WHEN RESOURCE PRECEDES HUMAN IN HUMAN RESOURCE

MANAGEMENT: ORGANIZATIONAL DEHUMANIZATION AND THE ROLES OF

HR ATTRIBUTIONS AND SUPERVISOR BOTTOM-LINE MENTALITY

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Graduate Faculty of The University of Akron

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Steven T. Tseng

May 2020

ProQuest Number: 28108248

ProQuest 28108248

WHEN RESOURCE PRECEDES HUMAN IN HUMAN RESOURCE

MANAGEMENT: ORGANIZATIONAL DEHUMANIZATION AND THE ROLES OF

HR ATTRIBUTIONS AND SUPERVISOR BOTTOM-LINE MENTALITY

Steven T. Tseng

Dissertation

Approved: Accepted:

_____   _____
Advisor   Department Chair
Dr. Paul E. Levy   Dr. Paul E. Levy

_____   _____
Committee Member   Dean of the College
Dr. James M. Diefendorff   Dr. Linda M. Subich

_____   _____
Committee Member   Dean of the Graduate School
Dr. Joelle D. Elicker   Dr. Marnie M. Saunders

_____   _____
Committee Member   Date
Dr. Andrea F. Snell

_____
Committee Member
Dr. Erin E. Makarius

ABSTRACT

Organizational dehumanization refers to worker perceptions of being treated as less than human by the organization that employs them. Current events suggest that this phenomenon is pervasive in modern organizations. Several accounts of workers feeling treated like robots, tools, or numbers on a spreadsheet have been featured in recent news reports in the popular media. Despite the apparent prevalence of organizational dehumanization in workplaces today, there is a paucity of scientific research on the phenomenon. In particular, potential antecedents of this distinctive adverse experience have not been investigated extensively by empirical research to date. To address this gap in the academic literature, the present research examined two nascent constructs, human resource attributions and supervisor bottom-line mentality, as antecedents to organizational dehumanization. In addition, the present research also examined established and novel consequences as well as individual and organizational demographic correlates of organizational dehumanization. Results from an online survey of a sample of 401 employed adults recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk largely supported the theoretical framework proposed in the present research. Broadly, results of this study suggest that beliefs about the HR process and supervisor concern with meeting the bottom line impact the extent to which employees feel dehumanized by their organization and that organizational dehumanization predicts deleterious attitudinal and behavioral consequences.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

your own growth and development over the years. To Jamie, my partner and best friend, thank you for believing in me all this time, making my days brighter, and being part of a future to look forward to. To my mom, thank you for the unconditional love and tireless support you've provided all my life. And to my dad, thank you for everything you've done to make it so that my dreams are within reach. You continue to inspire me to this day.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A growing concern in the world of work is the widespread maltreatment of employees in modern organizations. Companies around the world are facing increasing scrutiny for neglecting the well-being of employees and in some cases even directly bringing harm to them, either intentionally or unintentionally. The popular press is rife with recent examples involving large corporations, particularly those in the United States and China. Warehouse workers at Amazon have described their struggle to even find time to take restroom breaks during the workday due to strict requirements to meet productivity goals (Ghosh, 2018). In light of the recent account fraud scandal, bankers at Wells Fargo have revealed their adverse experiences with abuse from managers and intense pressures to meet unrealistic quotas (Arnold, 2016). Tech workers from large Chinese corporations such as Huawei and Alibaba have started an online protest against the cultural norm of unreasonable work hours, either formally implemented or informally encouraged (Kuo, 2019). Even companies that are celebrated for championing employee benefits initiatives, such as Google, have come under fire for its treatment of certain groups of employees (Wakabayashi, 2019). These recent cases, along with the timely release of books such as Jeffrey Pfeffer's *Dying for a Paycheck* (2018), bring attention to the prevalence of employee maltreatment in modern organizations and highlight this widespread issue as a major concern that faces society today.

Research in the disciplines of industrial/organizational psychology (IO) and human resource management (HRM) has a long history of addressing the experiences of employees in the workplace and their attitudinal, behavioral, and well-being outcomes associated with various workplace characteristics. However, the set of employee consequences commonly addressed in this body of literature (e.g., job satisfaction, commitment, perceived organizational support, fairness) does not appear to fully reflect the distinct qualitative experience reported by employees who have faced the type of maltreatment described above. Upon inspection, a common and consistent theme emerges from the qualitative descriptions provided by employees who have faced maltreatment from their organizations. In an anonymous interview, a former Amazon warehouse employee criticized the company for "treating human beings as robots" (Picchi, 2018). Tech workers at Huawei and Alibaba disclosed how workers are "treated like ants" and how management handles "hiring an employee is like buying a machine" in the tech industry (Liao, 2019). In a forum post on a Chinese website, a netizen likened a worker to a screw in a relentless machine and asserted that "if [a screw] breaks, they'll find a new screw to replace you" (Kuo, 2019). The underlying theme implied by these qualitative reports is clear, but one banker's description of the aftermath of Wells Fargo's account scandal (Egan, 2016) drives the main point home directly: employees today "feel very dehumanized" by their organization.

Organizational Dehumanization: A Critical Workplace Consequence

The current events discussed previously highlight the social phenomenon of dehumanization in the workplace. Originating in the social psychology literature, dehumanization refers to the denial of humanness in a perceived target (Haslam, 2006).

2

Individuals who are dehumanized are perceived as lacking the basic attributes that make them uniquely different from other animals or machines. In extreme cases, particularly those in contexts of conflict, dehumanization of individuals or groups is associated with discrimination and acts of violence against them (Haslam & Loughnan, 2014).

Recently, this phenomenon has begun to receive more attention in the IO/HRM literature and scholars have started examining more subtle forms of dehumanization that may occur in ordinary and commonplace settings, such as the workplace (Christoff, 2014). Building on the concept that originated from social psychology, organizational dehumanization was introduced as a construct reflecting employee perceptions of being treated as less than human by their organization (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens, Stinglhamber, Demoulin, & De Wilde, 2017). Although empirical research on this construct is still in the early stages, evidence thus far indicates that employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization are related to several work-related outcomes, including job satisfaction, affective commitment, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions (Caesens et al., 2017; Caesens, Nguyen, & Stinglhamber, 2019). This preliminary work indicates that experiencing organizational dehumanization is indeed related to detrimental outcomes for employees, as expected.

Evident from the descriptive accounts from employees introduced earlier, dehumanization at work is a prevalent and concerning issue in organizations today. Organizational dehumanization reflects a particularly pernicious form of maltreatment – one in which employees are denied their unique individual value as humans – and experiencing dehumanization at work has important implications for the attitudinal, well-being, and performance outcomes of those who are affected. Despite the ostensible

importance of understanding this phenomenon, it is critically understudied. More research is needed to further understand the potential effects of dehumanization at work and how employees might come to experience it.

Expanding the Nomological Network of Organizational Dehumanization Antecedents

Given the potential negative impact of organizational dehumanization on employee attitudes, well-being, and performance, determining how such experiences might arise is important for future research. Conceptual work and empirical research suggest two categories of antecedents to organizational dehumanization. First, researchers have proposed that dehumanizing experiences can stem from the organizational practices to which employees are subjected (Christoff, 2014; Caesens et al., 2017; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). Second, researchers have also demonstrated that negative interpersonal experiences with supervisors can lead to perceptions of organizational dehumanization (Caesens et al., 2019). Thus, employee perceptions of HRM and their supervisors appear to be two general sources of dehumanizing experiences for employees. Building upon this work, two theoretical antecedents to organizational dehumanization are proposed: human resource attributions and supervisor bottom-line mentality.

Human Resource Attributions

One potential antecedent of organizational dehumanization is human resource (HR) attributions (Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). HR attributions refer to the interpretations that individual employees form regarding the intended motive or purpose behind HR practices (Nishii et al., 2008). In contrast to the popular notion of shared

perceptions of HRM among employees of a unit (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), the focus on HR attributions emphasizes the importance of variability in perceptions and interpretations of HRM between employees. Drawing from attribution theories from social psychology, Nishii and colleagues (2008) proposed that variability in HRM perceptions among employees of the same unit reflect meaningful perceptual differences between employees. Their theory of HR attributions emphasizes that even if employees in the same organization share a similar understanding of the HR process in their organization, these same employees may differ on their interpretations as to top management's reasoning for implementing HR policies and practices. In other words, although shared knowledge and perceptions of how HRM is designed and carried out in an organization may be consistent across employees, the explanations for why the practices are implemented may vary between them.

Recent theoretical development on HR attributions suggests that employees' interpretation of an organization's motive or intent behind implementing HRM lies on a continuum ranging from employee-centric to organization-centric (Hewett, Shantz, & Mundy, 2019). Employees who attribute an organization's philosophy for HRM to be primarily employee-centric believe that HR policies and practices are implemented to enhance employee well-being and improve individual performance with the best interests of employees in mind. Conversely, employees who attribute the organization's philosophy for HRM to be primarily organization-centric believe that HR policies and practices are implemented to exploit employees and get the most out of them for the least cost in order to achieve organizational goals. Consistent with theory, extant empirical research has demonstrated that employee attributions to employee-centric philosophies

are positively associated with employee attitudes and well-being whereas attributions to organization-centric philosophies are negatively associated with attitudes and well-being (e.g., Nishii et al., 2008; Shantz, Arevshatian, Alfes, & Bailey, 2016).

Integrating the previous discussions on HR attributions and organizational dehumanization, a theoretical link between the two constructs emerges. Employee attributions of HR philosophies should influence the degree to which organizational dehumanization is perceived. Employees who attribute organization-centric philosophies to HRM (i.e., those who believe the motive is to exploit workers for organizational gain) may feel dehumanized by the organization. Conversely, employees who hold employee-centric HR attributions will likely not feel dehumanized by the organization.

Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

Another potential antecedent of organizational dehumanization is supervisor bottom-line mentality (BLM; Greenbuam, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012). BLM refers to a unidimensional frame of mind in which bottom line outcomes are prioritized at the expense of neglecting other important outcomes (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Conceptual arguments suggest that high levels of BLM can be detrimental rather than beneficial since it reflects a superficial paradigm that simplifies the organizational goals that need to be strived for (Eissa, Wyland, Lester, & Gupta, 2019; Greenbuam et al., 2012). Supervisors with high levels of BLM focus primarily on achieving bottom line outcomes and exhibit little interest in other outcomes, such as employee well-being (Bonner, Greenbaum, & Quade, 2017; Mesdaghinia, Rawat, & Nadavulakere, 2018). Indeed, empirical research corroborates this and has demonstrated that high supervisor BLM is predictive of adverse consequences for employees, such as abusive supervision, low relationship quality, and

high turnover intentions (Mawritz, Greenbaum, Butts, & Graham, 2017; Mesdaghinia et al., 2018; Quade, McLarty, & Bonner, 2019).

