in an attempt to appear efficient. Subordinates may be vulnerable to other biasing motives or past experiences and hence provide a higher rating than their leaders.

Indeed, the discussion of the differences between a leader's and their subordinates' perceptions of HPWS has never been missing from the strategic HRM literature (Jiang & Messersmith, 2018). Traditionally, researchers used leaders as informants to report the use of HPWS because they have much more detailed information about HRM systems (e.g., Huselid & Becker, 1996) when compared with employees. In contrast, several studies in favor of the employee perception of HPWS use argue that HPWS experienced by employees are likely to have the most direct impact on the employee skills, attitudes, and behaviors that ultimately influence organizational performance (e.g., Aryee et al., 2012; Martinaityte et al., 2019; Piening et al., 2013).

This line of inquiry is more than a methodological issue; it also represents the conceptual difference behind the scenes, which is the gap between HPWS as perceived by managers and HPWS as perceived by employees. Research on the relationship between managers' and employees' perceptions of HPWS use seems to be inconsistent. On one hand, several studies support the notion that employees' perceived HPWS are positively associated with their managers' perceived HPWS (e.g., Wang et al., 2021) and that they mediate the relationship between HPWS perceived by managers and employee outcomes (e.g., Den Hartog et al., 2013). On the other hand, research also shows that manager-rated HPWS are positively related to employee outcomes after controlling for the effect of employee-rated HPWS use (e.g., Liao et al., 2009), suggesting that employees' perceived HPWS are not necessarily consistent with their leaders' perceptions. To reconcile these differences, Jiang and Messersmith (2018) proposed that researchers apply a congruence approach to investigate the (in)congruence effect between managers' and employees' perceptions of HPWS use. Using this approach, we can supplement managers' responses with those from employees in examining HPWS-performance relationships.

The team-level analysis is important when attempting to investigate this (in)congruence effect. First, firms widely use teams to carry out tasks and organizational goals that often need to be broken down into more measurable and achievable team goals. Accordingly, the function of HPWS would likely take place at the team level. Indeed, a growing number of studies have examined HR practices at the team level (e.g., Bouwmans et al., 2019; Chi et al., 2009; Chuang et al., 2016; Flinchbaugh et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2021; Pak & Kim, 2018). For example, the results of Bouwmans and colleagues (2019) show that team-oriented HR practices are positively related to team innovation and efficiency by promoting team members' affective commitment and engagement in information processing. Chuang et al. (2016) found that HRM systems for knowledge-intensive teamwork can improve team knowledge acquisition and sharing. Similarly, Flinchbaugh and colleagues (2016) argued that employee perceptions of team-level high-involvement work practices (HIWPs) are positively associated with team service climate via knowledge sharing as HIWPs stimulate interdependence and involvement that facilitate learning and knowledge exchange between coworkers. A study conducted by Pak and Kim (2018) revealed that team managers' implementation of espoused HR practices positively influences HPWS intensity, measured as HR practices perceived by team members, which, in turn, will enhance team performance. Differing from previous researchers that examined team/group outcomes, Ma and colleagues (2021) found evidence that team-level HPWS is conducive to individuals' efficacy belief, which boosts employees' thinking outside the box (i.e., creativity). Nonetheless, researchers have not paid sufficient attention to the relationships at the team level of analyses (Takeuchi et al., 2021) and how to integrate team/group research (i.e., the input-process-output model; Mathieu et al., 2017) into HPWS-performance relationships.

Second, the variability within an organization when implementing HR practices (Nishii & Wright, 2008; Ostroff & Bowen, 2016) usually takes place in team settings. Team managers, as agents for their organizations, are responsible for implementing

HPWS in their work teams (Fu et al., 2020; Pak & Kim, 2018; Wright & Nishii, 2013). Given a certain degree of autonomy and flexibility that team leaders have in enforcing HR policies through daily management activities (Nishii & Wright, 2008) as well as their different levels of capabilities and motivation (Cunningham & Hyman, 1999), team leaders are likely to have distinct HPWS implementation patterns.

Third, team settings are more appropriate than individual settings for studying the (in)congruence of HPWS between managers and employees. The individual dyadic level congruence effect limits our understanding of HPWS as managers use HPWS to lead, motivate, and influence their subordinates. Previous research implies that employees, individually or as a team, tend to form perceptions of organizational phenomena that are different from those of their leaders, as they are different in status, preferences, and priorities (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Gibson et al., 2009; Hatfield & Huseman, 1982). Continuous interaction and communication among team members can result in a shared understanding of their HPWS experience. Therefore, I focus on the (in)congruence of HPWS between team leaders and teams and on its outcomes.

Leader–Team (In)congruence of HPWS Use

When leaders' perceived HPWS is congruent with the team's perceived HPWS use, the team has a clear understanding of the team goals and the expected work behaviors implied by HPWS. Team members are likely to better comprehend the managerial purposes underlying HPWS and to act accordingly. Misalignment could be present because leaders and subordinates are in different positions and are likely to have varying information and perceptions about HPWS, whereupon their perceptions of HPWS use could diverge.

In this paper, I propose a two-by-two matrix (see Table 1) that juxtaposes the perception of HPWS (i.e., high vs. low) with the source of those ratings (leader vs. team) to ease readers' understanding. Jackson and Schuler (1995) proposed using a behavioral perspective, rooted in role theory, to explain the influence of HPWS such that HPWS can contribute to performance goals by clearly defining the roles and responsibilities of employees and motivating them to display desired behaviors. For example, HPWS such as extensive training, pay for performance, and promotion criteria signal to employees how high performance is defined. Therefore, I return to the goal of team-level HPWS (i.e., fostering the development of desired behaviors in employees to improve team effectiveness) to provide conceptual guidance on the potential consequences of congruence and incongruence of HPWS between leaders and teams.

When leaders and team members both perceive HPWS use to be high (Quadrant 1), the team has a clear understanding of goals and expectations implied by HPWS, better comprehends the managerial purposes underlying HPWS and act accordingly, and have greater involvement and more responsibility. Significant mutual investment on the part of leaders and team members is expected in developing a high-commitment employment relationship.

However, when leaders and team members both perceive HPWS use to be low (Quadrant 3), HPWS are considered *transactional* HRM systems that are essentially handling the day-to-day administrative functions. As a result of transactional employment

Table 1. *Two-by-Two Matrix Juxtaposing Leader's and Team's Collective Perceptions of HPWS Use.*

Leader's Perception of HPWS Use	High	Quadrant 2 (Incongruence: Leader > Team) Leader perceives a higher level of HPWS exists in the team than team members	Quadrant 1 (Congruence at a high level) Leader and team members both perceive a high level of HPWS exists in the team
	Low	Quadrant 3 (Congruence at a low level) Leader and team members both perceive a low level of HPWS exists in the team	Quadrant 4 (Incongruence: Leader < Team) Leader perceives a lower level of HPWS exists in the team than team members
		Low	High
		Team's Collective Perception of HPWS Use	

relationships (Rousseau, 1995), team members in a transactional HRM system have limited association with the team, and their psychological contract may focus on job-related short-term economic exchanges (Lepak & Snell, 1999). In these situations, team members have specific performance requirements and expectations without work autonomy, resulting in limited active participation and involvement in team activities (Pearce et al., 1995).

Conversely, the incongruence of HPWS use means that team members and team leaders are not on the same page in understanding the extent to which HPWS are implemented in the teams. Because team members also receive information from other organizational message senders (e.g., executives, HR departments), the team's perception of HPWS use is not necessarily lower than their leader's perception. When incongruence exists between leaders' and team members' perceptions of HPWS use, the effectiveness of HPWS will decrease, as team members may be confused by or unclear on management objectives. Incongruence can happen in two scenarios: Either team leaders perceive higher levels of HPWS than their teams, or they perceive lower levels of HPWS than their teams. When team leaders perceive a higher level of HPWS use (Quadrant 2), this conveys that team members do not comprehend HPWS, and thus the incentives attempting to motivate appropriate behaviors may prove ineffective. It may be that the leader has not explained and implemented the HR practices properly, thereby decreasing teams' chance to learn from participating in HPWS. The benefits of HPWS, such as extensive training and development and self-managed teams, are not well-received by team members in such a situation. From their perspectives, HPWS may also be viewed as inauthentic, as leaders exaggerate their implementation of HPWS. Consequently, team members are less committed to HPWS or even reluctant to toe the party line.

In situations where team leaders' perceived HPWS are lower than their teams' (Quadrant 4), team members may have an illusion of HPWS implementation. A potential negative impact is that employees may reduce their productivity if their supervisor fails to offer adequate assistance and direction, or if they do not consistently enforce HPWS over time. It could also be the case that leaders feel that they have room to implement HPWS. Consequently, team leaders may actively provide more assistance and support to prompt HPWS implementation given the positive returns of HPWS. However, the beneficial effect of HPWS may be negated by the increasing demands of HPWS on employees after a certain point (Boxall & Macky, 2014; Macky & Boxall, 2008).

Intellectual Capital

In the strategic management literature, intellectual capital is acknowledged as an important resource and driver for competitive advantage (Fu et al., 2017; Kang & Snell, 2009; Li et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2015; Ray et al. in press; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005; Youndt et al., 2004). For example, Li and colleagues (2021) found that age-diverse workforces create value for organizations by cultivating human and social capital (two types of intellectual capital). Research conducted by Fu and colleagues (2017) revealed that HPWS generate intellectual capital in professional service firms that enhance organizational ambidexterity and revenue growth.

Intellectual capital is defined as "the sum of all knowledge stocks that firms utilize for competitive advantage," and it includes three prominent elements—

organizational, human, and social capital (Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005, p. 451). Specifically, *human capital* is KSAOs that reside within individuals (Schultz, 1961), whereas *social capital* is the resources embedded within social connections and interactions among individuals (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The third element, *organizational capital* is the institutionalized knowledge and codified experience encapsulated in the processes, systems, and structures of the organizations (Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005; Youndt et al., 2004).

The research outlined in this paper is based on only human capital and social capital for three reasons. First, the intellectual capital perspective suggests that HPWS contribute to performance through their influence on individual knowledge, interpersonal relationships, and organizational knowledge (Kang & Snell, 2009). My focus on the team-level HPWS is relevant to knowledge that resides in individuals and relationships. The relevance of the intellectual capital perspective to HPWS in relation to team performance is embedded in the human and social capital. Second, organizational capital is typically created when organizations procure a new database, invest in the installation of specific systems and processes, or change to new routines or structures (Youndt et al., 2004). No cues regarding the change of organizational capital are prominent during interactions between leaders and their team members. he focus of the current study is on the team processes affected by the leader-team (in)congruence of HPWS use and their impact on team performance. As Daft and Weick (1984, p. 285) suggested, "Individuals come and go, but organizations preserve knowledge, behavior, mental maps, norms, and values over time"; so organizational capital is created by knowledge rooted in an organization's procedures, tools, and ways of functioning and thus tend to stay within organizations and be stable (Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005). Highlighting dynamics (interactions among team members) rather than institutionalized knowledge should be a better route to describe the team processes. In sum, building on the intellectual capital perspective, I investigate the team human and social capital generation processes underlying the relationship between the leader–team congruence of HPWS and team performance. Stated differently, different configurations of perceptions of HPWS use (Table 1) will cultivate different magnitudes of effects on team human capital and social capital.

Team Human Capital

Research in strategic HRM is divided into two streams: Strategic HRM research believes that if HPWS are appropriately aligned with the firm strategy, they can provide the workforce with KSAOs, motivation, and opportunities to elicit desired behavior and better performance (Huselid, 1995; Delery & Doty, 1996); strategic human capital research states that human capital, instead of HR practices, contributes to sustained competitive advantage (Wright et al., 1994). Strategic human capital research was built on a resource-based view suggesting that firm resources can provide sustained competitive advantages when resources are valuable, rare, inimitable, and non substitutable (VRIN; Barney, 1991; Wright & McMahan, 1992; Wright et al., 2001). In line with this view, researchers on human capital propose that KSAOs employees possess can be valuable resources that contribute to organizational success, a proposal that highlights the role of human capital as a key factor when explaining superior firm performance (Kehoe & Collins, 2017; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Wright & McMahan, 2011). An in-depth review of the relationship between human capital and firm performance can be found in Crook et al. (2011). Several recent reviews pay attention to the emergence process by which individual human capital transforms to be unit-level human capital resources (e.g., Nyberg et al., 2014; Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011; Ployhart et al., 2014; Ray et al., in press). Building on Kozlowski and Klein's (2000) multilevel modeling, literature on the cross-level human capital resource emergence process noted that a unit-level human capital resource is not a mere aggregate of individual human capital. Rather, it is a higher-level, collective resource that originates in the KSAOs of individuals and is amplified by interactions among employees within the unit (Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011). The emergence process requires an interdependent task environment and socio-psychological emergence enabling states. That being said, I, in this paper, I focus on team human capital as team members' collective human capital, not as a complementary combination of team members' human capital, because team-level HPWS target team members as a whole and do not differentiate between the individual members (Boon et al., 2018).

In brief, the strategic human capital perspective claims that HPWS can be imitated by competitors over time and that the key factor for maintaining a competitive advantage is human capital resources (Wright et al., 1994). However, HPWS include selective recruitment, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation and rewards, and participation and involvement. The variability in the HRM practices makes it difficult for competitors to imitate them fully. Also, HPWS "are responsible for generating and leveraging the appropriate human capital resources that lead to superior organizational outcomes" (Delery & Roumpi, 2017, p. 13). Several studies demonstrate that human capital functions as a mediator between HR systems and collective performance (Datta et al., 2005; Liao et al., 2009; Youndt et al., 1996). For example, Liao and colleagues (2009) proposed and found support for the notion that HPWS select and develop service talents' knowledge about services and products so that they can deliver high-quality service performance. Similarly, Fu et al. (2017) argued that HPWS support the attraction, development, and retention of professionals that leads to high-quality human capital, thereby contributing to organizations' reputation and ultimately attracting more clients.

Team Social Capital

Social capital is a resource obtained through interpersonal relationships in a social environment (Burt, 1992, 2000; Coleman, 1988; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Multiple studies have examined both how HPWS contribute to the development of social capital that affects organizational outcomes (e.g., Collins & Clark, 2003; Evans & Davis, 2005; Fu et al., 2017) and how team social capital affects team performance through different team processes (e.g., cohesiveness) or team functioning (Oh et al., 2004; Pil & Leana, 2009). From a resource-based perspective, team social capital is intangible, difficult to imitate, and not easily appropriated or exchanged (Gupta, et al., 2011). Accordingly, teams with more social capital can outperform other teams that lack that resource.

The seminal article published by Naphpiet and Ghoshal (1998) has differentiated social capital into interrelated but distinct structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions that encompass several aspects of team functioning. The structural dimension of social capital focuses on the configuration of social relations among members within the network, and this dimension is commonly indicated by the frequency of interactions among team members or the strength of ties among team members (Naphpiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Dense networks enhance collaboration and information sharing, because members of a team know each other well and interact with each other on a regular basis (Oh et al., 2004). The relational dimension of social capital is characterized by trusting norms and obligations (Naphpiet & Ghoshal, 1998), which provides for a more open flow of information among team members. Finally, the cognitive dimension of social capital involves the generation of shared cognition among team members of which shared language and narratives are indicators (Naphpiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). A common understanding of workplace phenomena, structures, and processes is a resource that helps team members comprehend and share information easily.

This study focuses on the structural dimension of social capital to capture team social capital, which involves a team's overall pattern of connections as well as the resources accessible to them. Following the structuralist network theoretic tradition, Oh and colleagues (2004) defined team social capital as "the configuration of a group's members' social relationships within the social structure of the group itself" (p. 861). It involves resources embedded within the network structure of relations among team members, resources such as access to knowledge and emotional support from the team.