Along these lines, supervisor BLM should also have an impact on employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization. Since high BLM supervisors are acutely focused on securing bottom line outcomes, they may exhibit a propensity to exert high pressure and demand high workloads from employees while neglecting to consider their well-being. As supervisors are often regarded as representatives of the organization (Levinson, 1965), employees may construe the treatment they receive from high BLM supervisors as the fault of the organization. This suggests that employees who experience leadership under high BLM supervisors may be more likely to also feel dehumanized by the organization.

This discussion also suggests that supervisor BLM may be an antecedent to employee HR attributions as well. The same theoretical rationale as above applies in this case. High BLM supervisors emphasize a focus on bottom line outcomes that are important to organizations but simultaneously de-emphasize employee well-being. When high BLM supervisors put HR practices into action, they may exhibit behaviors that communicate to employees that organizational objectives take priority over employee well-being. Thus, employees with high BLM supervisors may be more likely to form organization-centric rather than employee-centric attributions of HR practices.

The theoretical links between supervisor BLM and both organizational dehumanization and HR attributions relies on the assumption that employees generally perceive the supervisor as a representative of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2010; Levinson, 1965). However, research has indicated that this perception can differ from

employee to employee. Employee perceptions of their supervisor's organizational

embodiment encapsulate this difference (Eisenberger et al., 2010). Employees who report

high levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment view their supervisors' intentions

and behaviors as synonymous with those of the organization. This suggests that

supervisor's organizational embodiment may be a moderator in the relationships between

supervisor BLM and both organizational dehumanization and HR attributions.

The Present Study

The present study is proposed to extend research on organizational

dehumanization as a critical workplace outcome by examining the roles of HR

attributions and supervisor BLM. A conceptual model of the hypothesized relationships

in the present study is displayed in Figure 1.1. A primary goal of the present study is to

establish the novel links between HR attributions and supervisor BLM as antecedents to

organizational dehumanization. As delineated previously, both HR attributions and

supervisor BLM are proposed to directly impact employee perceptions of organizational

dehumanization. Supervisor BLM is also proposed to be an antecedent to HR attributions.

Supervisor's organizational embodiment is further proposed as a moderator in these

aforementioned relationships. In addition to the primary goal of examining HR

attributions and supervisor BLM as potential sources of organizational dehumanization

perceptions, the nomological network of consequences will also be expanded upon.

Specifically, building on prior research, organizational dehumanization is proposed to

predict job satisfaction, affective commitment, burnout, turnover intentions, and job

performance.

The present study contributes to the IO/HRM literature in at least three ways. First and foremost, the present study broadens our understanding of how experiences of dehumanization in the workplace may arise. Organizational dehumanization is a prevalent and concerning phenomenon in modern organizations and it is critically understudied. Given the potential and demonstrated harmful consequences of experiencing dehumanization at work, further elucidating the sources of such perceptions is paramount for research. Thus, expanding the nomological network of antecedents to organizational dehumanization is a primary goal of this study. Second, the present study extends research on HR attributions. The impact of workplace practices from the perspective of employees requires more attention in the IO/HRM literature, and better understanding the unique explanations regarding the purpose of HR practices formulated by employees is a step toward this. Investigating organizational dehumanization as a potential consequence and supervisor BLM as a potential antecedent to HR attributions contributes to this effort. Third, the present study adds to research on the potential effects of supervisor BLM. The role of supervisors is becoming increasingly recognized as a critical element of HRM, and further investigating how the mindsets of supervisors might impact employee experiences with and interpretations of HR practices can contribute to this area.

The present study integrates concepts from different literatures and contributes to the multiple streams of research involved. Broadly, the present research addresses concerns for the issue of employee maltreatment in organizations and growing interest in the potential "dark side" of HRM. From a humanitarian perspective, the potential link between aspects of the workplace and workers feeling dehumanized is important to

examine for the general purpose of improving human well-being at work. From a business perspective, the potential deleterious impact of aspects of the workplace is important to consider as it has implications for employee attitudes and behaviors, which ultimately impacts organizational performance. Organizational dehumanization is a prevalent and concerning phenomenon in modern organizations. Understanding how employees derive meaning about HRM, from their attributions and from their supervisors, and how this impacts dehumanization perceptions is an important first step in addressing the issue.
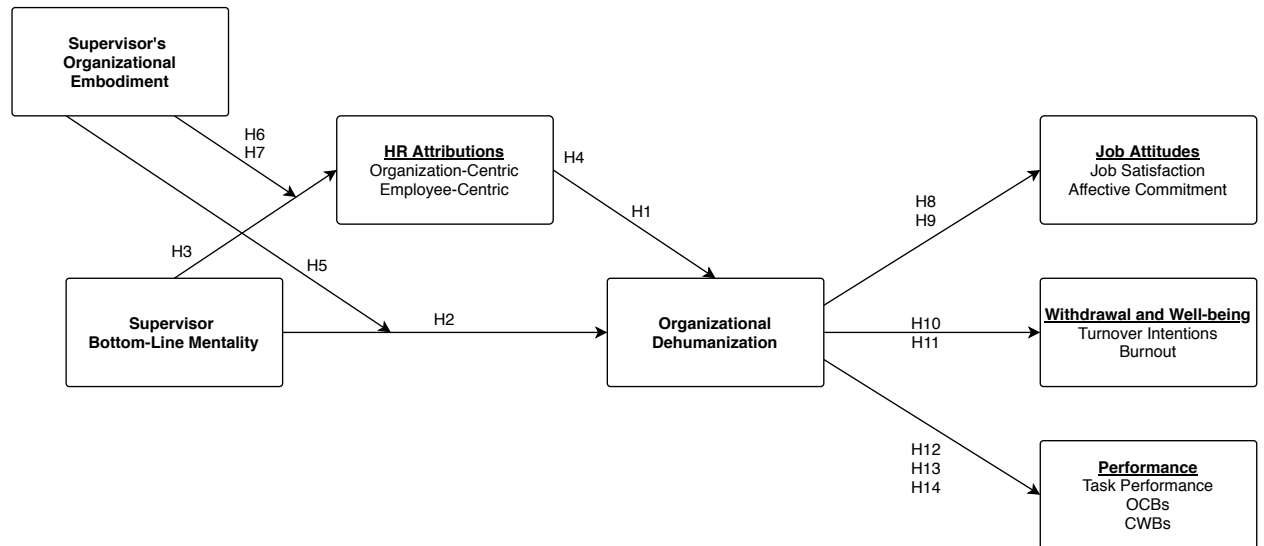
Figure 1.1. Hypothesized Relationships in the Present Study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational Dehumanization

Dehumanization, a psychological phenomenon in which a person or group of

people are perceived as lacking humanness, has its historical roots in the social

psychology literature (Haslam, 2006; Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Early systematic

research on dehumanization, which began around the 1970s, focused on particularly grim

and violent social issues such as genocide and sexual objectification. This early research

elucidated the role of dehumanization in issues of ethnicity, race, gender, pornography,

disability, and medicine. Dehumanization has been invoked to explain atrocities such as

slavery and the Holocaust. Dehumanization has also been cited to explain the

objectification of women and medical patients. These blatant instances of

dehumanization are the typical examples that come to mind when the topic of

dehumanization is discussed. However, recent theoretical development suggests that

dehumanization occurs on a spectrum and degrees of severity can range from blatant to

subtle (Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Dehumanization of people does not occur only in

extreme cases but may also occur in basic commonplace situations as well.

Recently, the concept of dehumanization has begun to receive attention in the

HRM and organizational sciences literature (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017;

Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018) and organizational dehumanization was introduced as

a construct to reflect the phenomenon in workplaces. The construct of organizational dehumanization has been defined as "employees' perceptions regarding the extent to which she/he is treated by his or her employing organization as less than a full human being but rather as its resource or property" (Caesens et al., 2019) or "the experience of an employee who feels objectified by his or her organization, denied personal subjectivity, and made to feel like a tool or an instrument for the organization's ends" (Bell & Khoury, 2011). This is in contrast to organizational humanization, which reflects "the experience of having one's experiences, desires, and feelings recognized by the organization and the opportunity for personal agency and self- actualization through creative and instrumental participation in organizational processes" (Bell & Khoury, 2011). Importantly, the definition and conceptualization of organizational dehumanization reflects the perspective of the victim of dehumanization; that is, it reflects the perceptions of being dehumanized from the point of view of the person being dehumanized. This is in contrast to the majority of research on dehumanization in the past, which mostly focused on the perceiver (i.e., person who dehumanizes another) and the underlying psychology of denying humanness in others (Bastian & Haslam, 2010). However, the present concept of organizational dehumanization as reflecting employee perceptions of being dehumanized by their organization is in line with recent development in the broader dehumanization literature which has begun to examine the experience and consequences of dehumanizing from the perspective of the target (i.e., person who is dehumanized by another; Bastian & Haslam, 2010).

The theoretical concept of dehumanization in work and organizational settings was expounded upon by Bell and Khoury (2011) and Christoff (2014), who discussed the

prevalence and seeming acceptance of dehumanizing workers in order to achieve organizational goals. Given its relative recency, extant empirical research is scant. However, with the development of a scale that measures perceptions of organizational dehumanization (Caesens et al., 2017), further empirical work on this construct is on the horizon. Caesens and colleagues, the authors who developed the scale, have published two empirical studies using the scale. In one study, organizational dehumanization was found to be a correlate of perceived organizational support and an antecedent of important job attitudes and well-being outcomes (Caesens et al., 2017). Specifically, and consistent with theory, organizational dehumanization was found to be negatively correlated with perceived organizational support, negatively predicted job satisfaction, and positively predicted emotional exhaustion and psychosomatic strain.

In a following article featuring a series of three studies, Caesens and colleagues (2019) demonstrated that organizational dehumanization mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions (Figure 2.1). Importantly, the authors employed a cross-lagged panel design in one study to demonstrate that abusive supervision precedes organizational dehumanization in the causal direction. Employees who reported high levels of abusive supervision at an earlier time were more likely to report high levels of organizational dehumanization at a later time, but not vice versa. Interestingly, perceived coworker support moderated this relationship such that high levels of support attenuated the impact of abusive supervision on organizational dehumanization perceptions (Caesens et al., 2019).