My focus on this network structure is grounded in the observation that the field of HRM remains virtually untouched by theory and empirical research on the network forms of social capital (Hollenback & Jamieson, 2015). From a structuralist perspective, team members connect with each other, building a web of interconnected social exchanges where team members can be approached for help and resources. The structural dimension of social capital enables social interactions and allows team members to engage in high-quality exchanges of information and resources.

I focus on a specific aspect of social capital—the density of team member work networks within the team, a social network approach "concerned with the structure and patterning of relationships" between people in a team (Tichy et al., 1979; Totterdell et al., 2004, p. 854)—and I argue that different configurations of HPWS perceptions influence team members' motivation in developing a dense work network. Multiple studies have used the structural properties of the social network to explain different employee outcomes, such as job-related affect and employee innovation behavior (Brass, 1984; Sparrowe et al., 2001; Totterdell et al., 2004). When a team's connection linkages are in the best possible configuration, the team's resources are maximized (Oh et al., 2006).

Team Collective HR Attributions

Research has highlighted the importance of integrating the content approach (i.e., what HR practices lead to desirable outcomes) and the process approach (i.e., how and why HR practices are implemented) in studying the effect of HRM systems (Ostroff & Bowen, 2016). The "why" question centers on the motives that employees attribute to the HRM system they experience (i.e., HR attribution). Relatedly, employees have an intrinsic predisposition to evaluate their surroundings via causal attribution, especially when they encounter something relevant or the results are meaningful (Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985). HR attributional theory suggests that employees make attributions about why their organization implements HPWS, and the type of attributions they ascribe can influence their attitude and work behaviors (Nishii et al., 2008). These attributions stimulate differences in employee attitudes and actions that affect the effectiveness of HPWS (Hewett, 2021; Hewett et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Xiao & Cooke, 2022). Literature on HR attributions has largely focused on the individual level, but Nishii and colleagues (2008) suggest that

> it is entirely possible for HR attributions to emerge as a group-level construct in other organizational contexts. The extent to which group members come to share their HR attributions is likely a function of the quantity and quality of social interaction patterns within the group that affect the extent of group sensemaking that takes place. (p. 530)

Team HR attributions refer to a shared understanding of an organization's motive underlying HPWS. Although employees may develop different causal interpretations of HPWS use, there exist team attributions of HPWS use. Practices included in HPWS are prevailing and recurring. Forming causal attributions about HPWS is an iterative process, in which individuals observe, interpret, and communicate their perceived motives among members. By accumulating shared causal information cues about HPWS over time, the team develops stable inferences about the motive behind HPWS implementation. Team leaders are not the only source of team HR attribution. Team HR attributions may stem from messages communicated by the chief HR officer or HR managers, overall attributional and affective tendencies of the team, team values, team climates and cultures, and even the regulatory context where the team works (Hu & Oh, 2022).

From team members’ perspectives, team HR attribution indicates the meaning of employees to their organization. The great stated benefits of HPWS and clear picture on behaviors desired by an organization (i.e., leader–team congruence of HPWS) do not guarantee that team members will value HPWS and exert efforts in desirable behaviors. When a team attributes HPWS to an organization’s investment in employee well-being and development (i.e., team collective well-being HR attributions), the team view HPWS as resources rather than demands and its members are more satisfied with and committed to HPWS (Giesbers et al., 2014; Shantz et al., 2016). In contrast, when team members attribute their organization’s HPWS to the exploitation of labor, they will be less willing to commit to their jobs and organization (Kong, 2020; Nishii et al., 2008). Thus, the attributions a team displays may determine whether the team values HPWS and whether its members reciprocate in kind.

CHAPTER 3

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Leader–Team Congruence of HPWS Use

HRM practices are the primary means by which organizations define, communicate, and reward desired role behaviors of employees (Jackson & Schuler, 1992). The consensus on HPWS is a prerequisite for sending strong and clear signals regarding behavioral expectations, but leaders and team members can agree at varying levels of HPWS use. When leaders and team members reach a high agreement on perceptions, leaders can act on behalf of the team (Bashshur et al., 2011; Gibson et al., 2009). Team leaders represent access to higher-level authority and resources as well as an understanding of the organization’s stated goals. Literature on the tasks and relational influences of leaders suggests that team leaders can influence the workflow structure and pace as team members work together on team tasks (Bass, 2008; Eckardt et al., 2021). An effective team can quickly bridge the formal and imposed team goals and the informal goals and needs of the team, using resources from the leader and team members. More importantly, when leaders’ perceptions of HPWS use are aligned with team members’ perceptions at a high level, synergies of HPWS allow team members to be more attentive, connected, and focused on team goals and their expected roles, meaning they contribute to the team human and social capital.

When leaders and team members are in tune with HPWS implementation, they agree about the HPWS intensity and see a cause-and-effect connection between their behaviors and outcomes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Team members' experience is closely aligned with team leaders' actual implementation. The congruence of HPWS use at a high level smooths the execution of high-performance work practices, such as self-managed team and pay for (team) performance. Team members are therefore resourceful and able to accomplish tasks, collaboratively work with their team members to achieve goals, and regulate their actions toward the suggested behaviors proposed by HPWS. At the same time, the congruence of HPWS use builds a strong HR climate about what kind of behaviors are desired, because congruence fosters a trusting environment between team leaders and their teams. As a result, the strategic role of HPWS in developing human capital for the team is well established, contributing to the team's human capital.

However, when mutually lower levels of HPWS use are perceived, the generation processes of team human and social capital will slow down. In this situation, leaders may have lower expectations of their team members and team performance because low levels of HPWS (i.e., transactional or administrative HR practices) are put in place solely to meet regulatory and compliance requirements (Beer, 1997; Bowen et al., 2002; Rousseau & Parks, 1993). When leaders have low expectations of team members, they may not try to encourage team members to work beyond expectations or may deliver messages about desirable behaviors without including incentives. Team leaders concentrate on enforcing rules and regulations to make sure team members conform to the preset routines, procedures, and structures (Lepak & Snell, 1997). Under these conditions, team members will not feel additionally motivated to engage in HPWS. As a result, less team human capital will be created than when the team leader's and teams' perceptions are aligned at high levels of HPWS use.

Congruence between leaders and their teams is necessary for the development of team social capital. HPWS that include practices such as extensive training, competitive pay and benefits for team performance, participation in team decision-making, and opportunities for teamwork provide the seeds for developing thriving relationships. When there is alignment between team members and their leaders regarding HPWS use at a high level, teams have a shared understanding of the team goals and have control over their own time and energy. Besides, the congruence of HPWS use provides motivation (through pay and benefits), opportunities (through self-managed teams), and capabilities (through extensive training and development) for team members to develop relationships with each other (Jia et al., 2014; Shaw et al., 2005).

When HPWS are perceived by leaders at high levels, team members will have a long-term view of their relationship with the team and increase loyalty and reduce quit propensity (Hom et al., 2009). Additionally, those practices will offer access and opportunity, resulting in a more stable workforce (e.g., Shaw et al., 1998) and solidifying work ties over time (Jia et al., 2014), which allows for the accumulation of team social capital. Conversely, a low HPWS intensity signals a short-term view of the employment relationship in that team members are not motivated to engage in HR activities or to work with other members. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 1: Team (a) human capital and (b) social capital are higher when the team's collective and its leader's perception of HPWS use are congruent at a high level rather than congruent at a low level.

Leader–Team Incongruence of HPWS Use

Employees and leaders do not always have access to the same information and may develop different interpretations as a result of differences in position and authority, potentially leading to misalignment (Gibson et al., 2009; Patterson et al., 2004; Payne & Mansfield, 1973). Multiple studies have shown that the ambiguity associated with the work processes will create confusion and frustration, which consume time and energy and hinder team functioning (e.g., Bashshur et al., 2011; Gibson et al., 2009). The result is that incongruence of HPWS intensity has negative consequences for team members' engagement in HPWS. Depending on which party perceives less may differentially affect human and social capital loss.

When leaders perceive higher levels of HPWS than their teams, they may believe they have defined team performance goals and implemented HPWS, but team members may not concur or may disregard those practices. It may be that the leader has not explained and implemented the HR practices properly or that team members do not have the instrumental motivation to appreciate and engage in HPWS (Makhecha et al., 2018), which would decrease the teams' chances to learn. From team members' perspective, the leader's overestimation of HPWS use may cause team members to perceive that their leaders are not providing help and support in implementing HPWS as they have stated or promised, and, therefore, may be viewed as inauthentic. Inauthentic leadership behaviors are likely to impair team members' mental well-being and work engagement (Weiss et al., 2018). This misalignment between teams and their leaders causes ambiguous action plans of HPWS, weakened strengths of HPWS, and less trusting environments, all of which will hinder the generation process of team human capital. At the same time, team members may not be well equipped with sufficient training or provided with opportunities to cooperate with each other, which may impede the development of work ties. As a result, members are unlikely to judiciously choose coworkers to collaborate and integrate information within the team and generate team social capital (Jia et al., 2014).

In contrast, when leaders perceive lower levels of HPWS use than their teams, the lack of agreement still influences team human and social capital but is less severe than when teams' perceptions are lower. When leaders estimate the HPWS as being lower than that perceived by their teams, leaders may increase their efforts to implement HPWS given the economic benefits of HPWS. From leaders' perspectives, team members may overestimate the level of HPWS, resulting in one of two scenarios. First, team members may have an illusion of HPWS implementation and may reduce their work efforts if their leaders provide insufficient support and guidance or are not consistent in implementing HPWS over time. Alternatively, the overestimation of HPWS use could be caused by relatively low expectations of HPWS set by the team, leading team members to experience greater anxiety and role overload, especially when their leader has a continually rising benchmark of team performance goals (Evans & Davis, 2005; Jensen et al., 2013). For example, team members may believe that their leaders have implemented more HPWS and provided unnecessary interventions, such as additional training, that take employees' time away from their primary tasks, a higher percentage of pay for performance to total compensation that creates extreme performance pressure, and more autonomy for the team when constructive suggestions and monitoring are what is needed (Larson & Callahan, 1990). Even though these situations imply leaders' overinvestment in their teams to develop human and social capital, teams have little motivation to engage in that quest. Stress will be followed by a reduction in knowledge and skill acquisition, in engagement in HR activities, and in the motivation to build connections with colleagues and, hence, the undermining of team human and social capital.

However, leaders will probably address this misunderstanding (i.e., high [low] perception in a team [leader]) actively rather than following a laissez-faire approach when their perceptions are higher than those of their teams (Bashshur et al., 2011). In addition, leaders' perceptions of HPWS use are more distal than teams' perceptions of HPWS use to team human and social capital. Team members' active engagement in HPWS is largely driven by their experience, and team members' perception of HPWS use may dominate and render the leaders' perception irrelevant. In the misalignment situation where teams have high levels of perceptions of HPWS, teams still reap benefits from HPWS (albeit uncomfortably). It is detrimental to have team members perceive lower levels of HPWS use than their leaders do. Therefore, team human and social capital are greater when a leader's perception of HPWS use is lower than the team's perceptions of HPWS use as compared to when the leader's perception of HPWS use is higher than the team's perceptions of HPWS use.

Hypothesis 2: Team (a) human capital and (b) social capital are higher when the leader's perception of HPWS use is lower than the team's collective perception of HPWS as compared to when the leader's perception of HPWS use is higher than the team's collective perception of HPWS use.

The Moderation Effects of Team Collective HR Attributions

Employees make attributions to understand the environment, and they take action accordingly (Weiner, 1985). I expect that the positive relationship between leader–team congruence of HPWS and team human and social capital will be moderated by members' perceptions of their organization's intention of implementing HPWS (i.e., HR attributions). Specifically, I focus on team collective well-being HR attributions and team collective exploitation HR attributions. Team collective well-being HR attributions mean that members of a team have a shared interpretation of their organization's motives behind HPWS implementation, which is to improve employee well-being. Teams with these HR attributions see their HPWS in a more positive light and as a result, they reciprocate in efforts to ease a sense of indebtedness—that is, to pay the employer back for treating them well (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Conversely, team collective exploitation HR attributions represent team members' shared belief that an organization's intention underlying HPWS implementation is to exploit and control them.

When team collective well-being HR attributions are high, the team goals and the associated benefits become salient, and teams will see a strong connection between their roles and HPWS. Also, teams with well-being HR attributions will heighten the obligation to committedly engage in HPWS to reciprocate the investment they receive.

Accordingly, those teams will actively acquire and nurture KSAOs as a result of HPWS implementation. More importantly, team collective well-being HR attributions accelerate the implementation of HPWS by amplifying the effect of leader–team congruence of HPWS on the team human capital.

The positive effect of high-level leader–team congruence of HPWS on team human and social capital will be strengthened when team members believe that HPWS are implemented for their development and growth. When team members make favorable attributions to HPWS implementation, team goals and related benefits are more salient to them. Team collective well-being HR attribution also amplify the obligation of team members to committedly engage in HR activities (Katou, 2021). With increased obligations, team members will be more attentive to work requirements and actively undertake high-performance work practices such as teamwork and decision-making, collectively acquire and nurture human capital resources, and feel psychologically connected with the team. Similarly, Gürlek and Uygur (2021) found evidence that when employees perceive that their organization implements HR practices to promote employee well-being, they have higher trust in their organization. In the same vein, high levels of team collective well-being HR attributions can provide team members with a psychologically safe and trusting environment, which encourages team members to express their ideas and share knowledge freely. Moreover, when employees ascribe positive intentions to their organization in its implementation of HPWS, they are more likely to respond positively to their organization and to people in the organization by actively developing relationships with coworkers and interacting with them frequently. In this manner, teams will generate more human and social capital. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 3: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team (a) human and (b) social capital is moderated by team collective well-being HR attributions such that when team collective well-being HR attributions are high, the influence on team human capital will be more positive than when team collective well-being HR attributions are low.

However, seeing that organizations implement HPWS to exploit and control employees, teams with aligned HPWS perceptions are less likely to be collaborative and collectively work for the team as this intention of HPWS is viewed as socially inappropriate by teams. Second, team collective exploitation HR attributions in and of themselves are a shared understanding of organizations' motives, and may discourage team members from upgrading their KSAOs by engaging in HPWS. Third, high levels of team collective exploitation HR attributions are detrimental to building a psychologically safe and trusting environment, meaning teams may be resistant to their leaders' guidance and instruction. As a result, the positive effect of congruence of HPWS between team leaders and teams on generating team human capital will be weaker.

Relatedly, team members' reactions to the team leader's unfavorable treatment are not directed solely toward the leader but also influence relationships with fellow team members (White & Lean, 2008). When teams attribute the motive of HPWS implementation to the exploitation of labor, team members are more motivated to pursue personal goals instead of team goals. These shared attributions make them inclined to collectively disengage in social interactions, and they do not feel accountable and responsible for high-performance work practices such as training, self-managed teams, and participation in team decision-making, resulting in a decrease in team members' capabilities and motivation to generate social capital. Besides, if employees perceive negative intentions behind their organization's implementation of HPWS, they are more inclined to exhibit negativity toward their organization by abstaining from frequent interactions with coworkers and refraining from building relationships with them. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 4: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team (a) human and (b) social capital is moderated by a team's collective exploitation HR attributions such that when team collective exploitation HR attributions are low, the influence on team social capital will be more positive than when team collective exploitation HR attributions are high.