.18 **

-.27 ***

Abusive supervision

.42 ***

.15 **

Job satisfaction

-.46 ***

PCS

-.39 ***

Organizational dehumanization

-.56 ***

Affective commitment

Abusive supervision X PCS

.18 **

.42 ***

Turnover intentions

.24 ***
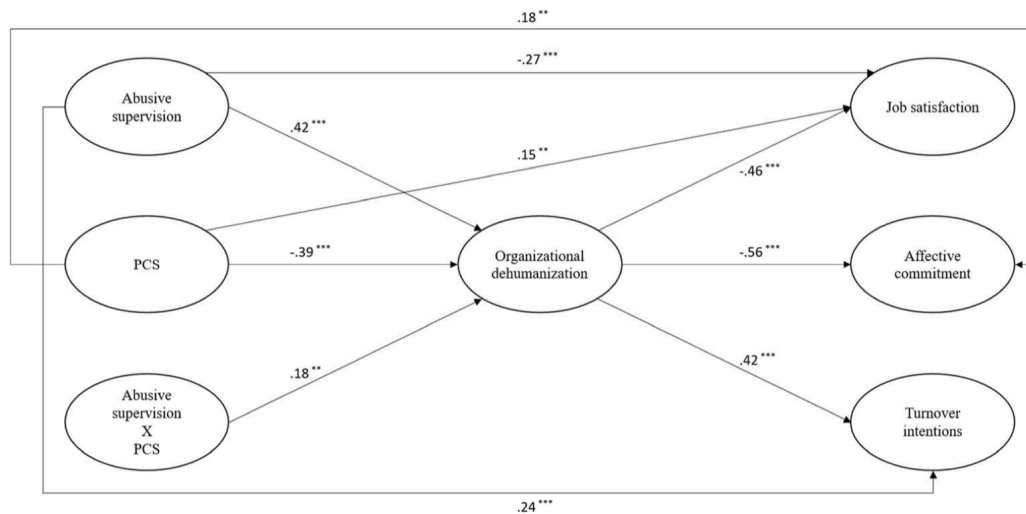
Figure 2.1. Structural Equation Model from Caesens et al. (2019). PCS = perceived coworker support. **p < 01; ***p < .001

Another recent study examined dehumanization in organizational settings using a qualitative approach (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). Using a grounded theory approach, the authors coded exit interview transcripts of employees at a subcontracting company and found that employee perceptions of dehumanization from the organization were negatively related to trust in the organization. Specifically, this study revealed that employees who reported dehumanizing aspects of organizational practices also perceived the organization to have less benevolence and integrity. Interestingly, the authors noted that intentional maltreatment was not the most common form of dehumanization experienced and reported by employees. Instead, in this particular sample, it appeared that the indifference with and lack of consideration for employee well-being that became apparent from organizational practices was the primary culprit of employees feeling dehumanized. This research suggests that deliberate acts of abuse from supervisors may not be the only source of employees' dehumanizing experiences. Instead, the subtle

instances of dehumanization instilled within everyday organizational practices and how employees are treated can give rise to such experiences.

Putting together the research reviewed above, extant theoretical and empirical work on organizational dehumanization indicates that the construct is relevant to organizations today, albeit ignored, and important for researchers in the organizational sciences to examine (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Christoff, 2014). Organizational dehumanization has been demonstrated to be a predictor of important employee outcomes such as job attitudes, well-being, strain, trust, and turnover intentions (Caesens et al., 2017; Caesens et al., 2019; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). To the extent that employee outcomes are relevant to the productive functioning of organizations, understanding the roots of dehumanizing experiences is also an important endeavor for research. To this end, extant empirical research has demonstrated that experiences with destructive leadership, specifically abusive supervision, is one source of organizational dehumanization (Caesens et al., 2019). Beyond the impact of supervisors with whom employees have direct interpersonal interactions, researchers have also suggested that another source from which dehumanization perceptions may arise is the organizational practices that employees experience at work (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). Indeed, Caesens and colleagues (2019) assert that employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization are often "based on the general policies and practices that the organizations implemented". Thus, in addition to experiences with their supervisor, it is also possible for employees to construe HR policies and practices themselves as dehumanizing. In the HR process, employees form interpretations about the organization's dehumanizing intentions based on their experience with the practices that

are implemented. One area of research that can be informative as to how these interpretations are formed is human resource attributions.

Human Resource Attribution Theory

Drawn from attribution theories in social psychology research (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985), human resource (HR) attribution theory (Nishii et al., 2008) posits that employee attitudinal and behavioral responses to HR practices arise from the attributions that employees form in regard to the purpose and motive behind the practices. In the original article, Nishii and colleagues (2008) defined HR attributions as "causal explanations that employees make regarding management's motivations for using particular HR practices". This definition highlights the distinction between attributions of HR practices and perceptions of HR practices. Whereas perceptions of how HR practices are implemented can be shared across several employees, particularly in strong contexts (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), the reasons attributed to *why* HR practices are implemented may vary from employee to employee (Nishii et al., 2008). Thus, compared to the typical focus on the mere presence of particular HR practices that strategic human resources management (SHRM) and high-performance work systems (HPWS) research tends to take, HR attribution theory places the importance on employees' interpretations of the organization's motives or intentions behind HR practices.

Although HR attribution theory emphasizes employee inferences of the organization's motive behind a practice, not much research has explicitly examined these attributions despite the original article receiving over 1000 citations over the past 10 years since publication. A recent review identified only eleven studies that empirically

examined HR attributions (Hewett, Shantz, Mundy, & Alfes, 2018). Instead, most research has examined perceived prevalence of HR practices. For instance, one study measured the degree to which particular HR practices were utilized (Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, & Gould-Williams, 2011). Another study asked employees to indicate the extent to which a particular work practice is offered (Den Hartog, Boon, Verburg, & Croon, 2013). Still another study adopted items from Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) and Truss (1999), which measure perceptions of HPWS (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013). The research cited above make important contributions to understanding the process through which HR practices impact outcomes at multiple levels in organizations and further highlight the role of employee perceptions in this process. However, they do not address the individual inferences of purpose or motive, which is a central concept in HR attributions.

Typology of HR Attributions

In Nishii and colleagues' (2008) original article, in which the construct of HR attributions was introduced, the authors proposed a typology of five attributions: enhancing quality, promoting well-being, keeping costs down, getting the most work out of employees, and complying with union requirements. Based on a confirmatory factor analysis, three dimensions emerged: *quality and employee enhancement* (combining the first two proposed attributions), *cost and employee exploitation* (combining the second two proposed attributions), and *union compliance*. With the exception of union compliance, HR attributions were found to differentially impact employee attitudes. Specifically, attributions that HR practices are implemented to enhance quality (i.e., performance) and employee well-being were positively related to job satisfaction and

organizational commitment whereas attributions that HR practices are primarily

motivated by an organization's desire to reduce costs and exploit employees were

negatively related to the same job attitudes (Nishii et al., 2008).

In a more recent article, Hewett, Shantz, and Mundy (2019) revised Nishii and

colleagues' (2008) typology (Figure 2.2). On the basis of their empirical observations, the

authors proposed that HR attributions may lie on a single dimension that ranges from

employee-centric to organization-centric. That is, employees interpret the organization's

philosophy behind HR practices as for the benefit of both the employee and the

organization (employee-centric) or only in the interest of achieving organizational

objectives (Hewett et al., 2019). These HR attributions can be further categorized as

originating from internal (i.e., initiated by the top management of the organization) or

external (i.e., enforced by an external party) causes. Both internal and external HR

attributions lie along the aforementioned dimension. For instance, attributions of an

employee-centric philosophy can stem from the belief that an HR practice is designed

with a focus on employee outcomes (i.e., *commitment attribution*) or from the belief that

the organization is complying with trade union regulations. The former is an internal HR

attribution whereas the latter is an external one. On the other extreme, attributions of an

organization-centric philosophy can arise from the belief that an HR practice is designed

to get the most out of employees for the least cost (i.e., *exploitation attribution*) or to

garner positive publicity for the organization. Again, the former is an internal HR

attribution whereas the latter is an external one. At the midpoint of the dimension,

straddling the attributions of strictly employee-centric and strictly organization-centric

organizational philosophies on the extreme ends, are the internal attribution of cost-saving and the external attribution of external reporting compliance.

Internal HR attributions:	Commitment	Cost-saving	Exploitation
HR philosophy:	*Employee-centric*		*Organization-centric*
External HR attributions:	Trade union compliance	External reporting compliance	(e.g. Impression management)
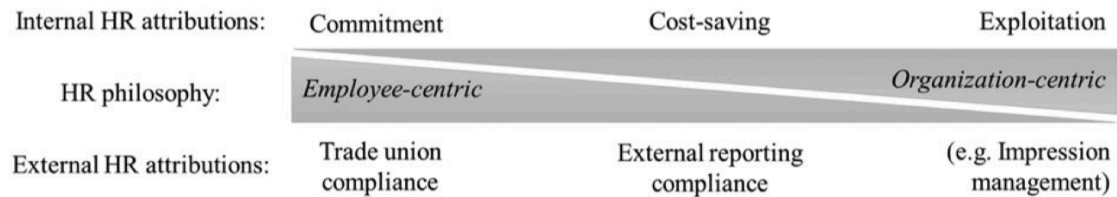
Figure 2.2 Revised Typology of HR Attributions from Hewett et al. (2019).

HR Attributions and Organizational Dehumanization

Whether intentional or not, organizations convey deep-rooted beliefs and values to employees through their HR policies and practices (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011; Ogbonnaya, Daniels, Connolly, van Veldhoven, & Nielsen, 2016). Past HRM research has typically focused on top management as the primary actors whose role is to govern employees through HR practices and treated employees as passive receivers (Flores, Posthuma, & Campion, 2016). However, theories in social psychology and the organizational sciences suggest that people form beliefs and cognitions based on their environment and develop unique interpretations and perspectives based on social cues (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Along these lines, HR attribution theory suggests that employees are active contributors to the HRM process as they develop and form their own interpretations for the meaning behind HR practices implemented by their organization (Nishii et al., 2008). Employees actively consider and integrate the cues signaled or leaked by the organization and respond accordingly. It follows then that employees may form beliefs regarding how their organization perceives them based on their interpretation regarding the underlying

motives of HR practices. That is, employees draw meaning from the HR practices they experience and form conclusions regarding how their organization views them. In the context of the present research, this suggests that employees may form perceptions of being dehumanized by their organization based on their attributions as to why HR practices are designed and implemented the way they are.

As discussed previously, attributions of HR practice motives lie along a continuum ranging from employee-centric to organization-centric (Hewett et al., 2019). Employees who attribute employee-centric motives to HR practices believe that their organization implements such practices to benefit both the employees and the organization. In this case, employees recognize that, although an organization must naturally emphasize organizational goals, it does not do so at the expense of employee well-being. By concerning itself with the well-being of employees, an organization demonstrates to employees that it recognizes them as individuals with their own unique needs and the potential to display idiosyncratic reactions to environmental cues. That is, the organization signals that it acknowledges employees as humans with their own unique needs and goals. Conversely, employees who attribute organization-centric motives to HR practices believe that their organization implements such practices to solely benefit the organization with little regard for employee well-being. In this case, employees believe that their well-being is not a crucial concern to the organization and that the organization prioritizes its own goals over the outcomes of individual employees. Employees are not treated as unique individuals with their own distinct needs and goals but as a means to achieve organizational goals. That is, employees are not treated as

humans but as resources that fulfill a purpose for the organization. Thus, on the basis of this reasoning, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Employee HR attributions are related to employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization. Specifically, (a) employees who tend to make employee-centric attributions perceive low levels of dehumanization whereas (b) employees who tend to make organization-centric attributions perceive high levels of dehumanization.

Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

As developed previously, supervisor-related constructs have been shown to relate to organizational dehumanization. A potential supervisor characteristic that may have important implications in this area is supervisor bottom-line mentality. Bottom-line mentality (BLM) is defined as "one-dimensional thinking that revolves around securing bottom-line outcomes to the neglect of competing priorities" (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Essentially, BLM reflects a general frame of mind in which bottom-line outcomes (e.g., profits) are the sole focus of goal pursuit and other meaningful outcomes are ignored. Although bottom-line outcomes are certainly important to organizations, an exclusive focus on a single outcome at the expense of other important outcomes can ultimately be detrimental to organizational success (Greenbaum et al., 2012; Wolfe, 1988). Thus, the adoption of a BLM can be problematic as it "encourages simplistic thinking whereby employees treat every situation as if only one objective were relevant" (Greenbaum et al., 2012).

Although the concept of bottom-line thinking and its potential harmfulness has been alluded to or referenced in conceptual work in the past (e.g., Kerr, 1975; Sims & Brinkman, 2002; Wolfe, 1988), empirical research on BLM began only recently with the development and validation of a measurement scale for the construct (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Now, there is a growing literature on BLM and its nomological network. Empirical evidence thus far supports the notion that BLM is related to several deleterious outcomes. In the original work introducing the brief measure of BLM, Greenbaum and colleagues (2012) demonstrated that employees with higher levels of BLM are more likely to engage in social undermining of coworkers. In another study, BLM was found to be negatively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors (Eissa et al., 2019).

Most relevant to the present study, empirical evidence indicates that the BLM of an immediate supervisor is related to detrimental outcomes for employees. In one study, supervisor BLM was positively related to employee perceptions of abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2017). In another study, researchers found supervisor BLM to be a predictor of unethical pro-leader behaviors (i.e., unethical employee behaviors that benefit the leader) and turnover intentions of employees with high morality (Mesdaghinia et al., 2018). Recent research has also demonstrated that supervisor BLM negatively impacts leader-member exchange (LMX) and employee task performance (Quade et al., 2019). Finally, in an interesting twist, Greenbaum and colleagues' (2012) study demonstrated that supervisor BLM is positively related to employee BLM. In accordance with social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), employees may develop a frame of mind that overemphasizes bottom-line outcomes from the attitudes and behaviors observed and learned from their supervisors (Greenbaum et al., 2012). As previously noted, this study

also indicated the employee BLM is an antecedent to social undermining of coworkers, suggesting that the BLM of supervisors may have distal negative impact on employees in a unit. Together, these findings provide evidence for the negative effect of supervisor BLM on the attitudes and behaviors of employees.

The deleterious impact of supervisor BLM on employee outcomes aligns the construct with the notion of destructive leadership, which includes leadership constructs such as petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), and exploitative leadership (Schmid, Verdorfer, & Peus, 2019). Destructive leadership in general reflects the deleterious behaviors leaders engage in that can harm followers or the organization (Krasikova, Green, & LeBrenton, 2013). Past research has clearly demonstrated the harmful consequences of destructive leadership on employees. A meta-analysis of destructive leadership reported that this overarching construct was negatively related to job satisfaction, commitment, well-being, and performance and positively related to turnover intentions (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Empirical research on each separate destructive leadership construct further corroborate this finding (Krasikova et al., 2013; Mackey, Frieder, Brees, Martinko, 2017; Schmid et al., 2019).

Notably, supervisor BLM reflects a frame of mind rather than a set of harmful behaviors, the latter of which is an integral part to the definition of destructive leadership. However, theory has emphasized the destructive nature of BLM and empirical work has revealed similarities in the nomological network of the two concepts (Eissa et al., 2019; Greenbaum et al., 2012; Quade et al., 2019). Indeed, research has indicated that supervisor BLM is positively correlated with Machiavellianism (Eissa et al., 2019) and abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2017), both of which are implicated in destructive

leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013). This suggests that supervisor BLM operates in a similar fashion to destructive leadership. Thus, to the extent that destructive leadership may engender negative responses from employees, supervisor BLM may similarly do so as well. Along these lines and in the context of the present study, supervisor BLM emerges as a potential antecedent to employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization.

Supervisor BLM and Organizational Dehumanization

Empirical research has established a preliminary link between destructive leadership and organizational dehumanization. As noted previously, Caesens and colleagues (2019) demonstrated a positive relationship between abusive supervision and organizational dehumanization. Abusive supervision reflects employee perceptions of "the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000). Caesens and colleagues (2019) reasoned that employees who suffer abuse from their supervisors may blame the organization for this negative treatment (Levinson, 1965; Tepper, 2000) and feel dehumanized by the organization. Specifically, the authors assert that experiencing abusive supervision would cause the employee to "feel treated like less than human and attribute it partly to the organization" (Caesens et al., 2019).

Perceptions of being dehumanized may arise from experiences other than abuse. Abuse, which is characterized by hostile incivility, is only one form of interactional injustice that may cause a person to feel treated as subhuman. Other forms of interactional injustice may also engender similar feelings (Bastian & Haslam, 2011). Being dehumanized primarily reflects the experience of being treated as a tool or

instrument that is to be utilized to achieve the goals of others (Caesens et al., 2017; Caesens et al., 2019). Thus, interactions with supervisors that imply or give the sense of being manipulated or exploited like an instrument can also make employees feel dehumanized, even if open hostility is absent.

Researchers have suggested that supervisors with high BLMs may be exploitative. Bonner and colleagues (2017) argued that high BLM supervisors "become obsessed with their own success and survival in a competitive environment and disregard the needs and wants of those around them". Building on this argument, Mesdaghinia and colleagues (2018) suggested that high BLM supervisors "strive to achieve their own bottom-line consisting of such personal metrics as reputation, bonus, promotion, or job security". Similarly, Quade and colleagues (2019) assert that high BLM supervisors treat employees as "only a means to a personally-advantageous end for the supervisor, whereby the employee is a resource that is being exploited". Importantly, the authors further suggest that this preoccupation with personal outcomes renders supervisors unaware or uninterested in the personal goals and well-being of their employees (Quade et al., 2019). These arguments are further substantiated by the accompanying empirical results of the studies. For instance, supervisor BLM was negatively related to LMX (Quade et al., 2019) and positively related to unethical pro-leader behavior (Mesdaghinia et al., 2018).

The discussion above suggests that high BLM supervisors may make employees feel dehumanized by the organization. Due to the tendency for high BLM supervisors to act in self-interest and exploit employees, employees of such supervisors may feel treated as an instrument by their organization. Since employees may perceive supervisors as representatives who enact the will of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2010; Levinson,

25

1965), employees may believe that the focus on the bottom line of their supervisors is instilled in them by the organization to facilitate the achievement of organizational goals. In this view, supervisors are tasked by the organization to meet certain performance metrics and are provided employees to use to meet those goals. This interactional injustice of treating employees as tools to meet the bottom line may signal to employees that their personal goals and well-being is unimportant to the organization. Thus, employees with high BLM supervisors may believe that the organization as a whole dehumanizes them and values them only to the extent that they are instrumental to organizational outcomes.

Hypothesis 2: Supervisor bottom-line mentality is positively related to employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization.

Supervisor BLM and HR Attributions

Along the same lines, supervisor BLM may also relate to employee HR attributions. Since direct supervisors are generally responsible for the implementation of HR practices (Nishii & Wright, 2008; Russell et al., 2018; Schleicher et al., 2018), the HR system that employees experience is that which their supervisors put into practice. As supervisors are also viewed as representatives of the organization (Levinson, 1965), employees may form attributions about their organizations' intentions based on HR practices implemented by their supervisors (Nishii & Wright, 2008). Thus, following the same logic as outlined previously to describe how supervisor BLM relates to employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization, supervisor BLM should also have an

impact on employee attributions of organizational motives and intents behind HR practices. High BLM supervisors have a high tendency to display exploitative behavior and exert pressure on employees in order to meet their own bottom line (Bonner et al., 2017; Mesdaghinia et al., 2018; Quade et al., 2019). Employees who experience this maltreatment from their supervisors may interpret it to mean that the organization as a whole has little concern for the well-being of its employees and form organization-centric attributions to HR practices. Conversely, low BLM supervisors do not exhibit a unidimensional fixation with bottom line outcomes and therefore tend not to exploit employees in an effort to meet such objectives. In this case, employees are more likely to form employee-centric attributions to HR practices as they do not experience mistreatment from low BLM supervisors as would be expected from high BLM supervisors.

Hypothesis 3: Supervisor bottom-line mentality is related to HR attributions such that (a) employees with high BLM supervisors are more likely to form organization-centric attributions and (b) employees with low BLM supervisors are more likely to form employee-centric attributions.

Integrating the previous hypotheses (Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3), HR attributions emerges as a potential mechanism through which supervisor BLM impacts employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization. A supervisor's tendency to overly focus on bottom line outcomes may indirectly impact the degree to which employees feel dehumanized by the organization through its effect on HR attributions. As outlined

previously, high BLM supervisors prompt employees to form organization-centric HR attributions, and this should subsequently engender higher levels of perceived organizational dehumanization. Conversely, low BLM supervisors prompt employees to form employee-centric HR attributions, and this should subsequently give rise to lower levels of perceived organizational dehumanization.

Hypothesis 4: Supervisor bottom-line mentality has an indirect effect on employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization through HR attributions. Specifically, supervisor BLM positively relates to organizational dehumanization through its (a) positive effect on organization-centric attributions and (b) negative effect on employee-centric attributions.