Mediating Effects of Team Human and Social Capital

Organizations with human and social capital are more likely to have better organizational performance, as those forms of resources central to the achievement of competitive advantage (e.g., Barney, 1991; Crook et al., 2011; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005; Youndt et al., 2004; Youndt & Snell, 2004). In the same vein, I expect that leader–team congruence of HPWS will further influence team performance, a more downstream, behavioral consequence. Specifically, I focus on customer-directed citizenship behavior in addition to task performance as two representative indicators of team performance because they are important to the team in the service industry and have a strong association with team human and social capital (e.g., Zhang & Peterson, 2011; Lester et al., 2002; Reagans et al., 2004). Team task performance describes the team's performance (e.g., quality, quantity, and speed) in accomplishing their tasks (Liden et al., 2006), whereas customer-directed citizenship behavior is a type of interpersonal citizenship behavior that is not included in employees' job description but is important for companies to achieve higher service quality and customer satisfaction (Liao et al., 2009; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

A high congruence of HPWS perceptions facilitates the implementation process of HPWS, accumulating team members' KSAOs. These elements are indicative of human capital and enable team members to reduce task uncertainty and facilitate the execution of tasks (Cordery et al., 2010), such as delivering high-quality service to clients and providing high-quality outputs. Relatedly, HPWS strengthens and expands the human capital (skills and knowledge) required for performing citizenship behavior. Those skills include but are not limited to the problem-solving skills and social skills needed to deal with the diverse problems of coworkers and clients (Liao et al., 2009). Team-specific human capital that has the highest value within a team also emerge as a result of a shared understanding of HPWS and role expectations between leaders and teams.

These team-specific human capital help members to understand their roles and identify approaches for collaborating effectively to achieve their performance objectives. Knowledge about whom to contact when situations arise and knowledge about the strengths and weaknesses of their co-workers help team members to complete their tasks more efficiently and effectively. For example, when an employee's job includes unpleasant work responsibilities or dealing with challenging customers, they can use their professional capabilities developed from HPWS to complete tasks more efficiently or serve customers better. Moreover, when employees have accumulated sufficient knowledge about a particular topic, they can use that knowledge to make connections and build upon them to learn new information and techniques, thereby contributing to team performance and customer satisfaction.

When teams' and their leaders' perceptions of HPWS are aligned, especially at high levels, team members tend to have a strong desire for teamwork and to work collectively on their primary team tasks; they also make the best use of their KSAOs to serve customers. In contrast, when teams perceive HPWS implemented differently than their leader, team goals and the means to achieve them are unclear. Thus, the generation process of team human capital is weak, which in turn negatively influences team task performance and citizenship behavior. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 5: The leader–team congruence of HPWS use has a positive indirect relationship with team (a) task performance and (b)customer-directed citizenship behavior through team human capital.

Social capital, in this paper, is reflected in work connections within the team, suggesting the capacity to facilitate knowledge sharing among team members (Youndt & Snell, 2004). The successful completion of the team goal requires team members to interact closely and to attain a high level of behavioral synchronization and coordination (Jia et al., 2014). Members with high-quality social networks receive the unique benefits of social capital, given that greater trust, team cohesiveness, and social integration provide significant social and psychological advantages to each member (Belliveau et al., 1996). To the extent that team members build strong work relationships with each other where they know one another, they have a higher chance of achieving high levels of collaboration and prosocial behaviors because their dense work relationships encourage the exchange of information, build trust, and promote better coordination (Ahuja, 2000; Bolino et al., 2002; MacDuffie, 1995; Sparrowe et al., 2001).

Having high levels of social capital enables employees to look at problems from many angles as teams are capable of synthesizing, analyzing, comprehending, and assessing situations. Team members are also more willing to extend favors to one another and to subsume their interests to those of the team as a whole (Oh et al., 2004), behaviors that are conducive to team goal attainment and citizenship behavior toward clients. Furthermore, as the dense network facilitates the transfer of tacit knowledge and informal “rule of thumb” experience among team members (Kratzer et al., 2010; Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009), team members are more likely to seek advice from coworkers when handling demanding customers. As a result, employees can maintain motivation to go the extra mile to serve customers. Team social capital is regarded as a significant precursor to team performance, so leader–team congruence will enact higher service performance and more citizenship behavior through the development of social capital.

Hypothesis 6: The leader–team congruence of HPWS use has a positive indirect relationship with team (a) task performance and (b) customer-directed citizenship behavior through team social capital.

In sum, as I have hypothesized effects for leader–team (in)congruence of HPWS use on team human and social capital and team human and social capital are proximal antecedents of team service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior, I expect when there is an alignment between leaders' and teams' perception of HPWS at high levels, team members, and when there are higher (lower) levels of team collective well-being (exploitation) HR attributions, will generate greater human and social capital. This dynamic will lead to better team task performance and citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 7: Team human capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS on team (a) task performance and (b) customer-directed citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 8: Team social capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS on team (a) task performance and (b) customer-directed citizenship behavior.

CHAPTER 4

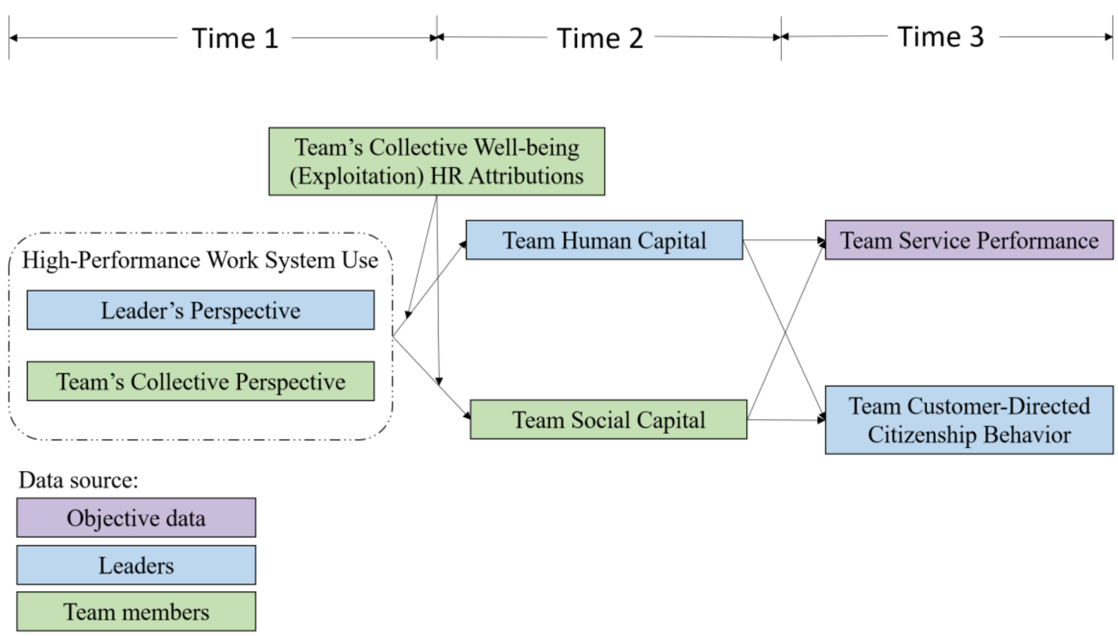
METHODS

Sample and Procedure

After obtaining consent and support from the CEO of a cosmetics company founded in 2011, I collected data from 190 of its stores. This company has stores in 21 provinces across China and all have similar reporting structures and provide similar products and services, such as makeup, skincare, waxing services, and beauty guides. In preparation for the survey, I conducted a series of one-on-one video interviews with two HR managers, three regional managers, five store managers, and three store subordinates. The objective was to gain a better understanding of their HR practices and the level of autonomy afforded to store managers in implementing HR practices that align with the company's general HR policies. The feedback received from these interviews suggested that store managers are responsible for hiring, scheduling, and supervising the staff members of the store and work with their team to set sales goals and develop strategies to achieve them. Store managers lead by example and ensure that all employees provide excellent customer service, and store managers also monitor inventory levels to make sure the store has an adequate supply of all products.

Store managers may adopt different HR practices or implement similar HR practices to differing degrees and that subordinates may perceive the implementation of certain HR practices differently than their store managers. For example, the company assigns employees learning modules (through an online platform) each month. Some store managers may be more experienced in this industry and in training subordinates by providing extra scenario-based training and mentoring, while others may only use the online learning platform. The store managers may claim that subordinates are allowed to make necessary changes in the work procedures, whereas subordinates indicate they were supposed to follow the directions when serving their customers. Respondents received 10 RMB ($1.46) in exchange for their participation in each survey. Respondents were given the link of the online surveys and used their phone numbers to access them. Before launching the surveys, I had the senior HR manager and CEO review the survey content and then modified items based on their suggestions.

To test the hypotheses presented above, I solicited information from three sources (i.e., HR department, store managers, and store subordinates). Specifically, HR managers provided objective data on sales of each store. At Time 1, both store managers and subordinates filled out a survey about their perceptions of HPWS implemented in their stores and reported their HR attributions. One month later, store managers evaluated their store's human capital and team members report their work ties to measure team social capital. At Time 3 (one month later), store managers evaluated employees' service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior. My data collection plan is presented in Figure 2 as well. In each survey, I included two attention-check questions asking participants to select a specific option on a five-point scale and a question asking whether I should trust their responses and use them in the analyses at the end of the survey. I excluded participants who missed all attention check items and who suggested not including their responses in the analysis. Two sets of surveys were administered to store managers and subordinates from 190 stores. After matching three-round responses, I obtained responses from 127 stores. However, in Time 2 survey, 47 stores failed to reach a within-store response rate (i.e., 75% required for social network analysis; Wasserman & Faust, 1994) and thus were excluded from my analyses. My final sample included 80 store managers and 199 store subordinates (average responses/store = 3.48). All respondents were female, which is not uncommon in cosmetic stores in China. Of the store managers, the average age was 29.81 years (*SD* = 4.97) and the average organizational tenure was 3.69 years (*SD* = 2.24). Of the store subordinates, the average age was 27.83 years (*SD* = 3.90) and the average organizational tenure was 1.47 years (*SD* = 1.04).



Note. The dependent variable "Team Task Performance" was substituted with "Team Service Performance" in Figure 1 to reflect the service-oriented context of the sample.

Figure 2. Data Collection Plan.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, participants responded to all questions on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Multiple-item scales can be found in Appendix B. For measures that were originally established in English, I used a translation-back translation procedure (Brislin, 1970) to ensure that all survey items are accurately translated into Chinese. A Chinese management professor fluent in English reviewed and validated the translations.

Team's Collective Perception of HPWS Use (T1; α = .96)

Store subordinates completed Chuang and Liao's (2010) 35-item HPWS scale that includes selective staffing (e.g., Recruitment emphasizes traits and abilities required for providing high quality of customer services), comprehensive training (e.g., Our store continuously provides training programs), involvement/participation (e.g., Employees are often asked to participate in work-related decisions), performance appraisals (e.g., Performance appraisals are based on objective, quantifiable results), compensation/rewards (e.g., Employee salaries and rewards are determined by their performance), and caring (e.g., Our store considers employee off-work situations [family, school, etc.] when making schedules). This scale has been validated in the service industry in Asian countries and used in many studies (e.g., Jiang et al., 2015). Appendix B lists all items. Subordinates were asked to evaluate the extent to which the following HRM practices are actually implemented in their work stores. Following previous collective-level research in strategic HRM (e.g., Liao et al., 2009; Takeuchi et al., 2007), I used an additive index (e.g., mean) of the 35 practices to present HPWS. Several indices were used to justify the use of an aggregation of subordinates' scores to represent a team construct (Bliese, 2000; James et al., 1984). Within-group agreement and intraclass correlations of team-rated HPWS, mean $rWG_{(j)}$ = .96; ICC(1) = .19 and ICC(2) = .37, suggested that aggregation of subordinates' ratings was reasonable. The ICC(2) value was relatively low, but this is consistent with prior research in the service context with a very small number of participants from each group (e.g., Liao et al., 2009).

Leader's Perception of HPWS Use (T1; α = .91)

Similar to team-rated HPWS use, store managers reported to the same 35-item scale from Chuang and Liao (2010) on the basis of their perceptions of the HR practices used in the store.

Team Collective Well-Being HR Attributions[i] (T1; α = .96)

I used a five-item employee well-being HR attributions scale from Nishii et al. (2008) to measure employee well-being HR attributions. Store subordinates reported their beliefs about why the major bundles of HR practices (i.e., training and development, reward systems, the selection process, performance appraisal, and employee participation) are implemented. A sample item is "training and development in our store are designed to promote our performance and growth." The aggregate value across store subordinates was used to capture their team-level employee HR attributions. Although

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[i] The CEO of the company did not allow me to collect exploitation HR attribution scale (Nishii et al., 2008) due to its potential negative impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors at work. The definitions of well-being (i.e., HPWS are designed to maximize employee well-being) and exploitation (i.e., HPWS are designed to get the most work out of employees) HR attributions seemingly indicate their opposite effects on employees. It may stand to reason that the effect of exploitation HR attributions can be inferred based on the effect of well-being HR attributions in my model.

the index $rWG_{(j)}$ (.79) indicated a substantial level of within-store agreement, this index is calculated exclusively on within-store factors and does not consider the relative variability between stores in the sample. Intraclass correlations ICC(1) = -.03, ICC(2) = -.07 were slightly negative, suggesting within-store variance was slightly higher than between-store variance (Bliese, 2000). That is, less agreement within store existed for employee well-being HR attributions when variability between stores was considered. As a result, I did not test hypotheses including team-level HR attributions as moderators (see more discussion in the supplemental analyses).

Team Human Capital (T2; α = .93)

Human capital in this study refers to store members' knowledge, skills, and abilities when performing their work. The widely used five-item human capital scale from Subramaniam and Youndt (2005) includes items—"employees are highly skilled," "employees are widely considered the best in our organization," "employees are creative and bright," "employees are experts in their particular jobs and functions," and "employees develop new ideas and knowledge." Based on the job description and responsibilities of store employees, I adapted the five-item human capital scale into an eight-item scale to explicitly measure team human capital for stores in this study, which accurately reflected store employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities required by their job. Store managers rated the extent to which they agree with the statements about team human capital. Sample items are "Our store employees understand the products' functions, effects, operating procedures and precautions," and "Our store employees pay attention to appearance, personal etiquette and hospitality etiquette."

Team Social Capital (T2)

Group social capital theory suggests that when a team has the optimal configuration of relationship ties, team members can have the greatest social capital (Oh et al., 2004). Accordingly, I focus on the density of work networks within a team to represent team social capital. I adopted a network approach to measure team social capital using the round-robin method. Specifically, I provided each respondent with a list of all their team members in their work team. Following Burt (1992), I asked respondents to rate "To what extent did you engage in work-related interaction with this person since last survey?" These network data are valued on a five-point scale (1 = no interaction, 2 = 1 day/week, 3 = 2-3 days/week, 4 = 4-5 days/week, 5 = more than 5 days/week). Social capital was measured as a team's density in the network of work relationships. A team's density is "the sum of the valued tie strengths in the group divided by the total possible sum of tie strengths among all members in the group" (Scott, 2000; Oh et al., 2004, p. 866).

Team Outcomes (T3)

I specifically focused on service performance and customer-directed organizational citizenship behavior to represent team task performance and interpersonal organizational citizenship behavior in the service industry. Drawing on prior research (e.g., Datta et al., 2005; Huselid, 1995), I measured service performance as the logarithm of the ratio of store sales to the number of store members. Store manager was also invited to provide evaluation on their store's service performance, which was measured with a seven-item scale from Chuang and Liao (2010). A sample item is: "Our store employees explain items' (services') features and benefits to overcome customers' objections." The Cronbach's alpha is .90. Customer-focused citizenship behavior (α = .85) was measured using a five-item scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). Store managers were asked to respond to what extent they agree with each of the five statements. Items were reworded for the store manager to rate store employees' overall performance. A sample item reads: "This team of employees seeks new ideas and ways to solve problems."

Control Variables (T1)

Due to my small sample size (i.e., 80 stores), I decided to minimize the number of control variables in my model. I have included store managers' age, organizational tenure, team members' average age, and average team tenure as control variables in my model, as these factors may influence their perception of HPWS implemented in their stores (Nishii & Wright, 2008). Additional variables were controlled for, including the location of the store (e.g., urban, suburban, or rural) and competitive intensity reported by store managers (e.g., "competition in our industry is cutthroat," Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Similar to previous team-level studies (i.e., Chuang et al., 2016; Pak & Kim, 2018), I controlled for team size measured by the total number of employees at the store because larger stores may have more human and social capital (Zellmer-Bruhn & Gibson, 2006). I controlled for store service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior at Time 1 because of their possible association with HPWS and human and social capital. I planned to control for subordinate-rated store manager's information sharing (mean $r_{WG(j)}$ = .92, ICC(1) = .12, ICC(2) = .25) with a six-item scale from Riordan et al.

(2005). However, its high correlation with team-level HPWS may cause multicollinearity and thus was removed from the analysis. I considered controlling for the within-group dispersion (i.e., standard deviation) in members' ratings of HPWS to partial out the effect of within-team variabilities of HPWS ratings (Cole et al., 2013; Carter & Mossholder, 2015; Gibson et al., 2009). Results with and without controls remain largely the same. To present more precise estimates of the effects of predictors of interest, I reported results with the six most important controls included (i.e., location, competitive intensity, team size, T1 store service performance, T1 customer-directed citizenship behavior, and HPWS dispersion).

Analytic Strategy

Consistent with other studies on congruence (e.g., Bernerth et al., 2021; Matta et al., 2015; Sessions et al, 2022), I used the polynomial regression and response surface method (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993) to examine the outcomes of the leader–team (in)congruence on HPWS use. These two practices are viewed as the "best practices" for examining incongruence effects by providing more comprehensive, reliable, and interpretable results than using difference scores. For example, difference scores treat high-high congruence and low-low congruence as the same as they both yield a difference score of zero. Response surface analysis is more appropriate for my hypotheses predicting difference in congruence at different levels.

To eliminate nonessential multicollinearity and enable the interpretation of the predictors' differences from the mean values, I mean-centered leader- and team-rated HPWS before calculating the quadratic terms (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Because response surface analyses are sensitive to influential observations, I used leverage (more than twice the average value), standardized residuals (more than three times the average value), and Cook's distance (more than 4/N) to screen for outliers (Lambert et al., 2012), with no influential patterns found. The polynomial regression equation includes five terms as follows (control variables are omitted for simplification):

$$Y = b_0 + b_1\mathrm{T} + b_2\mathrm{L} + b_3\mathrm{T}^2 + b_4(\mathrm{L}\times\mathrm{T}) + b_5\mathrm{L}^2 + \mathrm{e}. \qquad (1)$$

where Y denotes team human or social capital, T denotes team-rated HPWS, and L denotes leader-rated HPWS, respectively. The polynomial regression coefficients (i.e., b_0-b_5) were used to calculate the slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines to generate a three-dimensional response surface with T and L values plotted in the range of (after mean-centering) maximum and minimum values.

(In)Congruence Effect

To test Hypotheses 1a and 1b, which predicted human and social human will be higher when team-rated HPWS and leader-rated HPWS are congruent at a high level than congruent at a low level, I evaluated whether the slope (i.e., $b_1 + b_2$) was positive and significant and whether the curvature (i.e., $b_3 + b_4 + b_5$) was not significant along the congruence line of the surface plot (T = L). A significant negative slope and nonsignificant curvature along the congruence lines indicate support for Hypotheses 1a and 1b.

To test Hypotheses 2a and 2b (i.e., asymmetrical incongruence effect between high-low incongruence and low-high congruence), I first examined the congruence effect (not hypothesized here) and checked the presence of a downward curve along the incongruence line (T = -L). Then I investigated the extent to which human/social capital declined when team-rated HPWS and leader-rated HPWS are incongruent. A significant and positive slope (i.e., b_1 - b_2) along the incongruence line was expected to support the proposed asymmetrical incongruence effect. I also calculated the lateral shift quantity (i.e., $[b_2 - b_1]/[2 \times (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)]$, which suggests the magnitude and direction of a lateral shift along the incongruence line on the response surface (Bernerth et al., 2021; Matta et al., 2015). A positive quantity indicated that human or social capital decreases more sharply in the region where leader perceptions are higher than in the region where leader perceptions are lower, supporting Hypotheses 2a and 2b. The equation involves evaluating the significance of the ratio of regression coefficients and should be tested using nonparametric procedures, so I generated 10, 000 bootstrapped samples to estimate 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the lateral shift quantity (Edwards & Parry, 1993).

Moderating Effects

To test Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b (i.e., moderating effects of team well-being development and exploitation HR attributions), I first added the moderator (M) and five corresponding terms (i.e., moderator X each of the five polynomial terms) to the polynomial regression model.

$$Y = b_0 + b_1\mathrm{T} + b_2\mathrm{L} + b_3\mathrm{T}^2 + b_4(\mathrm{L}\times\mathrm{T}) + b_6\mathrm{M} + b_7\mathrm{L}^2\times\mathrm{M} + b_8\mathrm{T}\times\mathrm{M} + b_9\mathrm{L}\times\mathrm{M} + b_{10}\mathrm{T}^2\times\mathrm{M} + b_{11}(\mathrm{L}\times\mathrm{T}\times\mathrm{M}) + b_{11}\mathrm{L}^2\times\mathrm{M} + \mathrm{e}. \quad (2)$$

I then calculated the curvature along the incongruence line one standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean of team HR attribution to find whether the difference was significant.

Indirect Effects

To test the indirect effects of leader–team congruence on team service performance and customer-targeted citizenship behavior through human and social capital, I followed Edwards and Cable's (2009) approach to create a block variable. I regressed mediators and dependent variables on the five polynomial terms and used the regression weights to create block variables (i.e., weighted linear composite). I then replaced the five original polynomial terms with this block variable and reran the polynomial regression. The variance explained by the block variable is the same as the variance explained by the five polynomial terms. The indirect effect was calculated by multiplying the standardized estimate for the block variable on human/social capital (a path) and the standardized estimate of team human/social capital on team service performance/customer-targeted citizenship behavior (b path, controlling for the respective block variable). Due to the potentially nonnormal distribution of the product of these regression coefficients, I utilized the Monte Carlo approach with 10,000 bootstraps to create biased-corrected 95% confidence intervals around these indirect effects.

To test whether human/social capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence effect on team outcome. I created a block variable by adding six terms (equation 2). Similar to the procedure described above, I calculated the indirect effect by a product of the standardized estimate for the block variable on mediators and the standardized estimate for the mediators on team outcomes. If the bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals with 10,000 bootstrap samples exclude zero, Hypotheses 7a, 7b, 8a, and 8b are supported.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

I first conducted confirmatory factor analyses using Mplus 8.6 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). to examine the discriminant validity of the variables. However, when loading all HPWS items (35 items) onto the HPWS latent construct, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model failed to converge. Similar to previous research on HR systems, such as Drasgow and Kanfer (1985) and Zacharatos et al. (2005), I adopted the subscale aggregation approach to calculate the mean scores of each subscale (e.g., staffing) and used them as indicators of the latent variable HPWS in the CFA. Additionally, to generate a more reliable outcome by improving my low sample size to items ratio (Landis et al., 2000; Little et al., 2002), I created four empirically balanced parcels for team human capital (an eight-item scale) by assigning the item with the highest factor loading to the first parcel, the second highest to the second parcel, and so on. The parceling approach is acceptable as my goal is to understand the relationships among latent variables instead of among items (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). This approach is widely utilized in organizational behavior research (e.g., Aw et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2017). Given the low ICC values of HR attributions, I excluded it from my analyses and specified a six-factor model including team-rated HPWS, leader-rated HPWS, human capital, social capital, team service performance, and team customer-directed citizenship behavior, which exhibited acceptable fit to the data: χ^2 (217) = 304.03, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .92, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .07, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .07.

Table 2 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the study variables.

Hypotheses Testing

In Hypotheses 1a and 1b, I predicted that levels of human capital and social capital are higher when leaders' perception of HPWS use and teams' collective perception of HPWS use are aligned and high, as opposed to aligned but at low levels. Table 3 displays a slope that was significantly positive (*slope* = .47, $p < .05$) and curvature that is not statistically significant (*curvature* = .61, *ns*) along the congruence line, with human capital represented on the Y axis. However, there was no statistically significant slope (*slope* = .05, *ns*) or curvature (*curvature* = .02, *ns*) observed along the congruence line when social capital was plotted on the Y axis. As shown in Figure 3, human capital decreases along the congruence line from the back corner to the front corner on the surfaces, and the surface remains flat along the congruence line in Figure 4. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was supported, and Hypothesis 1b was not.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted that human capital and social capital are higher when teams perceive higher levels of HPWS use than leaders, compared to when teams perceive lower levels of HPWS use. To test these two hypotheses, I calculated the lateral shift quantity, and a significantly positive lateral shift quantity would suggest that teams shift quantity, and a significantly positive lateral shift quantity would suggest that teams who perceive higher levels of HPWS use than their leaders have higher levels of human capital and social capital. For human capital, the lateral shift quantity was not significant, and the curvature along the incongruence line was not significant (*curvature* = .59, *ns*),

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities and Correlations among Variables*

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	4	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.	Teams-rated HPWS	4.17	.40	(.96)													
2.	Team-rated staffing	4.47	.41	.78*	(.86)												
3.	Team-rated training	4.41	.43	.84*	.75*	(.86)											
4.	Team-rated involvement	3.83	.50	.77*	.51*	.56*	(.80)										
5.	Team-rated appraisal	4.24	.44	.90*	.65*	.72*	.65*	(.86)									
6.	Team-rated compensation	4.03	.52	.89*	.58*	.66*	.57*	.82*	(.91)								
7.	Team-rated caring	4.03	.59	.88*	.56*	.63*	.58*	.75*	.83*	(.90)							
8.	Leader-rated HPWS	4.20	.39	.23*	.19	.21	.11	.20	.22*	.22	(.91)						
9.	Leader-rated staffing	4.55	.42	-.02	-.01	.03	-.01	-.02	-.07	.06	.66*	(.71)					
10.	Leader-rated training	4.31	.57	.18	.17	.18	.05	.22*	.16	.14	.72*	.50*	(.80)				
11.	Leader-rated involvement	3.89	.59	.09	.14	.07	.06	.11	.10	.02	.60*	.30*	.34*	(.75)			
12.	Leader-rated appraisal	4.26	.47	.19	.15	.21	.07	.14	.20	.21	.77*	.48*	.37*	.40*	(.66)		
13.	Leader-rated compensation	4.07	.63	.31*	.21	.29*	.19	.25*	.36*	.27*	.77*	.30*	.44*	.30*	.63*	(.88)	
14.	Leader-rated caring	4.12	.65	.15	.09	.13	.07	.09	.12	.23*	.70*	.39*	.38*	.17	.45*	.49*	(.83)
15.	Employee Well-being HRA	4.03	.53	.63*	.41*	.50*	.48*	.56*	.62*	.58*	.19	.14	.19	.11	.05	.24*	.06
16.	Human Capital	4.35	.58	.19	.24*	.13	.25*	.18	.17	.15	.31*	.23*	.24*	.16	.15	.21	.32*
17.	Social Capital	.85	.07	.29*	.29*	.22	.19	.30*	.21	.26*	.01	.00	-.02	.03	.03	.00	.00
18.	T3 Store Obj. Perf. [b]	4.31	.25	-.24	-.19	-.13	-.32*	-.22	-.14	-.20	-.18	-.15	-.08	-.14	-.19	-.11	-.10
19.	T3 Store Service Perf.	4.41	.51	-.03	-.02	-.16	-.02	.05	-.02	-.03	.37*	.37*	.18	.27*	.24*	.13	.38*
20.	T3 Store OCB-Customer	4.23	.53	.13	.15	.07	.10	.09	.06	.15	.36*	.34*	.18	.22	.27*	.16	.35*
21.	T1 Store Obj. Perf. [b]	4.25	.40	-.07	-.06	-.05	-.07	-.04	-.02	-.10	-.12	-.17	-.08	-.06	-.07	-.03	-.13

Table 2. (continued)

	Variable	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
15.	Employee Well-being HRA	(.96)																
16.	Human Capital	.10	(.93)															
17.	Social Capital	.21	.22*															
18.	T3 Store Obj. Perf. [b]	-.05	-.14	-.21														
19.	T3 Store Service Perf.	-.19	.43*	.21	-.17	(.90)												
20.	T3 Store OCB-Customer	-.06	.37*	.24*	-.08	.67*	(.85)											
21.	T1 Store Obj. Perf. [b]	-.17	-.06	-.03	.37*	-.16	-.14											
22.	T1 Store Service Perf.	.00	.36*	.07	-.23*	.41*	.39*	-.20	(.83)									
23.	T1 Store OCB-Customer	-.19	.29*	-.07	-.13	.32*	.50*	-.11	.35*	(.89)								
24.	Leader's Info. Sharing	.39*	.08	.22	-.04	.01	.07	.09	-.03	-.08	(.99)							
25.	HPWS Dispersion	-.19	-.20	-.24*	.21	-.01	-.18	-.01	-.08	-.06	-.23*							
26.	Location	-.08	.01	.03	-.16	.06	-.08	.02	-.11	-.03	-.01	.12						
27.	Competitive Intensity	-.05	.19	-.06	-.12	.17	.25*	-.11	.26*	.19	.05	.03	.12	(.77)				
28.	Employee Ave. Age [a]	-.16	.16	.26*	-.42*	.02	.03	-.08	.11	.05	-.10	-.14	.28*	.25*				
29.	Employee Ave. Tenure [a]	-.04	.03	.16	-.15	-.14	.05	.12	-.09	.14	-.08	.10	.14	-.04	.28*			
30.	Team Size	-.11	-.11	-.22	-.11	.15	.10	.03	.13	.04	-.09	-.02	-.10	.12	-.15	-.20		
31.	Leader Age [a]	-.02	.02	.07	-.17	-.22*	-.19	.27*	-.14	-.13	.11	-.15	.01	-.04	.34*	.15	-.14	
32.	Leader Tenure [a]	-.06	.01	-.04	.16	-.01	-.03	.32*	-.19	.05	.13	.07	-.03	-.03	-.02	.18	-.01	.13

Table 2. (continued)

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
22.	T1 Store Service Perf.	4.42	.44	.15	.15	.13	.13	.17	.11	.10	.61*	.39*	.50*	.29*	.41*	.42*	.53*
23.	T1 Store OCB-Customer	4.14	.78	.03	.01	-.08	.14	.01	.00	.02	.28*	.34*	.23*	.18	.21	.09	.20
24.	Leader's Info. Sharing	4.48	.43	.64*	.51*	.49*	.34*	.60*	.70*	.58*	.19	-.01	.12	.06	.18	.35*	.07
25.	HPWS Dispersion	.41	.31	-.33*	-.33*	-.26*	-.19	-.26*	-.30*	-.33*	-.03	.04	-.15	.16	-.06	-.12	.03
26.	Location	1.86	.81	-.10	.00	-.15	-.04	-.09	-.15	-.06	-.04	-.02	-.05	.18	.09	-.12	-.22
27.	Competitive Intensity	4.04	.63	.17	.15	.15	.06	.13	.15	.20	.39*	.12	.12	.32*	.39*	.36*	.31*
28.	Employee Ave. Age [a]	27.83	3.90	.00	.16	.12	.00	.00	-.12	-.08	.08	-.02	.02	.18	.09	.04	.01
29.	Employee Ave. Tenure [a]	1.47	1.04	-.10	-.11	-.14	.09	-.12	-.17	-.10	-.06	.09	-.06	.08	.00	-.06	-.23*
30.	Team Size	3.61	.65	.04	-.03	.05	.05	-.01	.05	.07	.02	.10	-.12	-.11	.11	.06	.08
31.	Leader Age [a]	29.81	4.97	.20	.15	.23*	.24*	.21	.10	.11	-.22*	-.24*	-.20	-.21	-.12	-.07	-.12
32.	Leader Tenure [a]	3.69	2.24	-.04	-.09	-.08	.11	-.02	.01	-.15	-.16	-.25*	-.16	.00	-.12	.09	-.28*

Notes. *N* = 80 stores. Cronbach alpha in parentheses. Location: Urban = 3, Suburban = 2, Rural = 1. T1 = Time 1, T3 = Time 3. Perf. = Performance. Obj. = Objective. Ave. = Average. Info. = Information. * $p < 0.05$.