The Moderating Role of Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

Although the previous rationale assumed in general that supervisors tend to be perceived as representatives of the organization, research has also indicated that this may not always be the case. Eisenberger and colleagues (2010) introduced the concept of a supervisor's organizational embodiment, which refers to the degree to which employees perceive that their supervisor and the organization share an identity. Employees who perceive their supervisor to be high on organizational embodiment are more likely to perceive the treatment they receive from the supervisor as treatment from the organization itself. In contrast, employees who perceive their supervisor to be low on embodiment disassociate supervisor behaviors from the organization. This tendency to conflate or not conflate the supervisor with the organization has theoretical implications

for the degree to which leadership behaviors impact beliefs and attitudes directed toward the organization. Indeed, empirical research has demonstrated that employee perceptions of supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the relationship between leadership variables, such as leader-member exchange, and organizational variables, such as affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2010).

More relevant to the present study, research also suggests that supervisor's organizational embodiment impacts the degree to which employees hold their organization responsible for the leadership they experience. In one study, supervisor's organizational embodiment moderated the relationship between abusive supervision and perceived organizational support, which demonstrated subsequent consequences for task and contextual performance (Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). Specifically, abusive supervision was negatively related to perceived organizational support only when employee perceptions of supervisor's organizational embodiment was high but not when it was low (Shoss et al., 2013). This suggests that although negative experiences with a supervisor can damage an employee's judgment of the organization, the degree to which this occurs depends on the extent to which the supervisor shares an identity with the organization in the eyes of the employee. Along these lines, employee experiences with high BLM supervisors may induce feelings of being dehumanized by the organization, but this relationship may depend on the degree to which the employee perceives the supervisor as personifying the organization. In other words, supervisor's organizational embodiment is a potential moderator of the relationship between supervisor BLM and employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization.

Hypothesis 5: Supervisor organizational embodiment moderates the positive relationship between supervisor bottom-line mentality and employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization. Specifically, the relationship between supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization should be more (less) positive at high (low) levels of supervisor organizational embodiment.

Similarly, supervisor's organizational embodiment should moderate the relationship between supervisor BLM and employee HR attributions. The underlying theoretical rationale used to explain this relationship assumed that supervisors are seen as representatives or personifications of the organization (Levinson, 1965). However, since HR attributions are cognitions most directly associated with the organization rather than the supervisor, the degree to which supervisor BLMs prompt a particular formation of HR attributions depends on the extent to which employees view the supervisor as personifying the organization. Employees who have high BLM supervisors and also perceive their supervisors as an embodiment of the organization may be more likely to make attributions of their organizations' intents and motives behind HR. This further suggests that the indirect effect of supervisor BLM on employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization through HR attributions may be conditional on the level of supervisor's organizational embodiment as well (i.e., the indirect effect should be stronger at higher levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment).

Hypothesis 6: Supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the relationship between supervisor bottom-line mentality and employee HR attributions. Specifically,

high (low) supervisor BLM is more strongly related to organization-centric (employee-centric) HR attributions at high levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment.

Hypothesis 7: Supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the positive indirect effect of supervisor bottom-line mentality on employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization through HR attributions. Specifically, the indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization is more positive at high levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment.

Consequences of Organizational Dehumanization

Being dehumanized involves the perception that one is not treated as a full human and rather as an object to be used. In essence, a person being dehumanized is being denied humanity. Dehumanization can thus be conceptualized as a form of maltreatment from the perspective of the person being dehumanized (Bastian & Haslam, 2011). Research on other forms of maltreatment, such as being denied autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000) or socially excluded (Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007), have demonstrated adverse effects on victims. Similarly, being denied "one's identity as a person" may also lead to deleterious outcomes for the person being dehumanized (Bastian & Haslam, 2011). In a series of studies, Bastian and Haslam (2011) found that victims of dehumanization experienced several negative cognitive and affective outcomes. Specifically, dehumanization was found to engender emotional responses of anger, sadness, guilt, and shame, as well as activate cognitive response such as aversive self-awareness (Bastian & Haslam, 2011). This research indicates that, similar to other

cases of interpersonal maltreatment, the experience of being dehumanized also leads to negative consequences for victims.

Replicating Past Research on Consequences: Job Attitudes and Turnover Intentions

Drawing from this work, researchers have also argued that dehumanization in work settings is associated with detrimental employee outcomes. Far from being an innocuous phenomenon, dehumanization in work settings can be damaging to employees who experience it (Christoff, 2014). Based on the rationale that being in a destructive and demeaning relationship with one's organization thwarts basic needs and damages well-being (Gillet, Fouquereau, Forest, Brunault, & Colombat, 2012; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012), researchers hypothesized that organizational dehumanization negatively impacts job attitudes and induces withdrawal cognitions. Indeed, empirical work thus far has corroborated this. For instance, prior research has already demonstrated that organizational dehumanization is negatively related to favorable job attitudes and positively related to unfavorable well-being and withdrawal outcomes (Caesens et al., 2017; Caesens et al., 2019; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2018). Specifically, organizational dehumanization was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment and positively related to turnover intentions. To replicate these findings, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions are examined as consequences of organizational dehumanization in the present research.

Hypothesis 8: Organizational dehumanization is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9: Organizational dehumanization is negatively related to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 10: Organizational dehumanization is positively related to turnover intentions.

Organizational Dehumanization and Burnout

In Caesens and colleagues' (2017) initial investigation, organizational dehumanization was found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion. Extending this research and replicating this finding, burnout, which is a broader construct that encompasses emotional exhaustion, is proposed as a potential outcome of organizational dehumanization.

Burnout refers to an extreme adverse response to stressors at work and is characterized by the experiences of exhaustion and disengagement from work (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Recent work has suggested that, as an alternative to the popular three-dimension model of burnout (i.e., exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy), another valid approach is to conceptualize burnout as consisting of two dimensions: exhaustion and disengagement from work. Demerouti and colleagues (2010) developed and validated the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory, which measures the two dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement. Exhaustion refers to "intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain" and disengagement refers to "distancing oneself from one's work in general, work object, and work content" (Demerouti et al., 2010).

Empirical research on burnout indicates that job demands and job resources are important categories of antecedents (Alarcon, 2011; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Job demands refer to aspects of the job that incur physical and mental costs as a result of sustained effort expenditure (Demerouti et al., 2001), such as role stressors, workload, and pressure. Conversely, job resources refer to aspects of the job that assist goal attainment, reduce demands, or stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2011), such as autonomy and social support. Importantly, empirical research has also evidenced that job demands and job resources predict burnout conceptualized as exhaustion and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001), which provides support for the exhaustion-disengagement framework of burnout. In addition, the two constructs also interact such that job resources buffer the effects of job demands on burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005). Specifically, it is suggested that a combination of high job demands and low job resources can be particularly harmful and predictive of burnout.

In the context of the present study, organizational dehumanization can be viewed as a situation in which an individual experiences high job demands accompanied by low job resources. Employees who feel dehumanized at work perceive their organization to be placing workloads and work pressures on them while simultaneously denying personal agency and thwarting their needs (Bell & Khoury, 2011). In other words, employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization reflect a state of high job demands and low job resources, a combination of which is predictive of burnout. Furthermore, empirical research thus far has demonstrated that organizational dehumanization is negatively related to perceived organizational support and positively related to emotional exhaustion

and psychosomatic strains (Caesens et al., 2017), which are known correlates of burnout (e.g., Jawahar, Stone, & Kisamore, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, employees who feel dehumanized by their organization may be more likely to suffer from burnout as well.

Hypothesis 11: Organizational dehumanization is positively related to burnout.

Organizational Dehumanization and Job Performance

One category of consequences that has yet to be empirically examined in the organizational dehumanization literature is job performance. Job performance can be defined as "things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals" (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). This definition emphasizes that job performance reflects the purposeful employee behaviors that demonstrate value to an organization, regardless of formal documentation in a job description. One framework for conceptualizing job performance divides behavior along three dimensions: task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors (Motowidlo, 2003). Task performance refers to behaviors that support the technical core of an organization's operations by directly contributing to the goods and services produced (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo, 2003). Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), also referred to as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), are defined as behaviors that contribute to the social and psychological environment of the workplace (Organ, 1997). Whereas task performance reflects behaviors that are more directly linked to tasks outlined in job descriptions, OCBs reflect

behaviors that bring value to the organization via its impact on the work context (Motowidlo, 2003; Organ, 1997). Finally, counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) refer to intentional behaviors that bring harm to the organization or actively detract from organizational goals (Motowidlo, 2003; Spector et al., 2006). CWBs can be considered an antipode to OCBs, reflecting dysfunctional rather than helpful behaviors. The three factors of job performance (i.e., task performance, OCBs, and CWBs) present a useful framework for capturing the broad range of work-related employee behaviors that contribute (or detract) value in an organization. Although extant research has not yet specifically addressed or empirically demonstrated the link between employee perceptions of organizational dehumanization and the spectrum of job performance constructs, a theoretical link can be delineated based on conceptual work and extant empirical research on related constructs.

In terms of task performance, extensive research on constructs conceptually related to organizational dehumanization indicate that such experiences have deleterious effects. As previously suggested, organizational dehumanization can be categorized as a form of interpersonal maltreatment (Bastian & Haslam, 2011; Christoff, 2014). Along these lines, extant research has indicated that other forms of interpersonal maltreatment negatively impact task performance (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013; Schilpzand, Pater, & Erez, 2016). For instance, field and experimental research have demonstrated that workplace ostracism has a negative effect on task performance (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008; Lustenberger & Jagacinski, 2010). As another example, research has also shown that experiences with workplace incivility also negatively impacts task performance (Porath & Erez, 2007; Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012). Thus, to the extent that

organizational dehumanization represents a form of interpersonal maltreatment, this experience is also expected to negatively affect task performance.

Hypothesis 12: Organizational dehumanization is negatively related to task performance.

Following the same logic, organizational dehumanization has a theoretical connection with extra-role performance (i.e., OCBs and CWBs). Prior research on other forms of interpersonal maltreatment support this notion. For instance, empirical research has demonstrated that workplace ostracism is negatively related to OCBs (Balliet & Ferris, 2012; Ferris et al., 2008) and positively related to CWBs (Ferris et al., 2008; Yan, Zhou, Long, & Ji, 2014). Research has also indicated that workplace incivility is negatively related to OCBs (Schilpzand & Huang, 2018; Taylor et al., 2012) and positively related to CWBs (Penney & Spector, 2005; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Again, to the extent that organization dehumanization can be construed to be a form of interpersonal maltreatment, this experience is also expected to impact OCBs and CWBs in a similar manner as other types of maltreatment.