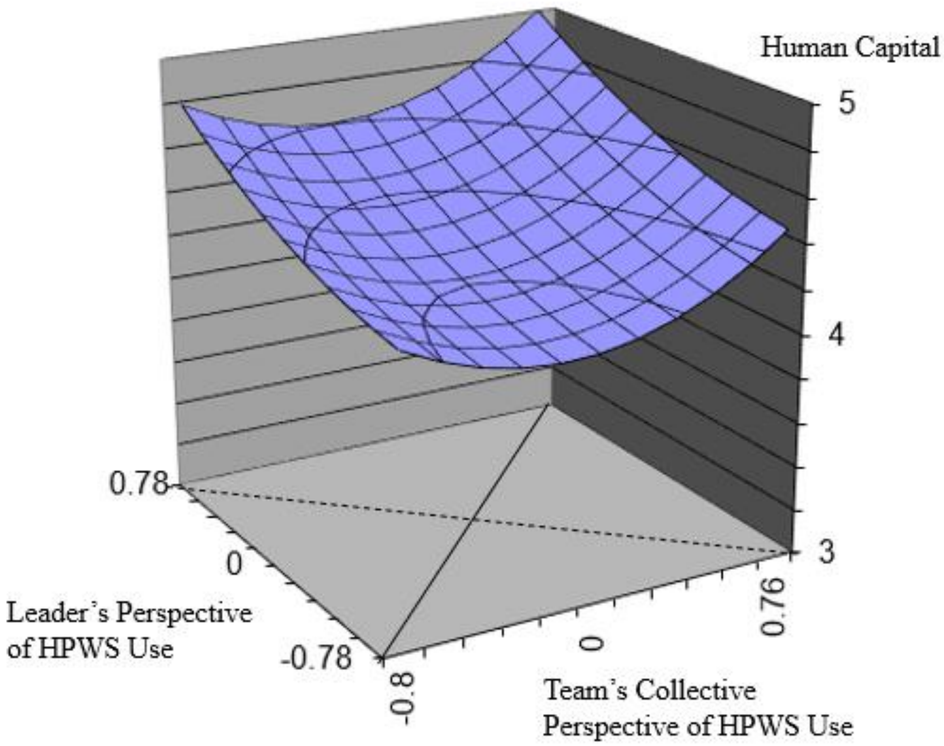
[a] In Years

[b] logarithm of the ratio of sales to number of employees.

Table 3. *Polynomial Regression Results.*

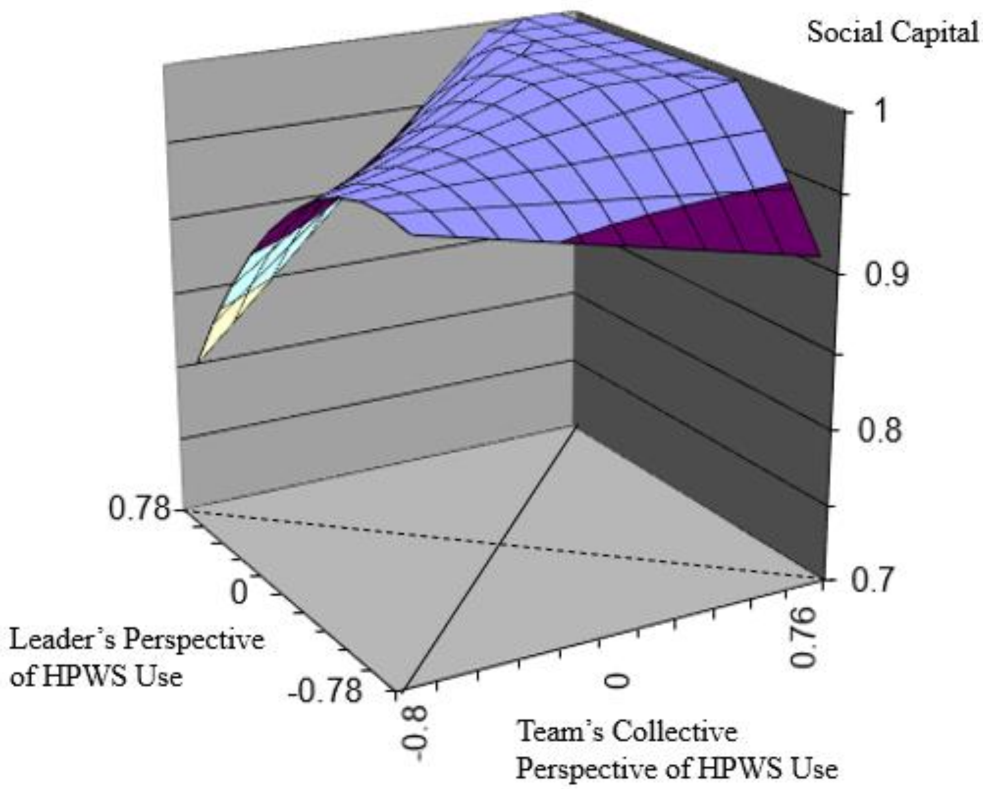
Variables	Team Human Capital *b*	Team Human Capital *SE*	Team Social Capital *b*	Team Social Capital *SE*
Constant (b_0)	4.27*	.66	.99*	.07
Team size	-.06	.10	-.02	.01
Competitive intensity	.09	.15	-.01	.02
Location	.01	.10	.01	.01
Dispersion of HPWS perceived by team	-.37	.25	-.04	.03
Team's perception of HPWS use (T) (b_1)	.15	.19	.06*	.02
Leader's perception of HPWS use (L) (b_2)	.32*	.15	-.01	.02
T^2 (b_3)	.46	.36	.00	.04
$L \times T$ (b_4)	.01	.56	.12*	.06
L^2 (b_5)	.14	.43	-.09	.05
R^2	.17		.23*	
Congruence Line:				
Slope (b_1+b_2)	.47*	.23	.05	.03
Curvature ($b_3+b_4+b_5$)	.61	.57	.02	.09
Incongruence Line:				
Slope (b_1-b_2)	-.18	.26	.07*	.04
Curvature ($b_3-b_4+b_5$)	.59	1.01	-.21*	.09
Lateral shift quantity	.15		.17	

Note. N = 80 stores. Location: Urban = 3, Suburban = 2, Rural = 1. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Values in parentheses are standard errors. * $p < 0.05$.



Note. Solid line is congruence line; Dashed line is incongruence line.

Figure 3. The Congruence Effect of Leader–team HPWS Use on Human Capital.



Note. Solid line is congruence line; Dashed line is incongruence line.

Figure 4. The Congruence Effect of Leader–team HPWS Use on Social Capital.

indicating the surface is considered to be flat (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Accordingly, the asymmetrical incongruence effect on human capital could not be found and Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

For social capital, Table 3 indicates a significant positive slope (*slope* = .07, $p <$ .05) and significant negative curvature (*slope* = -.21, $p < .05$) along the incongruence line. The calculated lateral shift quantity was .17(95% CI [.02, 48], one-tailed test). Therefore, Hypothesis 2b was support. Figure 4 illustrates that social capital decreases more sharply when leaders' perception of HPWS use is higher (i.e., L > T, the left area of the congruence line) than when leaders' perception of HPWS use is lower (i.e., L < T, the right area of the congruence line).

Hypotheses 3a and 3b [ii] propose that team HR attributions moderate the leader–team congruence on human capital and social capital. Results for team human capital (see Model 2 in Table 4) show that the slope and curvature along the congruence and incongruence lines at a high level (i.e., one SD above the mean) and a low level (i.e., one SD below the mean) of team collective well-being HR attributions were not significant. For social capital, I found the slope (*slope* = .12, $p < .05$) and curvature (*curvature* = -.22, $p < .05$) along the congruence were significant, suggesting an inverted U-shaped relationship between leader–team congruence of HPWS use and team social capital, rather than a linear relationship; the slope and curvature along the incongruence line were both nonsignificant at a higher or lower level of team collective well-being HR

[ii] As stated in footnote i, Hypotheses 4a and 4b (moderating effect of team collective exploitation HR attributions) were not able to test in this study due to exploitation HR attributions not measured.

Table 4. *Polynomial Regression Results with Team Collective Well-being HR Attributions as a Moderator.*

Variable	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	Human Capital	**Social Capital**	**Human Capital**	**Social Capital**
Constant (b_0)	4.27*(.60)	.99* (.06)	4.27* (.63)	.95* (.06)
Team size	-.06 (.10)	-.02 (.01)	-.06 (.08)	-.02 (.01)
Competitive intensity	.09 (.13)	-.01 (.02)	.09 (.13)	-.01 (.01)
Location	.01 (.09)	.01 (.01)	.00 (.08)	.01 (.01)
Dispersion of HPWS perceived by team	-.37 (.20)	-.04 (.03)	-.39 (.22)	-.04 (.03)
Team's perception of HPWS use (T) (b_1)	.15 (.17)	.06* (.02)	.30 (.22)	.08* (.02)
Leader's perception of HPWS use (L) (b_2)	.32* (.12)	-.01 (.02)	.42* (.14)	.00 (.02)
T^2 (b_3)	.46 (.30)	.00 (.03)	.35 (.41)	.01 (.04)
$L \times T$ (b_4)	.01 (.42)	.12* (.05)	-.44 (.60)	.04 (.04)
L^2 (b_5)	.14 (.38)	-.09* (.04)	.20 (.37)	-.09* (.04)
Team's collective well-being HRA (M)			-.04 (.20)	.02 (.02)
$M \times T$			-.04 (.43)	-.02 (.03)
$M \times L$			.52 (.33)	.10* (.04)
$M \times T^2$			-.40 (.55)	-.05 (.05)
$M \times L \times T$			-.98 (.93)	-.12 (.09)
$M \times L^2$			.36 (.68)	-.16* (.07)
R^2	.17*	.23*	.21*	.29*
ΔR^2			.04	.06
Moderator +1 SD				
Congruence Line:				
Slope			.97 (.34)	.12* (.05)
Curvature			-.43 (.77)	-.22* (.10)
Incongruence Line:				
Slope			-.43 (.34)	.01 (.05)
Curvature			1.48 (1.44)	-.16 (.10)
Moderator -1 SD				
Congruence Line:				
Slope			.47 (.34)	.04 (.03)
Curvature			.65 (.60)	.13 (.08)
Incongruence Line:				
Slope			.18 (.50)	.14* (.04)
Curvature			.49 (1.34)	-.07 (.11)
Difference in Curvature			.99 (1.85)	-.09 (.15)

Note. Same as Table 3.

attributions. Thus, neither Hypothesis 3a nor Hypothesis 3b was supported. In the same vein, the hypotheses regarding the mediated moderation effects (Hypotheses 7a, 7b, 8a, and 8b) were not supported. However, it is important to note that the result should be interpreted with caution due to the low level of agreement on well-being HR attributions within teams, making it difficult to establish a team-level shared perception of such attributions.

Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b suggest the indirect effect of leader–team HPWS congruence on team outcomes through the mediating variables of human capital and social capital. Table 5a revealed that the block variable had a significant effect on human capital (standardized $b = .31$, $p < .01$) and social capital (standardized $b = .38$, $p < .001$). Additionally, social capital had a significant effect on customer-directed citizenship behavior (standardized $b = .28$, $p < .05$). Table 5a does not show any significant effects for the human capital on customer-directed citizenship behavior, as well as human capital and social capital on objective service performance. Taken together, I only found a significant positive indirect effect (indirect effect = .10, 95% CI = [.04, .19]) of leader–team perceptual congruence through social capital. Thus, I only found support for Hypothesis 6b and not for Hypotheses 6a, 5a, and 5b. Wall et al. (2004) found consistent support for the convergent validity (i.e., subjective performance was positively related to objective performance) and construct validity (i.e., subjective performance and the objective performance had equivalent relationships with a range of independent variables) of subjective performance. As such, I also tested Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b with leader-rated subjective service performance using a seven-item scale from Chuang

Table 5. *Indirect Effects of Leader–Team HPWS Congruence on Team Outcomes.*

(a)

	Outcome: Team Performance			
	Team Objective Service Performance		Team OCB-Customer	
	Mediator		Mediator	
Path	Human Capital	Social Capital	Human Capital	Social Capital
The block variable → Mediator (a path)	.31*	.38*	.31*	.38*
Mediator → Outcomes (b path)	.01	-.18	.15	.28*
Indirect effect (ab)	.00	-.07	.05	.10
95% bootstrapped CIs for indirect effect (ab)	[-.07, .06]	[-.17, .00]	[-.01, .14]	[.04, .19]

(b)

	Outcome: Team Performance			
	Team Subjective Service Performance		Team OCB-Customer	
	Mediator		Mediator	
Paths	Human Capital	Social Capital	Human Capital	Social Capital
The block variable → Mediator (a path)	.31*	.38*	.31**	.38*
Mediator → Outcomes (b path)	.33*	.26*	.16	.27*
Indirect effect (ab)	.10	.10	.05	.10
95% bootstrapped CIs for indirect effect (ab)	[.02, .23]	[.03, .20]	[-.01, .16]	[.04, .20]

Note. Standardized coefficients are reported. * $p < 0.05$.

and Liao (2010). The effects of human capital (standardized $b = .33$, $p < .01$) and social capital (standardized $b = .26$, $p < .05$) on service performance became significant. In addition to supporting Hypothesis 5b (indirect effect = .10, 95% CI = [.04, .20]), Table 5b shows that the leader–team congruence of HPWS use had a positive indirect effect on subjective service performance via human capital (indirect effect = .10, 95% CI = [.02, .23]) and social capital (indirect effect = .10, 95% CI = [.03, .20]), a significant positive indirect effect, supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Table 6 provides a summary of the results of my hypotheses.