Hypothesis 13: Organizational dehumanization is negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 14: Organizational dehumanization is positively related to counterproductive work behaviors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants for this research study were recruited on Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Participants had to meet several requirements in order to participate in the study. Participants were employed full-time or part-time in the United States, were at least 18 years old, and had at least a 95% approval rating in the MTurk system. To determine an a priori target sample size, a power analysis was conducted using conservative estimates for the size of the proposed interaction effect. An a priori power analysis using G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009), indicated that a sample size of n = 264 was required to detect the proposed interaction effect with 80% power, assuming a small but practically significant change in outcome variance explained by the interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$) and a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ for the hypothesis test. Thus, a target sample size of n = 300 was determined for the present study. Participants were also asked to forward a separate survey link containing a subset of measures to their supervisor in order to obtain a second response source for some variables.

In total, 524 people accessed the Qualtrics survey shared on MTurk. 74 people did not complete the survey and another 49 people failed the attention check requirement. The final data set consisted of 401 respondents ($N = 401$). In terms of individual

demographics, participants in this sample were predominantly White/Caucasian (79.6%; Asian = 6.7%; Black/African American = 6.0%; Hispanic/Latino = 5.2%; Mixed = 2.5%) and reported English as their first language (97.8%). The amount of men to women was approximately even (male = 51.6 %; female = 47.9%; other = 0.5%). Age was approximately normally distributed, with the majority of respondents reporting an age range of 31-40 years old (37.9%; 18-24 = 5.0%; 25-30 = 22.4%; 41-50 = 19.5%; 51-60 = 12.2%; over 60 = 3.0%). Most respondents reported having a college degree (43.6%; high school/GED = 20.2%; associates = 18.2%; master's = 16.0%; doctorate = 2.0%) and being married (46.4%; single = 35.7%).

For work-related variables, the majority of participants were employed full-time at their organization (94.0%; part-time = 6.0%). On average, participants had worked at their current organization for 6.43 years ($SD = 5.67$), in their current job position for 4.70 years ($SD = 4.24$), and with their current supervisor for 3.98 years ($SD = 3.48$). Most respondents worked at least 40 hours a week (85.5%; $M = 40.63$, $SD = 6.44$, minimum = 8.0, maximum = 72.0) and only a few respondents worked less than 25 hours a week (2.7%). A slight majority of respondents reported an annual salary range of $70,000 or more (22.9%), followed by respondents who reported a range of $30,000 to $39,999 (20.0%). Lastly, a slight majority of participants reported not having responsibility for direct reports (57.1%; yes = 42.9%).

In terms of organization demographics, participants in this sample predominantly worked in for-profit organizations (79.3%; nonprofit = 20.7%) and in organizations with 1,000 or more employees (32.7%), seven organizational levels or more (25.4%), and highly centralized decision-making (CEO, president, or managing director = 59.4%).

There was also a good representation of organizations across geographical locations (South = 34.2%; Midwest = 25.2%; Northeast = 20.4%; West = 20.0%). Additional information about the sample demographics can be found in Appendix A.

Procedure

A Qualtrics survey link was distributed online using the MTurk Toolkit feature from Cloud Research (formerly TurkPrime). Participants who registered to participate in this study were screened by the system to ensure they met the requirements stated previously. Participants who met the requirements completed an informed consent to participate in this research and proceeded to complete the survey. Attention checks were placed throughout the survey and the survey was programmed to automatically skip participants to the end if more than one attention check was missed at any point. Participants who successfully completed the survey without missing attention checks were compensated $2.00 and thanked for their participation. Participants were also asked to complete an optional task of forwarding a separate survey link to their supervisor via email or text for an additional $0.25. The link provided for supervisors consisted of a brief survey with a portion of the employee measures. Specifically, supervisors were asked to report on their own BLM, employee performance measures (i.e., task performance, OCBs, and CWBs), HR practices, and demographic variables. Only 4 completed responses were obtained from supervisors (less than 1% of the employee sample). Due to the low number of responses, supplemental analyses using this supervisor data would be severely underpowered and results would be potentially misleading. Thus, the supervisor measures (presented in Appendix E) were not used for any analysis and are not discussed further.

<center>**Measures**</center>

All self-report measures presented to employees are provided in Appendix D.

HR Attributions

An updated measurement scale obtained from Rebecca Hewett (personal correspondence, August 21, 2019) based on the scale she used for a previous publication (Hewett et al., 2019) was administered to assess HR attributions. In contrast to previous measures of HR attributions which assessed attributions of specific HR practices separately, this updated scale measures attributions of the whole HR system. Validation work for this updated scale has also been conducted by the original author. This measure assessed the degree to which participants make attributions ranging from organization-centric to employee-centric. Specifically, this measure asked participants the extent to which they make exploitation and commitment attributions. As discussed in the literature review, these attributions refer to internal HR attributions: exploitation attributions reflect organization-centric HR attributions and commitment attributions reflect employee-centric HR attributions (Hewett et al., 2019). For the present study, only internal attributions were assessed and external attributions (i.e., trade union compliance and external reporting compliance) were not assessed. Given the wide sampling approach of recruiting participants from various organizations instead of a single organization, external attributions may not have applied to some participants and thus may not have been appropriate to assess.

Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree) with statements that referred to either an exploitation or

<center>41</center>

commitment HR attribution. A sample item that was used to assess the degree to which participants make exploitation attributions reads: "I think that my organization has human resource policies and practices in place to force me to work harder." A sample item that was used to assess the degree to which participants make commitment attributions reads: "I think that my organization has human resource policies and practices in place so that I feel valued and respected." Cronbach's α was .88 and .94 for organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions respectively.

Organizational Dehumanization

The Organizational Dehumanization Scale developed and validated by Caesens and colleagues (2017) was administered to assess the construct. Participants were asked the degree to which they agreed with a series of 11 statements (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include: "My organization considers me as a tool to use for its own ends" and "The only thing that counts for my organization is what I can contribute to it". Cronbach's α for the scale was .94.

Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

The Bottom-Line Mentality measure developed and validated by Greenbaum and colleagues (2012) was administered to assess supervisor BLM. Participants were asked to rate their supervisor's BLM by indicating the degree to which they agreed with four statements regarding BLM (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). A sample item is: "My supervisor treats the bottom line as more important than anything else". In the original article, Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .96.

Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

The Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment scale developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (2010) was administered to assess the construct. Participants were asked the degree to which they perceived their supervisor as sharing similar characteristics with the organization by indicating the degree to which they agreed with eight statements (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). A sample item is: "When I am evaluated by my supervisor, it is the same as being evaluated by the organization". In the original article, Cronbach's alpha for this scale was α = .92.

Job Satisfaction

The short-form job satisfaction subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire was administered to assess the construct. Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed to three items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). A sample item is: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job". Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .96.

Affective Commitment

The affective commitment subscale from the Organizational Commitment Scale developed and validated by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) was administered to measure the construct. Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed with five items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). A sample item is: "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". Cronbach's alpha for this scale was α = .93.

Turnover Intentions

A brief measured adapted from Hom and Griffeth (1991) and Jaros (1997) was administered to assess turnover intentions (Beintein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005). Participants were asked the extent to which they agree with two items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). A sample item is: "I often think about quitting this organization". Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .92.

Burnout

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory developed and validated by Demerouti and colleagues (2010) was administered to assess burnout, conceptualized as exhaustion and disengagement. Participants will be asked the extent to which they agreed with sixteen items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include: "During my work, I often feel emotionally drained" and "Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically". Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .93.

Task Performance

The five positively worded items for in-role behaviors from Williams and Anderson (1991) were adapted and administered to assess task performance. Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed with four items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include: "I fulfill the responsibilities specified in my job description" and "I meet the formal performance requirements of my job". Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .85.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C) used in Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010) was administered to assess OCBs. Participants were asked to self-report how often they have engaged in a list of ten items (1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day). Sample items include: "Helped a co-worker who had too much to do" and "Volunteered for extra work assignments". Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .85.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

The Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C) used in Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010) was administered to assess CWBs. Participants were asked to self-report how often they have engaged in a list of ten items (1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day). Sample items include: "Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies" and "Insulted or made fun of someone at work". Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .82.

HR Practices

In addition to HR attributions, HR practices as perceived and experienced by employees were also of theoretical interest. Although no specific hypotheses were proposed, exploratory analyses were conducted on HR practices. A measure with items selected from various scales used in past research (Jensen et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007) was administered to assess employee perceptions of HR practices. This measure assessed the extent to which employees experienced the HR practices implemented by their organization. In the HRM literature, the choice and measurement methodology of HR practices is known to be idiosyncratic

across studies, especially for research conducted using a sample from a single organization. Given the sampling approach for the present study, the specific HR practices chosen to be measured were selection, training, performance management, and compensation as these practices were most common across studies and different organizations (e.g., Lepak & Snell, 2002; Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, & Campion, 2013; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005). Participants were asked to evaluate three items pertaining to each HR practice and indicated either "Yes", "No", or "I don't know". Following past research, a summative index was created by adding the "Yes" responses, coded as 1 (Wright et al., 2005). "No" and "I don't know" responses were coded as 0. This summative index reflects the overall extent to which an employee experienced common HR practices used in organizations.

Organization Demographics

A set of items assessed basic characteristics of the organizations that participants worked for. Participants were asked to report, to the best of their knowledge, their organization's type (profit or non-profit), size, region, and industry. Each characteristic was measured with one multiple-choice item (Appendix D).

Individual Demographics

A set of items assessed individual characteristics of each participant. Participants were asked to report their sex, age, race, whether English is their native language, marital status, state of residence, education, and employment information. For employment information, participants were asked to report their status (full-time or part-time), job title, organization tenure, job tenure, tenure with supervisor, whether they were responsible for direct reports, hours worked per week, and salary range. Each

characteristic was measured with one multiple-choice or fill-in-the-blank item (Appendix D).

Insufficient Effort Responding Items

The Insufficient Effort Responding scale developed and validated by Huang, Bowling, Liu, & Li (2015) was used to check for attention and detect low effort responses from participants. Participants were asked to report the degree to which they agreed with five items (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include: "I eat cement occasionally" and "I work fourteen months a year".

Items from this scale were randomly placed at different places throughout the survey. At the beginning of the survey, participants were forewarned about the presence of these items in the survey. Consistent with past research, a response indicating disagreement at any level (i.e., "strongly disagree", "disagree", or "somewhat disagree" on the Likert scale) was considered attentive responding (Huang et al., 2015). Participants who failed to indicate disagreement on more than one item on this scale were immediately disqualified from the study.

<div align="center">

Analytic Strategy

</div>

Analyses were conducted in R using the *base*, *psych*, and *lavaan* packages. All hypotheses were evaluated using null-hypothesis significance tests. To test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, bivariate correlations between the hypothesized variables were calculated and evaluated at the $p < .05$ level of significance. In addition, for each correlation analysis involving the focal variables of interest (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3), supplemental multiple regression analyses were conducted with the inclusion of

covariates to provide a stronger test of the proposed relationships. For these analyses,

outcome variables were regressed on respective antecedents and other measured variables

that were found to have significant correlations across the focal variables. To test

Hypotheses 5 and 6, a regression analysis was conducted with the dependent variable

regressed on the predictor and moderator variables along with the interaction term

between the two variables. The interaction term was evaluated at the $p < .05$ level of

significance. Graphs were also be generated to visualize the nature of the interactions. To

test Hypothesis 4, the proposed indirect effect was analyzed using Preacher and Hayes'

(2004) approach. A bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval was calculated to

estimate the indirect effect. The interval was set at the 95% confidence level and

calculated with 10,000 bootstrapped samples. Support for the hypothesis was indicated if

the confidence interval did not include zero. Finally, to test Hypothesis 7, the proposed

conditional indirect effect was analyzed using the approach proposed by Hayes (2015). A

bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval was calculated to estimate the index of

moderated mediation. The interval was set at the 95% confidence level and calculated

with 10,000 bootstrapped samples. Support for the hypothesis was indicated if the

confidence interval did not include zero.

  In addition to the formal tests of hypotheses, several additional analyses were

conducted. As an extension of Hypothesis 7, parallel indirect effects with both

organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions as mediators were examined.

Conditional parallel indirect effects with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a

moderator were also tested. These analyses provided a holistic assessment of the

relationship between the variables of interest depicted in the front end of Figure 1.1. In

addition, HR practices and demographic variables were further examined in relation to

the variables of interest.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 4.1. Pearson

correlations are reported for all variables except those measured on an ordinal scale (i.e.,

organization size, organization levels, organization centralization, education, and salary)

for which Spearman correlations are reported. Variables measured on a nominal scale

(i.e., region, industry, and marital status) were not included and are addressed in

supplemental analyses.

For organization demographics, several notable observations emerged.

Organization type (0 = nonprofit, 1 = for-profit) was positively related to organizational

dehumanization ($r = .14$, $p < .01$), organization-centric HR attributions ($r = .14$, $p < .01$),

and supervisor BLM ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), but not significantly related to employee-centric

HR attributions ($r = -.01$, $p > .05$). The number of hierarchical levels in an organization

was positively related to organizational dehumanization ($r = .13$, $p < .05$) and

organization-centric HR attributions ($r = .14$, $p < .01$), and negatively related to

supervisor's organizational embodiment ($r = -.13$, $p < .05$). Interestingly, centralization

of decision-making was not significantly related to the focal variables.

For work-related variables, salary was negatively related to organizational

dehumanization ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$), organization-centric HR attributions ($r = -.12$, p

< .05), supervisor BLM ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$), and positively related to employee-centric HR attributions ($r = .13$, $p < .05$). Responsibility for direct reports was negatively related to organizational dehumanization ($r = -.11$, $p < .05$) and positively related to employee-centric HR attributions ($r = .12$, $p < .05$). Interestingly, employment status (0 = full-time, 1 = part-time), tenure variables, and weekly work hours were not significantly correlated with the focal variables.

For individual demographics, only education had significant relationships with some focal variables. Specifically, education was negatively related to organizational dehumanization ($r = -.12$, $p < .05$) and negatively related to supervisor BLM ($r = -.18$, $p < .01$). It is important to note, however, that education was also positively related to salary ($r = .39$, $p < .01$) and having responsibility for direct reports ($r = .17$, $p < .01$). Other individual demographics variables (e.g., gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; race: 0 = White, 1 = non-White) were not significantly correlated with the focal variables.

Table 4.1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Variables in Present Study

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Organizational Dehumanization	3.77	1.49	(.94)				
2. Organization-centric HR Attributions	3.35	1.60	.67	(.88)			
3. Employee-centric HR Attributions	4.46	1.72	−.55	−.36	(.94)		
4. Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	3.35	1.81	.72	.61	−.40	(.96)	
5. Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment	5.00	1.15	−.44	−.29	.52	−.27	(.92)
6. Job Satisfaction	5.10	1.67	−.68	−.48	.67	−.54	.54
7. Affective Commitment	4.36	1.62	−.68	−.41	.59	−.48	.56
8. Burnout	3.58	1.15	.66	.50	−.60	.54	−.49
9. Turnover Intentions	3.22	1.97	.65	.48	−.59	.52	−.48
10. Performance	6.12	.76	−.12	−.13	.08	−.15	.25
11. OCB	2.88	.70	−.09	.10	.14	−.06	.20
12. CWB	1.44	.45	.34	.29	−.39	.19	−.25
13. Selection	2.03	.75	−.02	.05	.22	−.03	.14
14. Training	2.53	.91	−.31	−.20	.45	−.30	.25
15. Performance Management	2.38	.91	−.23	−.08	.38	−.26	.21
16. Compensation	1.97	1.21	−.26	−.16	.41	−.14	.36
17. HR Practices (Total)	8.91	2.73	−.31	−.16	.53	−.26	.36
18. Organization Type	.79	.41	.14	.14	−.01	.17	.03
19. Organization Size	4.21	1.61	.05	.04	.04	−.10	−.05
20. Organization Levels	3.06	1.44	.13	.14	−.02	−.04	−.13
21. Organization Centralization	1.54	.76	−.02	.02	−.01	.01	−.06
22. Gender	.48	.50	−.04	−.02	.02	.00	.08
23. Age	3.20	1.16	.03	−.03	−.07	.02	−.03
24. Race	.20	.40	.01	.08	.08	.02	.04
25. English	.98	.15	.04	.04	−.09	.05	−.05
26. Education	2.61	1.04	−.12	−.06	.07	−.18	−.01
27. Status	.06	.24	.02	.02	.01	.03	.08
28. Organization Tenure	6.43	5.67	−.06	−.03	−.04	−.08	−.02
29. Job Tenure	4.70	4.24	−.01	−.01	−.08	−.02	−.06
30. Supervisor Tenure	3.98	3.48	−.02	.02	−.07	.05	−.02
31. Direct Reports	.43	.50	−.11	−.03	.12	−.02	.10
32. Weekly Hours	40.63	6.44	.08	.09	−.08	.03	−.09
33. Salary	5.31	1.97	−.21	−.12	.13	−.20	.05

Note. Pearson correlations reported for all variables except organization size, organization levels, organization centralization, education, and salary for which Spearman correlations are reported. All | r | > .09 are significant at $p < .05$. All | r | > .13 are significant at $p < .01$. All | r | > .16 are significant at $p < .001$. Scale reliabilities (α) reported on the diagonal. Ns = 396-401.
HR = Human Resource
OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Table 4.1. continued.

	Mean	SD	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
6. Job Satisfaction	5.10	1.67	(.96)						
7. Affective Commitment	4.36	1.62	.82	(.93)					
8. Burnout	3.58	1.15	−.81	−.76	(.93)				
9. Turnover Intentions	3.22	1.97	−.83	−.79	.78	(.92)			
10. Performance	6.12	.76	.19	.12	−.22	−.14	(.85)		
11. OCB	2.88	.70	.17	.25	−.11	−.13	.09	(.85)	
12. CWB	1.44	.45	−.38	−.34	.45	.40	−.22	.05	(.82)
13. Selection	2.03	.75	.19	.12	−.12	−.16	.02	.12	−.07
14. Training	2.53	.91	.37	.35	−.33	−.39	.10	.15	−.16
15. Performance Management	2.38	.91	.30	.25	−.28	−.32	.07	.19	−.12
16. Compensation	1.97	1.21	.35	.31	−.32	−.32	.09	.15	−.17
17. HR Practices (Total)	8.91	2.73	.44	.38	−.39	−.43	.10	.22	−.19
18. Organization Type	.79	.41	−.05	−.09	.07	.07	−.02	−.04	.07
19. Organization Size	4.21	1.61	.04	−.01	−.07	−.09	.05	.15	.03
20. Organization Levels	3.06	1.44	−.05	−.07	.04	.03	.02	.19	.14
21. Organization Centralization	1.54	.76	.04	.05	−.06	−.10	−.06	.07	.08
22. Gender	.48	.50	.01	.08	−.02	.03	.08	.05	−.07
23. Age	3.20	1.16	.02	.06	−.11	.00	.06	.09	.00
24. Race	.20	.40	−.01	.00	.02	.04	−.06	.01	−.03
25. English	.98	.15	−.04	−.02	.09	.06	.00	.04	.06
26. Education	2.61	1.04	.12	.10	−.11	−.10	.00	.05	−.07
27. Status	.06	.24	.01	.02	−.03	.05	.02	−.07	−.04
28. Organization Tenure	6.43	5.67	.12	.18	−.12	−.14	.06	.13	.06
29. Job Tenure	4.70	4.24	.03	.09	−.06	−.04	.04	.05	.08
30. Supervisor Tenure	3.98	3.48	.06	.09	−.02	−.07	−.01	.07	.08
31. Direct Reports	.43	.50	.16	.17	−.10	−.16	.02	.20	.04
32. Weekly Hours	40.63	6.44	−.02	−.04	.10	.00	−.02	.06	.16
33. Salary	5.31	1.97	.25	.21	−.20	−.25	−.02	.11	−.07

Note. Pearson correlations reported for all variables except organization size, organization levels, organization centralization, education, and salary for which Spearman correlations are reported. All | r | > .09 are significant at p < .05. All | r | > .13 are significant at p < .01. All | r | > .16 are significant at p < .001. Scale reliabilities (α) reported on the diagonal. Ns = 396-401.
HR = Human Resource
OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Table 4.1. continued.