Supplemental Analyses

Although previous research on collective sensemaking has suggested that team-level HR attributions exist (e.g., Fan et al., 2021), my study found a low level of intraclass correlation and was unable to justify the aggregations for team-level HR attributions. This is similar to the findings of Guest et al. (2021), indicating that employees in my sample may hold different HR attributions, or the same HR attribution to different extent, and that the difference within store is greater than the difference across stores. In line with it, Hu and Oh (2022) have called for research on collective HR attributions to consider the level of consensus in HR attribution within a unit, suggesting that high consensus would lead to more effective implementation of HR systems. Therefore, I conducted a supplemental analysis to test the moderating effect of the dispersion (i.e., standard deviation) of team well-being HR attribution. A high level of dispersion indicates that the HR attributions within a team are widely varied, which suggests a lack of consensus or agreement among team members. Conversely, a low level

Table 6. *Summary of the Results of Hypotheses.*

Hypotheses	Objective Service Performance	Subjective Service Performance
H1a: Team human capital is higher when the team's collective and its leader's perception of HPWS use are congruent at a high level rather than congruent at a low level.	Yes	Yes
H1b: Team social capital is higher when the team's collective and its leader's perception of HPWS use are congruent at a high level rather than congruent at a low level.	No	No
H2a: Team human capital is higher when the leader's perception of HPWS use is lower than the team's collective perception of HPWS use as compared to when the leader's perception of HPWS use is higher than the team's collective perception of HPWS use.	No	No
H2b: Team social capital is higher when the leader's perception of HPWS use is lower than the team's collective perception of HPWS use as compared to when the leader's perception of HPWS use is higher than the team's collective perception of HPWS use.	Yes	Yes
H3a: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team human capital is moderated by team collective well-being HR attributions such that when team collective well-being HR attributions are high, the influence on team human capital will be more positive than when team collective well-being HR attributions are low.	No	No
H3b: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team social capital is moderated by team collective well-being HR attributions such that when a team's collective well-being HR attributions are high, the influence on team social capital will be more positive than when team collective well-being HR attributions are low.	No	No

Table 6. (continued)

Hypotheses	Objective Service Performance	Subjective Service Performance
H4a: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team human capital is moderated by team collective exploitation HR attributions such that when team collective exploitation HR attributions are low, the influence on team human capital will be more positive than when team collective exploitation HR attributions are high.	N/A [a]	N/A [a]
H4b: The positive influence of leader-term congruence of HPWS use on team social capital is moderated by team collective exploitation HR attributions such that when team collective exploitation HR attributions are low, the influence on team social capital will be more positive than when team collective exploitation HR attributions are high.	N/A [a]	N/A [a]
H5a: The leader–team congruence of HPWS use has a positive indirect relationship with team task performance through team human capital.	No	Yes
H5b: The leader–team congruence of HPWS use has a positive indirect relationship with team customer-directed citizenship behavior through team human capital.	No	No
H6a: The leader–team congruence of HPWS use has a positive indirect relationship with team task performance through team social capital.	No	Yes
H6b: The leader–team congruence of HPWS has a positive indirect relationship with team customer-directed citizenship behavior through team social capital.	Yes	Yes
H7a: Team human capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS on team task performance.	No	No
H7b: Team human capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS use on team customer-directed citizenship behavior.	No	No

Table 6. (continued)

Hypotheses	**Objective Service Performance**	**Subjective Service Performance**
H8a: Team social capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS use on team task performance.	No	No
H8b: Team social capital mediates the moderated leader–team congruence of HPWS use on team customer-directed citizenship behavior.	No	No

Note. [a] Hypotheses were not tested because the exploitation HR attributions were not measured due to the restriction from the CEO of the cosmetic organization.

of dispersion indicates that HR attributions are more consistent and that there is a higher level of agreement among team members.

I hypothesized that the positive impact of leader-term congruence on team human/social capital would be moderated by the dispersion of team well-being HR attributions. Specifically, I expected that when the dispersion of team collective well-being HR attributions was low, the positive influence on team human and social capital would be stronger compared to when the dispersion was high, because a low level of dispersion of team collective well-being HR attributions implies that team members are more likely to work together towards common goals, share knowledge and information, and support each other, thereby further contributing to the development of team human and social capital. Table 7 displays that there was no significant difference in the curvature along the incongruence line with human capital (difference = -1.08, *ns*) or social capital (difference = -.32, *ns*) represented on the Y-axis at one standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean of the dispersion of team well-being HR attributions. As reported in Table 7, results for human capital shows a significant slope (*Slope* = .61, $p < .05$) but a nonsignificant curvature (*Curvature* = .81, *ns*) along the congruence line at a lower level of dispersion. This indicates a positive effect of congruence between leaders and teams regarding HPWS use (i.e., congruence at a high level is better than congruence at a low level of HPWS use) on human capital only when the dispersion of team well-being HR attributions was lower (vs. higher). As for social capital, I found significant, positive slope (*slope* = .13, $p < .05$) and curvature (*Curvature* = -.35, $p < .05$) along the incongruence line at a higher level of dispersion (+1 SD). At a lower level of dispersion

Table 7. *Polynomial Regression Results with the Dispersion of Team Well-being HR Attributions as a Moderator.*

Variable	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	Human Capital	**Social Capital**	**Human Capital**	**Social Capital**
Constant (b_0)	4.27*(.60)	.99* (.06)	4.00* (.61)	1.01* (.07)
Team size	-.06 (.10)	-.02 (.01)	-.05 (.13)	-.02* (.01)
Competitive intensity	.09 (.13)	-.01 (.02)	.13 (.16)	-.02 (.01)
Location	.01 (.09)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.09)	.01 (.01)
Dispersion of HPWS perceived by team	-.37 (.20)	-.04 (.03)	-.26 (.32)	-.01 (.03)
Teams' perception of HPWS use (T) (b_1)	.15 (.17)	.06* (.02)	.09 (.18)	-.06* (.02)
Leaders' perception of HPWS use (L) (b_2)	.32* (.12)	-.01 (.02)	.30 (.14)	.00 (.03)
T^2 (b_3)	.46 (.30)	.00 (.03)	.51 (.33)	.02 (.04)
$L \times T$ (b_4)	.01 (.42)	.12* (.05)	-.12 (.48)	.10 (.07)
L^2 (b_5)	.14 (.38)	-.09* (.04)	.22 (.42)	-.11* (.06)
Dispersion of Team well-being HRA (M)			.11 (.22)	-.01 (.03)
$M \times T$			-.21 (.46)	.09* (.04)
$M \times L$			-.21 (.27)	-.03 (.04)
$M \times T^2$			-.73 (.55)	.10 (.07)
$M \times L \times T$			.34 (1.11)	.32* (.16)
$M \times L^2$			-.02 (.91)	-.10 (.11)
R^2	.17*	.23*	.22	.29*
ΔR^2			.05	.06
Moderator +1 SD				
Congruence Line:				
Slope			.19 (.42)	.09 (.05)
Curvature			.40 (.82)	.18 (.11)
Incongruence Line:				
Slope			-.21 (.38)	.13* (.04)
Curvature			.03 (1.26)	-.35* (.15)
Moderator -1 SD				
Congruence Line:				
Slope			.61* (.24)	.03 (.03)
Curvature			.81 (.64)	-.14 (.12)
Incongruence Line:				
Slope			-.21 (.33)	.01 (.05)
Curvature			1.38 (1.42)	-.03 (.16)
Difference in Curvature			-1.08 (2.04)	-.32 (.27)

Note. Same as Table 3.

(-1 SD), no significant slope and curvature along congruence and incongruence lines were found, which indicates a flat surface. Therefore, the effect of congruence (i.e., leader–team congruence is better than leader–team incongruence) on social capital occurs when there is a high level of dispersion in employees well-being HR attributions within groups, suggesting that the level of agreement or disagreement between leaders and team members regarding HPWS use has little effect on social capital when there is a low level of dispersion (variability) in employees' well-being HR attributions within groups. The low variability in employees' HR attributions within teams seemingly compensates for the loss resulting from the perceptual discrepancy of HPWS use between leaders and team members.

In addition, I conducted a supplemental analysis to investigate whether they are interchangeably. I removed the quadratic terms and product term from the model to focus solely on these two variables. To determine whether the variables are interchangeable, I considered three criteria: (a) whether they have a strong correlation, (b) whether the factor analysis indicates a unidimensional factor structure (i.e., a one-factor model fits the data better than a two-factor model), and (c) whether they share similar nomological nets. To assess the third criterion, I compared their relationships with mediators (i.e., human capital and social capital) and outcome variables (service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior).

A small to moderate association was found between the team's collective perception of HPWS use was correlated with the team leader's perception of HPWS use (r = .23; see Table 2). Second, the two-factor model (χ^2 (53) = 85.47, CFI = .93, RMSEA

= .09, SRMR = .07) fits the data better than the one-factor model where how a team's collective perception of HPWS use and the team leader's perception of HPWS use were loaded onto same factor (χ^2 (54) = 195.70, CFI = .71, RMSEA = .18, SRMR = .16). Next, I compared their relationships with key variables such as team human capital, team social capital, team service performance, and customer-directed citizenship behavior. Results in Figures 5a and 5b show that they were both negatively related to objective service performance (B_{team} = -.12 vs. B_{leader} = -.13) and that a team's collective perception of HPWS use was associated with team social capital, whereas a leader's perception of HPWS use was closely related to team human capital. One possible explanation for the negative relationship with objective service performance is that investing in HPWS during crises like COVID-19 may be detrimental to a firm's current profits, as such investments are often viewed as costs rather than revenue generators and may not result in immediate performance improvements.

When subjective service performance was measured, Figure 6a shows that a team's collective perception of HPWS use and subjective service performance had a negative direct relationship (estimate = -.20, 95% CI = [-.37, -.03]) but positive indirect relationship via team social capital (estimate = .07, 95% CI = [.02, .19]), and that a team's collective perception of HPWS use had a positive direct relationship with customer-directed citizenship behavior via team social capital (estimate = .07, 95% CI = [.02, .20]). Results in Figure 6b presents that a leader's perception of HPWS use had a positive indirect relationship with subjective service performance via team human capital (estimate = .08, 95% CI = [.02, .21]).

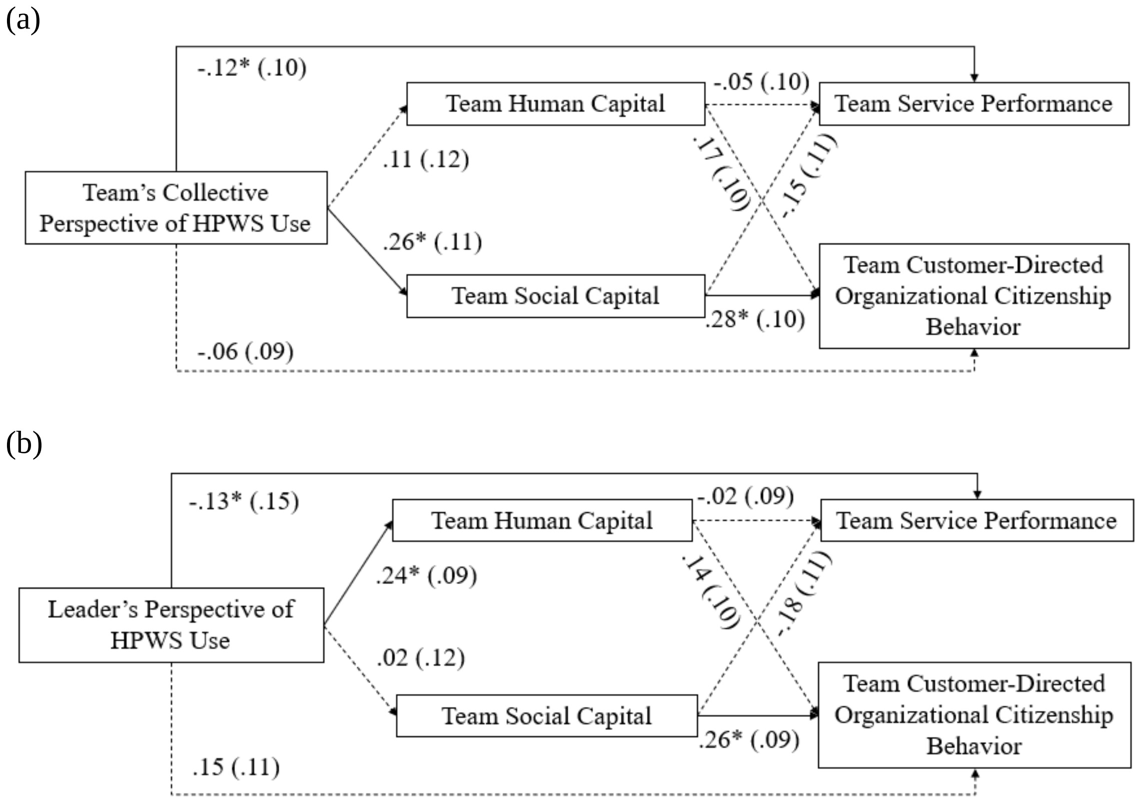


Figure 5. A Comparison between the Team's Collective Perception and their Leader's Perception of HPWS use (Objective Service Performance). Standardized coefficients are reported. * $p < 0.05$.

Taken together, I found that a leader's perception of HPWS use influences team performance through team human capital and the association between a team's collective perception of HPWS and team outcomes lies on team social capital. These findings, along with evidence from previous work examining the relationship between a team's collective perception of HPWS use and the team leader's perception of HPWS use and the factor structure, suggest an apparent viability between these two constructs. More importantly, neither of these constructs is inherently superior to the other; rather, their respective strengths and weakness may vary depending on the specific context. For instance, a leader's perception of HPWS use can provide valuable insights into the team's strategic priorities and goals, but may not fully capture the employee experience and identify areas for improvement as they may not always to attuned to the day-to-day challenges and nuances of employees' interaction and work. Thus, both perspectives are necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between HPWS use and team outcomes. Future research could explore how the relative importance of these perspectives may vary across different organizational contexts and industries.

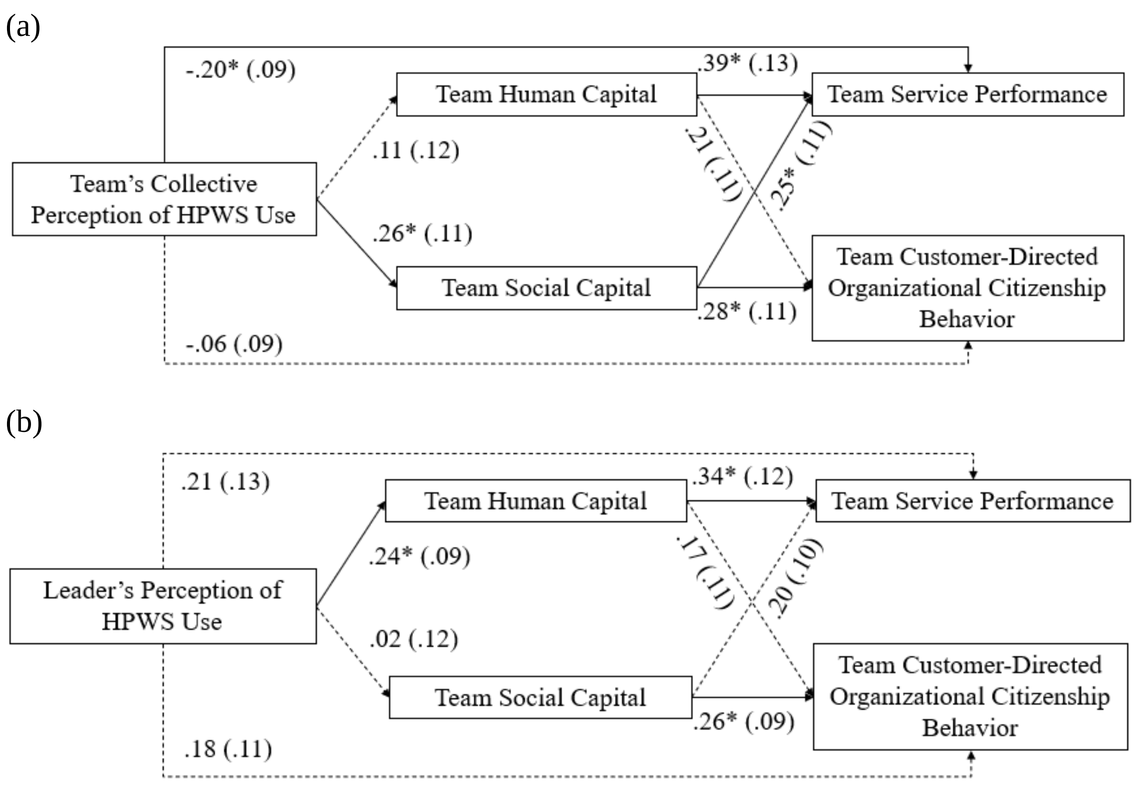


Figure 6. A Comparison between the Team's Collective Perception and their Leader's Perception of HPWS use (Subjective Service Performance). Standardized coefficients are reported. * $p < 0.05$.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Research on HPWS has undergone substantive theoretical and empirical development over the past three decades. The discussion on the rating source of HPWS that involves construct reliability has always been present in the literature (e.g., Becker & Huselid, 2006; Gerhart, 2012). The overall conclusion appears to be that “raters must have the ability and motivation to provide valid ratings” (Gerhart, 2012, p. 159). We have witnessed increased attention paid to employees’ actual experience with an organization’s HR practices and to the delivery role of line managers (Kehoe & Han, 2020). Although HR practices implemented by line managers and HR practices perceived by employees are equally important to an organization’s superior performance, we lack sufficient research that holistically consider both line managers’ and employees’ perceptions. My dissertation deviates from previous studies that relied on one party’s perspective by taking a multi-stakeholder’s perspective to understand the effect of HPWS. Specifically, I investigate *whether* and *how* the discrepancy between team leaders’ perceptions of HPWS use and employees’ perceptions of HPWS use influences the direction and magnitude of the effect of HPWS on teams.

My dissertation emphasizes the importance of examining HPWS at the team level, as the enactment of HPWS occurs at the team level. Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Jiang et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2009), I confirm the existence of differences between employees’ collective perceptions and leaders’ perceptions of HPWS use, using a sample of 80 cosmetic stores in a large organization in China. In my dissertation, I predicted that the discrepancy between leaders' and employees' perceptions of HPWS use influenced team outcomes through human capital and social capital generated. However, I found support only for the congruence effect of the leader–team perception of HPWS use on social capital, which in turn influences team performance, particularly, customer-directed citizenship behavior. Lastly, I proposed that employee HR attributions (i.e., why HR practices are implemented in team) would strengthen or weaken the congruence effects. Table 6 presents a summary of the results of my hypotheses.

Theoretical Implications

First, my dissertation highlights future research opportunities concerning a type of fit of HR systems that goes beyond horizontal fit (i.e., internal fit among individual HR practices) and vertical fit (i.e., fit with external factors) in HRM (Wright & Snell, 1998). This type of fit concerns the fit between two agents, that is to say the leader–team congruence of HPWS use. Horizontal fit pertains to the internal coherence and consistency of practices with the HR system, whereas vertical fit refers to the congruence of the HR system with external environment, such as business strategic and industry characteristics (Wright & McMahan, 1992). In my dissertation, I point out that the complementarity (fit) between teams' collective perceptions and leaders' perceptions of HR systems use also matters. Such perceptions enhance team human and social capital and, accordingly, team performance. Traditionally, the process of implementing HRM practices is seen as a static and hierarchical process that flows in one direction from the top management team and HR departments designing policies to the line managers implementing them. Accordingly, previous research on HR perceptions has only investigated employees' perception of HPWS use as the outcome of line managers' perception of HPWS use. These studies assume leaders/line managers are the sole source of employees' perception of HPWS use. However, this assumption is rather tenuous given the complexity of the social environment around employees. It is important to recognize that this process is more dynamic than had previously been believed, involving ongoing interactions between multiple stakeholders, including line managers and employees, and requiring a more iterative approach (Gill et al., 2018). Employees' perception of HPWS use could be influenced by their coworkers' perceptions of HPWS use, their expectations of HPWS, and their past experiences with HPWS in other teams or companies. Overall, my research highlights the importance of considering the perspectives of both leaders and employees in the implementation and evaluation of HR practices.

In my dissertation, I focus on HPWS use from different sources at the level of teams (i.e., team leaders and team members) and collected data from branch stores of a large cosmetic company. Because team leaders described in my model are expected to have the authority to implement HR practices and have discretion about how they implement it, branch stores or franchise stores are an appropriate level of analysis for my study. Interestingly, I found the correlation between leader and team's perceptions of HPWS use at r = .23, which is smaller than the group-level or branch-level effect sizes from the meta-analysis I conducted (group level: $\bar{r}$ = .61; $\hat{\bar{\rho}}$ = .90; k = 2; N = 107; 95% CI = [.60, 1.00]; branch level: $\bar{r}$ = .39, $\hat{\bar{\rho}}$ = .46; k = 2, N = 342, 95% CI = [.37, .55]; firm level: $\bar{r}$ = .31; $\hat{\bar{\rho}}$ = .36, k = 6, N = 1,269; 95% CI = [.30, .44]). This low correlation between leader and team's perceptions of HPWS use may be due to the relatively short tenure of teams in the sample (Mean = 1.47 years), resulting in low agreement on HPWS use between store managers and store members. This speculation was confirmed by regressing leader's perception of HPWS use on team members' collective perception of HPWS use, relational tenure (i.e., average team tenure), and their interaction. A simple slope test demonstrates that the relationship between a leader's perception of HPWS use and team members' collective perception of HPWS use was significantly positive when the average team tenure was longer (1 SD above mean), whereas the relationship was not significant when the average team tenure was shorter (1 SD below mean). This finding adds empirical support to Nishii and Wright's (2008) argument that team members can develop their idiosyncratic interpretation of HPWS use from their team leader as team members tend to see their organization through their direct leader, an organizational agent. Overall, the evidence suggests that the leader's perception of HPWS use cannot be interchangeably used with the team's collective perception of HPWS use when measuring HPWS.

Also, the polynomial results in Table 3 and the results of the supplemental analyses in Figures 5 and 6 suggest that the leader's perception of HPWS use is more related to team human capital, whereas a team's collective perception of HPWS use is more associated with team social capital. These results are not surprising, because human capital can be built through HPWS, irrespective of whether employees perceive or appreciate these HR practices. On the other hand, team social capital refers to the relationships and connections between team members, which can be strengthened through shared perceptions and understanding of HR practices. HR practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management, and employee engagement programs can help employees develop new skills, enhance their knowledge, and acquire valuable experience. While it's important for employees to perceive and appreciate these HR practices, their perceptions and appreciation are not the only factors that contribute to building human capital. Even if employees do not recognize the value of HR practices, the practices themselves can still help employees accumulate KSAOs. For example, an organization may offer regular training programs to its employees, even if some employees do not appreciate or attend these programs. However, those who do attend can benefit from the training, acquiring new skills and knowledge that they can share with other employees. Over time, the cumulative effect of these training programs can result in a workforce with a higher level of team human capital. HR practices such as self-managed teams, team-based pay for performance, and team decision-making can enhance team social capital. However, this often occurs when team members have a great sense of cohesion and collaboration resulting from high visibility and appreciation of those practices.

Second, my findings indicate that HPWS can accumulate team social capital when a team's collective perception is aligned with the team leader's perception of HPWS use and that team human capital is higher when there is congruence between team members' collective perspective and their leader's perception of HPWS use at a higher level of HPWS than at a lower level of HPWS. I found significant indirect effects on subjective service performance, but not on objective service performance. The data was collected following the end of a COVID-19 outbreak in Shanghai, China, where the company headquarters are located. The city-wide lockdown may have had a negative and lasting impact on the company's resumption of work and production. Even for stores operating outside Shanghai, community-level store closures and quarantine rules were implemented when positive COVID-19 cases were reported in the community. The influence of COVID-19 may have a more pronounced effect on the objective service performance (i.e., financial performance) than subjective performance, as the latter tends to provide a more comprehensive evaluation of store employees' performance, taking into account factors such as attitude and communication skills. Moreover, objective service performance may reveal differences in store service performance that are due solely to the local health policy and economic status rather than real difference in HPWS implementation across stores. Subjective service performance can be more appropriate when the study involves multiple places, as in the present case. Besides, the belief that investing in human capital can contribute to greater firm profits may not hold when companies are encountering unexpected economic and political shocks where flexibility and adaptability are emphasized, though continued investment in human capital will be beneficial post-crisis (Oh & Han, 2021). As discussed in Kim and Ployhart (2014), human capital resources that "can be redeployed or rebounded for different environments and purposes" are important for organizational adaptability and profit growth during economic uncertainty (p. 366). Human capital resources developed from HPWS in my dissertation are more closely linked with specific knowledge, skills, and routines of the company. Therefore, flexibility-oriented HR systems/practices (e.g., Chang et al., 2013), rather than HPWS, may be more relevant with positive financial outcomes during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Additionally, I also examined the (in)congruence effect of leaders' and teams' perception of individual high-performance work practices, as it may be the case that leaders and teams have more consistent perceptions of some practices than others and that the congruence of individual HR practices may lead to positive team outcomes. Specifically, I explored whether different HR practices (i.e., staffing, training, involvement, performance appraisal, compensation, and caring) demonstrate results similar to those of HPWS. However, I did not find significant congruence or incongruence effect of leaders and teams' collective perceptions of HR practice use on human or social capital and none of quadratic terms explained a significant part of variance of human or social capital. These findings are not surprising as they demonstrate a synergistic effect of HPWS on human and social capital, the effect of which may not be transformed into the effects of individual practices. Although researchers have not come to a clear conclusion on the best configuration of HR systems, high performance work system is composed of reinforcing, overlapping, and synergistic individual HR practices and these combined effects, rather than individual practices' independent effects, explain its overall positive impact on employee and organizational productivity.

Third, my dissertation enriches our understanding of the strength of HR systems, especially, the distinctiveness meta-feature. HR system strength theory suggests that the relationship between HR systems and performance will manifest unless there are strong HR systems and that strong HR systems are characterized by high distinctiveness, high consistency, and high consensus (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Distinctiveness refers to "visibility, understandability of practices, relevance of the practices to strategic and individual goal achievement and legitimacy of authority of the HR function" (Ostroff & Bowen, 2016, p. 197). Consistency describes validity of HR systems and consistency in message over time, while consensus denotes the "agreement among message senders and fairness of practices" (Ostroff & Bowen, 2016, p. 197). While studies on HR system strength theory recognize the importance of team leaders (i.e., line managers) and high consensus among team members (e.g., Weller et al., 2020), there is a lack of research on how team leaders contribute to building distinctiveness, which can be captured as the degree of congruence in a leader's and its team's collective perception of HPWS use. Team leaders (i.e., store managers) are responsible for making important strategic decision for the team, such as determining the significance of HR practices, and customizing HPWS according to the specific requirements of their teams (i.e., stores). They are also regarded as leaders who effectively convey the significance, relevance, legitimacy, and implication of HPWS to their employees, making HPWS distinct to team members. When team members' perceptions about HPWS differ from those of their leader, the distinctiveness of HPWS are not well-received by team members and thus HPWS are not as effective. What's more, I encourage future research to investigate the effect of HPWS' consistency by adopting a longitudinal design and consider how different patterns (e.g., regularly used or occasionally used) may change the effect of HPWS.

Fourth, my dissertation answers the call for HPWS research on narrowing the divide between strategic human capital and strategic HRM research. Strategic human capital research emphasizes the essence of competitive advantage for a firm lies in its valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and non-substitutable human capital resources, rather than its HR practices (Wright et al., 1994). Delery and Roumpi (2017) suggested that future studies should explore the point where strategic human capital and strategic HRM research meet by investigating how HRM practices can "generate mobility constraints necessary for firms to retain their valued human capital resources" (p. 14). By considering the leader–team congruence of HPWS and employee HR attributions, I account for supply-side mobility constraints and demand-side mobility constraints in explaining the positive effect of HPWS on team performance. Specifically, leader–team congruence of HPWS will influence the extent to which employees engage in their work and perceive their teams as offering a good place to work. Teams' favorable HR attributions can restrict mobility on the supply side by enhancing the appeal of the employer and increasing employees' feelings of attachment to their team. Additionally, when intellectual capital (i.e., human capital and social capital) is embedded in teams, demand-side mobility constraints increase as the intellectual capital's specificity will lessen the likelihood that competitors will lure away the organization's employees.

Fifth, I drew on intellectual capital theory and proposed two theoretically relevant mechanisms by which leader–team congruence of HPWS use might relate to team performance. In particular, leader–team congruence of HPWS use influences the extent to which HPWS benefit the team by accumulating human and social capital for the team.

Team human capital refers to a set of KSAOs possessed by team members that are tailored to align with the cosmetic company's job requirements. The scale I used includes both firm-specific and generic human capital for sales employees in a cosmetic company. This approach is appropriate as organizations and teams can both derive value from generic and firm-specific human capital (Nyberg et al., 2018). My dissertation enriches our understanding of the mechanisms underlying the relationship between HR systems and human capital resources. Specifically, I argue that when employees' perceived HPWS use is perfectly aligned with their leader's perceived HPWS use, clarity around team goals and work expectations is enhanced, resulting in a higher likelihood of employee engagement with HPWS. To maintain a parsimonious model, it is important to note, specific mechanisms such as goal clarity and engagement in the HPWS were not measured. Future empirical examination on detailed mechanisms is needed to more fully understand how leader–team congruence of HPWS use leads to the development of team human capital.

In addition to proposing using human capital pathway, I proposed using social capital as a parallel mechanism and operationalized social capital by measuring the density of intrateam interactions. My dissertation makes a unique contribution by measuring social capital with the network approach. This approach provides a more accurate way to reflect an intrateam relationship. Previous strategic HRM research has primarily used the network approach in top management teams and focused on network-building HR practices (e.g., Collins & Clark, 2003). My study indicates that well-communicated HPWS can support the development of internal networks within teams and that having team internal networks provides a competitive advantage for a service company by promoting service performance and customer-directed citizenship behavior.

Sixth, my dissertation provides some empirical support for the interplay between leaders' perceived HPWS use and teams' perceived HPWS use, demonstrating that not all levels of congruence and incongruence between leaders and teams regarding HPWS use are equivalent. I found that congruence at high levels of HPWS use correlates with more human capital, not social capital, than congruence at low levels of HPWS use. However, the congruence effect (i.e., congruence is better than incongruence) was unrelated to human capital and was associated with social capital. This was probably the case because the congruence effect of HPWS use is more likely to elicit a social exchange relationship within teams as opposed to a high level of human capital team members are willing to develop. Also, the results offer support for the asymmetric incongruence effect on social capital, thereby revealing that the direction of agreement is as important as simply agreeing or disagreeing. The consequences are less detrimental when employees overestimate HPWS implementation in comparison to what their leaders report or when leaders underestimate HPWS implementation compared to employees' experience. My dissertation highlights the importance of studying both level and direction when studying the (in)congruence effect between leaders and teams.

Seventh, my findings shed light on the complexity of team-level HR attributions, which is more than simply a composition model (i.e., a summation of individual HR attributions). Compared with the considerable research conducted on the content approach (i.e., HR practices included in an HR system) in strategic HRM, our understanding of the collective HR attributions remains limited and does not even mention an examination of the multi-level nature of collective HR attributions; the positive effects of individual HR attributions are well grounded in the literature (e.g., Hewett et al., 2018; Nishii et al., 2008). When the dispersion of team collective well-being HR attributions is high, team members have varied perceptions and beliefs about their organization's motive of implementing HPWS. The varied perceptions and beliefs may lead to disagreements and dysfunctional conflicts, which could hamper the development of team human and social capital. The results of my supplemental analysis (see Table 7) found that only in the situation where the dispersion of team collective well-being HR attributions is high, team's human capital is higher when the team's collective and its leader's perception of HPWS use are congruent at a high level rather than congruent at a low level. Additionally, the impact of the agreement concerning HPWS use between leaders and teams on social capital is significant only when there is a high degree of variation in the employees' well-being HR attributions within teams. It appears that the reduction in social capital resulting from differences in perception of HPWS use between leaders and team members is offset by the low variability in employees' well-being HR attributions within teams.

Practical Implications

My dissertation has implications for practice, especially in the areas of HPWS implementation and communication with employees. Most notably, when organizations invest in HPWS in the pursuit of hiring and retaining talent, an important question should be raised about the extent to which managers and employees perceive HPWS.

Organizations should not depend exclusively on managers' or employees' experience of HPWS to understand HPWS implementation and make follow-up plans. First, HPWS should be communicated clearly to employees, making HPWS highly transparent to the team. Managers lead and motivate the team as a whole and they convey the content and implementation process of HPWS (Den Hartog et al., 2013).The higher the quality of managers' communication, the more knowledge and information will be disseminated and shared with the entire team, resulting in a common understanding of HPWS. Besides, managers' clear communication leads to more chances for members to seek feedback from their managers about their knowledge and opinions relevant to the HPWS implementation so that team members' perceptions are aligned with those of their managers.

In addition, I suggest that managers communicate frequently with employees so they can keep themselves updated on HPWS implementation progress and change their implementation based on team members' feedback. That is, managers should be informed about HPWS that team members experience and modify the pace or adjust the expectations accordingly, ensuring team leaders and team members are on the same page. Advancing one step further, a recommended approach for the organization to take is to measure HPWS from multi-stakeholders—a suggestion that is in line with the utility of 360-degree performance feedback. Using tools to collect perceptions from top management teams, HR managers, line managers, and employees regarding HR practices, organizations can pinpoint any perceptual gaps that exist at different levels of the organization and improve communication to streamline the HPWS execution process. By doing so, teams can develop and sustain human and social capital, thereby contributing to sustained superior performance.

Moreover, the communication should include not only the content of HR practices, but also employees' perception of their organization's intentions for HR practices (i.e., HR attributions). Although my study could not provide evidence for the role of employee HR attributions, employees react differently to the same HR practices (Nishii et al., 2008). In cases where a team attributes favorable intention to their organization's HPWS implementation, employees are more likely to respond positively to HPWS by showing commitment and actively engaging with it. To facilitate the positive outcomes of HPWS, organizations should be cognizant of both mangers' and employees' HR attributions.

Limitations and Future Directions

Like other research, this study is not without limitations. First, this study did not find support for teams' collective HR attributions. I was not allowed to collect data for employee exploitation HR attributions nor did I find a high degree of agreement on employees well-being HR attributions among team employees (i.e., negative ICC values) from my final sample. This result did not support the aggregation of team well-being HR attributions. An individual's HR attributions were developed at the individual level which refers to an individual's belief about why certain HR practices are implemented (Nishii et al., 2008). Individuals' HR attributions could be influenced by many factors, such as their leader's leadership styles, communication, HR practices' salience, and the individual's personality (Hu & Oh, 2022). That being so, it is possible that team members vary widely regarding their HR attributions. HR attributions of single practices may trigger a stronger effect on employees' reaction than HR attributions of HR systems (multiple practices). That being said, a collective perception of HR attributions can emerge through team members' social interaction (Maitlis, 2005). A negative ICC value could be due to a small number of respondents within a unit. I encourage future researchers extend this line of research with a larger team.

Second, I measured human capital using leaders' self-reports and the results might have been influenced by the common method bias as the incongruence effect might highlight the importance of leaders' perspective (i.e., negative [yet nonsignificant] slope along the incongruence line, also see Figure 3). However, objective human capital data is not available from the company, and it would be worthwhile for future research to have a third party report team human capital or use objective data to test the proposed hypotheses. Moreover, a more recent trending in human capital literature is to examine the emergence process of collective human capital resources because collective human capital is created through the combinations and complementarities among individual human capital (Ployhart et al., 2011, 2014). My paper focuses on aggregate human capital (i.e., knowledge, skills, and abilities), but future research can benefit from providing empirical evidence on the process of human capital resource emergence.

The third limitation is the lack of gender variance in my sample. The sample was exclusively female participants, leaving questions about how the patterns of relationships could have differed for male participants. Qiao and colleagues (2009) found that HPWS was seen less favorably by women in Chinese organizations, while Pichler and colleagues

(2014) used a U.S. sample to demonstrate that HPWS were more strongly related to lower turnover when firms employ more women. Whether there is a gender effect that exists on leader–team congruence of HPWS use is a question that merits explicit attention, as the answers would provide insights for leaders' active influences in sharing HR practices to male and female differently. My model should be tested in other work setting to enhance the generalizability of my findings.

Fourth, I collected the data from China when there was a zero policy (i.e., no positive case) and this policy may have had a stronger impact on stores' operations and financial performance than HR systems did. The results on service performance remain the same after controlling for the operation days. I suspect that societal and economic factors may play a more important role in explaining the change of sales per employee. When service performance was measured by store managers, results related to service performance became significant. Thus, I recommend that research be conducted to explore the model with objective data in the post-COVID-19 era. In addition, although the theoretical reasoning is not limited to China, I encourage future studies to examine this research question in other cultural settings.

Fifth, the cross-sectional design may have limited the ability of my study to generate causal inference. HPWS is costly and its implementation may depend on financial performance Although I used a time-lag design between predictors, mediators, and outcomes and controlled for Time 1 performance, these measures were not sufficient to address the causality issue. A longitudinal research design is more desirable for investigating the dynamic process of how leader–team congruence of HPWS influences team performance. In addition, the relatively small sample size could lead to Type II error (i.e., not finding the significant difference that actually exists), so these findings should be interpreted with caution.

Conclusion

This dissertation aims to answer a research question about the leader–team congruence of HPWS use and its effects by examining human and social capital as possible mediating mechanisms and HR attributions as a moderating condition. Analyses of data from 80 cosmetic stores in a Chinese company revealed that leader–team congruence of HPWS use was positively related to a team's human and social capital to different extents and in turn influences team performance. These findings extend the HPWS literature and offer several practical implications regarding the importance of managing the congruence of leaders' and teams' perceived HPWS use. I lastly call for future research to replicate the findings of this study in different cultural contexts with a larger sample size and using a longitudinal research design.

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Appendix A

STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE META-ANALYSIS

Author	Rater of IV	IV: Manager report	DV: Employee report	N	r	r_{xx}	r_{yy}	Level of Analysis
Arthur et al. (2016)	HR manager/general manager	HPWS programs	HPWS perceptions	114	.26	.81	.85	Unit
Choi (2014)	HR managers	Manager-rated HR practices	Employee-rated HR practices	356	.32	.80	.83	Firm
Choi (2019)	HR manager	HPWS	Employees' perceptions of HPWS	245	.19	.81	.87	Firm
Den Hartog et al. (2013)	Branch Manager	Manager-rated HRM	Employee-rated HRM	90	.38	.86	.85	Branch
Elorza et al. (2016)	Managers	Management-HPWS	Employee-HPWS	26	.91	.74	.66	Group
Elorza et al. (2016)	Managers	Management-HPWS	Employee-HPWS	81	.52	.53	.88	Group
Herdman (2008)	Managers/supervisors	HR practices	HR Perceptions	192	.20	.81	.89	Unit
Jiang (2013)	Department manager	Manager perception of HPWS	Employee perception of HPWS	167	.31	.93	.95	Department
Li & Frenkel (2017)	Line manager	Supervisor perceptions of HR practices	Employee perceptions of HR practices	298	.20	.83	.83	Individual
Liao et al., (2009)	Senior managers and supervisors	Management-HPWS	Group average employee -HPWS	252	.39	.85	.82	Branch
Takeuchi et al. (2007)	Managers	Manager-rated HPWS	Employee-rated HPWS	76	.41	.90	.89	Firm
Vermeeren (2014)	Line manager	Implemented HRM	Perceived HRM	389	.18	.92	.90	Individual
Wang et al. (2021)	Managers/supervisors	Managers' perceptions of HR practices	Employees' perceptions of HR practices	380	.19	.77	.85	Individual
Xi et al. (2019)	HR directors	Firm HPWS	Employees' collective perceptions of HPWS	286	.46	.91	.94	Firm

Appendix B

STUDY MEASURES

Employee

T1 Employee-Rated Team HPWS (Chuang & Liao, 2010)
The following items refer to the managing practices of store employees in your store. Based on your experience and observation, please indicate the frequency of your store using the following practices.

Staffing

1. The store selects the best all-around candidates when recruiting employees.
2. The store places priority on candidates' potential to learn when recruiting employees.
3. Recruitment emphasizes traits and abilities required for providing high quality of customer services.
4. Internal candidates have the priority for job openings.
5. Qualified employees have good opportunities for promotion.

Training

6. The store provides an orientation program for newcomers to learn about the company.
7. The store continuously provides training programs.
8. The store invests considerable time and money in training.
9. Training is comprehensive, not limited to skill training.
10. High quality of customer services is emphasized in training.

Involvement & Participation

11. If a decision made might affect employees, the store asks them for opinions in advance.
12. Employees are often asked to participate in work-related decisions.
13. Employees have discretion in handling customers' additional requests
14. Employees have discretion in settling customer complaints without reporting to a supervisor or other specialists.
15. Employees are allowed to make necessary changes in the way they perform their work.
16. The store fully supports employees with necessary equipment and resources for providing high quality of customer services.
17. The store does share information with employees (e.g., store operation, sales, etc.).

Performance Appraisals

18. Performance appraisals provide employees feedback for personal development.
19. Performance appraisals are based on multiple sources (self, coworkers, supervisors, customers, etc.).
20. Performance appraisals are based on objective, quantifiable results.
21. Supervisors do get together with employees to set their personal goals.

22. Satisfying customers is the most important work guideline.
23. Meeting customers' needs is emphasized in performance appraisals.

Compensation/Rewards

24. On average the pay level (including incentives) of our employees is higher than that of our competitors.
25. Employee salaries and rewards are determined by their performance.
26. The store rewards employees for new ideas for improving customer services.
27. The store provides a variety of benefits.
28. The store does attach importance to the fairness of compensation/rewards.
29. Employees receive monetary or nonmonetary rewards for great effort and good performance.
30. The store gives special rewards to employees who are excellent in serving customers.

Caring

31. The store considers employee off-work situations (family, school, etc.) when making schedules.
32. The store cares about work safety and health of employees.
33. The store cares about work-life balance of employees.
34. The store has its ways or methods to help employees alleviate work stress.
35. The store has formal grievance procedures to take care of employee complaints or appeals.

T1 Employee Well-being HR Attributions (Nishii et al., 2008)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Training and development in our store are designed to promote our wellbeing.
2. Reward systems in our store are designed to promote our wellbeing.
3. The selection process in our store is designed to promote our wellbeing.
4. The performance appraisal process in our store is designed to promote our wellbeing.
5. Employee participation in our store is designed to promote our wellbeing.

T1 Employee Exploitation HR Attributions (Nishii et al., 2008)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements

1. Training and development in our store are designed to exploit or control us.
2. Reward systems in our store are designed to exploit or control us.
3. The selection process in our store is designed to exploit or control us.
4. The performance appraisal process in our store is designed to exploit or control us.
5. Employee participation in our store is designed to exploit or control us.

T1 Leader's Generic Communication (Riordan et al., 2005)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Company goals and objectives are clearly communicated to employees
2. The channels for employee communication with management are effective

3. Managers are adequately informed of the important issues in our store
4. Company policies and procedures are clearly communicated to employees
5. Most of the time we receive sufficient notice of changes affecting our store.
6. We don’t often have to rely on the grapevine to get job-related information

Leader

T1: Leader-Rated Team HPWS (Chuang & Liao, 2010)

The following items refer to the managing practices of store employees in your store. Please indicate the extent to which you think your store has the following practices.

Staffing

1. The store selects the best all-around candidates when recruiting employees.
2. The store places priority on candidates' potential to learn when recruiting employees.
3. Recruitment emphasizes traits and abilities required for providing high quality of customer services.
4. Internal candidates have the priority for job openings.
5. Qualified employees have good opportunities for promotion.

Training

6. The store provides an orientation program for newcomers to learn about the company.
7. The store continuously provides training programs.
8. The store invests considerable time and money in training.
9. Training is comprehensive, not limited to skill training.
10. High quality of customer services is emphasized in training.

Involvement & Participation

11. If a decision made might affect employees, the store asks them for opinions in advance.
12. Employees are often asked to participate in work-related decisions.
13. Employees have discretion in handling customers' additional requests
14. Employees have discretion in settling customer complaints without reporting to a supervisor or other specialists.
15. Employees are allowed to make necessary changes in the way they perform their work.
16. The store fully supports employees with necessary equipment and resources for providing high quality of customer services.
17. The store does share information with employees (e.g., store operation, sales, etc.).

Performance Appraisals

18. Performance appraisals provide employees feedback for personal development.
19. Performance appraisals are based on multiple sources (self, coworkers, supervisors, customers, etc.).
20. Performance appraisals are based on objective, quantifiable results.
21. Supervisors do get together with employees to set their personal goals.
22. Satisfying customers is the most important work guideline.
23. Meeting customers' needs is emphasized in performance appraisals.

Compensation/Rewards

24. On average the pay level (including incentives) of our employees is higher than that of our competitors.

25. Employee salaries and rewards are determined by their performance.
26. The store rewards employees for new ideas for improving customer services.
27. The store provides a variety of benefits.
28. The store does attach importance to the fairness of compensation/rewards.
29. Employees receive monetary or nonmonetary rewards for great effort and good performance.
30. The store gives special rewards to employees who are excellent in serving customers.

Caring

31. The store considers employee off-work situations (family, school, etc.) when making schedules.
32. The store cares about work safety and health of employees.
33. The store cares about work-life balance of employees.
34. The store has its ways or methods to help employees alleviate work stress.
35. The store has formal grievance procedures to take care of employee complaints or appeals.

T1 Competitive intensity (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Competition in our industry is cutthroat.
2. There are many "promotion wars" in our industry.
3. Anything that one competitor can offer, others can match readily.
4. Price competition is a hallmark of our industry.
5. One hears of a new competitive move almost every day.
6. Our competitors are relatively weak.

T2 Leader-Rated Team Human Capital (adapted from Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Our store employees pay attention to appearance, personal etiquette and hospitality etiquette.
2. Our store employees are familiar with customer files and master customer maintenance.
3. Our store employees understand the products’ functions, effects, operating procedures and precautions.
4. Our store employees have knowledge of skin physiology and solve skin problems for customers.
5. Our store employees are proficient in the professional knowledge and skills of beauty and skin care (such as makeup skills, nursing techniques).
6. Our store employees are proficient in sales and communication skills.
7. Our store employees are proficient in goods and inventory management (such as purchase volume, shipment volume, and storage of goods).
8. Our store employees understand the local consumption habits and abilities in order to formulate activity plans and content to give suggestions.

T1 and T3 Team Performance

Team Service Performance (Chuang & Liao, 2010)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Our store employees are able to help customers when needed.
2. Our store employees explain items' (services') features and benefits to overcome customers' objections.
3. Our store employees point out and relate item (service) features to customers' needs.
4. Our store employees approach customers quickly.
5. Our store employees suggest items (services) customers might like but did not think of.
6. Our store employees ask good questions and listen attentively to find out what a customer wants.
7. Our store employees are friendly and helpful to customers.

Team Customer-focused Citizenship Behavior (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

1. Our store employees voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements
2. Our store employees help customers with problems beyond what is expected required
3. Our store employees often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers
4. Our store employees willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied
5. Our store employees frequently go out the way to help a customer