	Mean	SD	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
13. Selection	2.03	.75									
14. Training	2.53	.91	.30								
15. Performance Management	2.38	.91	.28	.43							
16. Compensation	1.97	1.21	.18	.32	.42						
17. HR Practices (Total)	8.91	2.73	.56	.71	.76	.75					
18. Organization Type	.79	.41	.09	.02	.01	.27	.15				
19. Organization Size	4.21	1.61	.19	.24	.27	.21	.31	−.05			
20. Organization Levels	3.06	1.44	.13	.14	.23	.14	.21	−.05	.71		
21. Organization Centralization	1.54	.76	−.03	.05	.13	.05	.07	.02	.11	.15	
22. Gender	.48	.50	.00	−.03	−.04	−.06	−.05	−.12	−.12	−.10	−.06
23. Age	3.20	1.16	−.03	−.12	.01	−.03	−.06	−.07	.02	.00	−.11
24. Race	.20	.40	.13	.06	.06	.04	.10	.12	.05	.09	.03
25. English	.98	.15	−.02	.00	.06	.01	.02	.01	.03	−.01	.09
26. Education	2.61	1.04	−.01	.00	.04	−.10	−.04	−.27	.04	.03	−.03
27. Status	.06	.24	−.07	−.11	−.13	−.09	−.14	−.16	−.17	−.15	−.05
28. Organization Tenure	6.43	5.67	−.03	.03	.07	.05	.05	−.03	.10	.15	−.15
29. Job Tenure	4.70	4.24	−.02	−.03	−.01	−.05	−.04	−.02	.00	.05	−.15
30. Supervisor Tenure	3.98	3.48	.00	.01	−.07	−.03	−.03	.04	−.12	−.06	−.15
31. Direct Reports	.43	.50	.01	.10	.17	.11	.15	.04	−.02	−.03	.02
32. Weekly Hours	40.63	6.44	.06	−.04	.06	.05	.05	.16	.12	.13	−.01
33. Salary	5.31	1.97	.09	.09	.23	.16	.22	−.02	.23	.20	.02

Note. Pearson correlations reported for all variables except organization size, organization levels, organization centralization, education, and salary for which Spearman correlations are reported. All $|r| > .09$ are significant at $p < .05$. All $|r| > .13$ are significant at $p < .01$. All $|r| > .16$ are significant at $p < .001$. Ns = 396-401.
HR = Human Resource

Table 4.1. continued.

	Mean	SD	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
22. Gender	.48	.50											
23. Age	3.20	1.16	.04										
24. Race	.20	.40	−.01	−.14									
25. English	.98	.15	.08	.01	−.22								
26. Education	2.61	1.04	−.05	−.03	.03	−.06							
27. Status	.06	.24	.13	.10	−.08	−.03	.01						
28. Organization Tenure	6.43	5.67	−.03	.47	−.08	.02	.08	−.08					
29. Job Tenure	4.70	4.24	.03	.48	−.03	.01	.01	−.04	.80				
30. Supervisor Tenure	3.98	3.48	−.02	.35	−.06	.04	−.0 2	−.05	.55	.57			
31. Direct Reports	.43	.50	−.08	.04	−.11	.03	.17	−.11	.14	−.01	.09		
32. Weekly Hours	40.63	6.44	−.19	−.04	.07	.06	.07	−.52	.06	.03	.05	.15	
33. Salary	5.31	1.97	−.18	.08	.04	−.08	.39	−.31	.23	.11	.08	.28	.35

Note. Pearson correlations reported for all variables except organization size, organization levels, organization centralization, education, and salary for which Spearman correlations are reported. All $|r| > .09$ are significant at $p < .05$. All $|r| > .13$ are significant at $p < .01$. All $|r| > .16$ are significant at $p < .001$. Ns = 396-401.

Measurement Model

Given the strong correlations between the variables of interest (i.e., organizational dehumanization, supervisor BLM, organization-centric HR attributions, and employee-centric HR attributions) as shown in Table 4.1, the factor structure of the four focal variables was further examined prior to tests of hypotheses in order to allay concerns of potential overlap among the measured constructs. Since the measurement scales used in the present study have been previously validated in past published research, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. Three models were compared: a one-factor model in which all items from all scales loaded onto a single latent factor, a two-factor model in which organizational dehumanization, supervisor BLM, and organization-centric HR attributions loaded onto one factor while employee-centric HR attributions loaded onto another factor, and a four-factor model in which items

respectively loaded onto the proposed latent factors. Results of the CFA are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses on Focal Variables of Interest

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	χ^2/df	$\Delta \chi^2(df)$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
One-Factor Model	3240.09(128)[***]	25.31	—	.66	.62	.20	.10
Two-Factor Model	2355.03(188)[***]	12.53	885.06	.76	.73	.17	.07
Four-Factor Model	1059.60(183)[***]	5.79	2180.49	.90	.88	.11	.04

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index. TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. $\Delta \chi^2$ = difference in χ^2 values between the respective model and the one-factor model.
[***]$p < .001$

Results of the CFA largely indicated that, out of the models tested, the four-factor model in which items respectively loaded onto each of the four latent constructs fit the data best. Compared to the one-factor and two-factor models, the four-factor model demonstrated better fit for the data across all fit indices: lower chi-square (χ^2), higher comparative fit index (CFI), higher Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), lower root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and lower standardized mean square residual (SRMR). Overall, the four-factor model demonstrated reasonable fit as the values of the fit indices approximated or met the conventional criteria for good fit (i.e., CFI ≥ .90, TLI ≥ .90, RMSEA ≤ .08, SRMR ≤ .08). Based on these results, it is reasonable to conclude that a significant overlap in the measured variables is not a substantial concern and the four constructs of interest are adequately distinguishable from each other.

Hypothesis Tests

Antecedents of Organizational Dehumanization

Hypothesis 1 posited that (a) employee-centric HR attributions would be negatively related to organizational dehumanization and (b) organization-centric HR

attributions would be positively related to organizational dehumanization. As shown in

Table 4.1, employee-centric HR attributions has a significant negative correlation with

organizational dehumanization ($r = -.55$, $p < .01$) and organization-centric HR

attributions has a significant positive correlation with organizational dehumanization ($r = .67$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposed a positive relationship between supervisor BLM and

organizational dehumanization. From Table 4.1, the correlation between the two

variables was significant and positive ($r = .72$, $p < .01$), providing support for Hypothesis

2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that supervisor BLM would be (a) positively related to

organization-centric HR attributions and (b) negatively related to employee-centric HR

attributions. As reported in Table 4.1, the correlation between supervisor BLM and

organization-centric HR attributions was significant and positive ($r = .61$, $p < .01$), and

the correlation between supervisor BLM and employee-centric HR attributions was

significant and negative ($r = -.40$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Supplemental multiple regression analyses with the inclusion of covariates were

conducted to accompany each of the preceding hypothesis tests. Specifically,

organization type, organization levels, education, responsibility for direct reports, salary,

and HR practices were included as covariates in each multiple regression analysis due to

their pattern of significant relationships across the four variables of interest (Table 4.1).

Results of these analyses are reported in Appendix B. For all analyses, the proposed

antecedents significantly predicted the outcome variables after statistically controlling for

the covariates. Additionally, the three novel antecedents (i.e., supervisor BLM,

organization-centric HR attributions, and employee-centric HR attributions) significantly

predicted organizational dehumanization after controlling for each other and covariates.

Thus, results of the supplemental analyses were consistent with and lend further support

for the pattern of relationships established by the preceding hypothesis tests.

Indirect Effect of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Through HR Attributions

Hypothesis 4 proposed that supervisor BLM would have (a) a positive indirect

effect on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions and

(b) a negative indirect effect on organizational dehumanization through employee-centric

HR attributions. Addressing the first part of this hypothesis, the bias-corrected bootstrap

confidence interval for the estimate of the indirect effect did not include zero ($ab = .18$,

95% CI = [.13, .24]), indicating a significant positive indirect effect of supervisor BLM

on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions. Table 4.3

presents the model coefficients for this analysis. Notably, the direct effect of supervisor

BLM on organizational dehumanization was also significant after controlling for the

effect of organization-centric HR attributions ($c' = .41, p < .001$).

Addressing the second part of Hypothesis 4, the bias-corrected bootstrap

confidence interval for the estimate of the indirect effect did not include zero ($ab = .10$,

95% CI = [.07, .15]), indicating a significant positive indirect effect of supervisor BLM

on organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions. The model

coefficients for this analysis is displayed in Table 4.4. Notably, the direct effect of

supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization was significant after controlling for

the effect of employee-centric HR attributions ($c' = .49, p < .001$). Hypothesis 4 is

supported.

Table 4.3. Model Coefficients for the Indirect Effect of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization through Organization-Centric HR Attributions

		Consequent						
		M (Organization-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a	.54	.04	< .001	c'	.41	.03	< .001
M		—	—	—	b	.34	.04	< .001
Intercept	i_M	1.54	.13	< .001	i_Y	1.23	.11	< .001
		$R^2 = .37$ $F_{(1, 399)} = 235, p < .001$				$R^2 = .60$ $F_{(2, 398)} = 301.5, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

Table 4.4. Model Coefficients for the Indirect Effect of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization through Employee-Centric HR Attributions

		Consequent						
		M (Employee-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a	−.38	.04	< .001	c'	.49	.03	< .001
M		—	—	—	b	−.27	.03	< .001
Intercept	i_M	5.74	.17	< .001	i_Y	3.31	.26	< .001
		$R^2 = .16$ $F_{(1, 399)} = 77, p < .001$				$R^2 = .60$ $F_{(2, 398)} = 294.8, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

Moderating Effects of Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

Hypothesis 5 posited that the relationship between supervisor BLM and

organizational dehumanization would be moderated by supervisor's organizational

embodiment such that the positive relationship is stronger at higher levels of the

moderator. Results of the moderated regression analysis conducted to test this hypothesis

are presented in Table 4.5. As indicated by the significant interaction term, BLM × SOE,

the relationship between supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization appears to

be conditional on the level of the supervisor's organizational embodiment ($b_3 = .07$, $t =$

3.30, $p < .01$).

Table 4.5. Moderated Regression Results for The Relationship Between Supervisor
Bottom-Line Mentality and Organizational Dehumanization Conditional on Supervisor's
Organizational Embodiment

		Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	i_Y	3.81	0.05	77.89	< .001
BLM (X)	b_1	.54	.03	19.81	< .001
SOE (W)	b_2	−.35	.05	−8.13	< .001
BLM × SOE (XW)	b_3	.07	.02	3.30	< .01

$$R^2 = .60, MSE = .89$$
$$F_{(3, 396)} = 194, p < .001$$

Note. Independent variables were mean-centered. X = predictor, W = moderator, XW = interaction term.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

To examine the nature of this moderation effect, simple slopes are presented in

Figure 4.1 using the pick-a-point approach (Aiken & West, 1991). The relationship

between supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization under conditions of low

supervisor's organizational embodiment (one standard deviation below the mean) and

high supervisor's organizational embodiment (one standard deviation above the mean)

are displayed in Figure 4.1. The graph indicates a stronger positive relationship between

supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization when supervisor's organizational

embodiment is high (+1 SD) compared to low (−1 SD). Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported.

Interestingly, a significant main effect of the moderator was also observed. As indicated

in Table 4.5, supervisor's organizational embodiment exhibits a negative main effect on organizational dehumanization after controlling for supervisor BLM and the interaction term ($b_2 = -.35$, $t = -8.13$, $p < .001$).
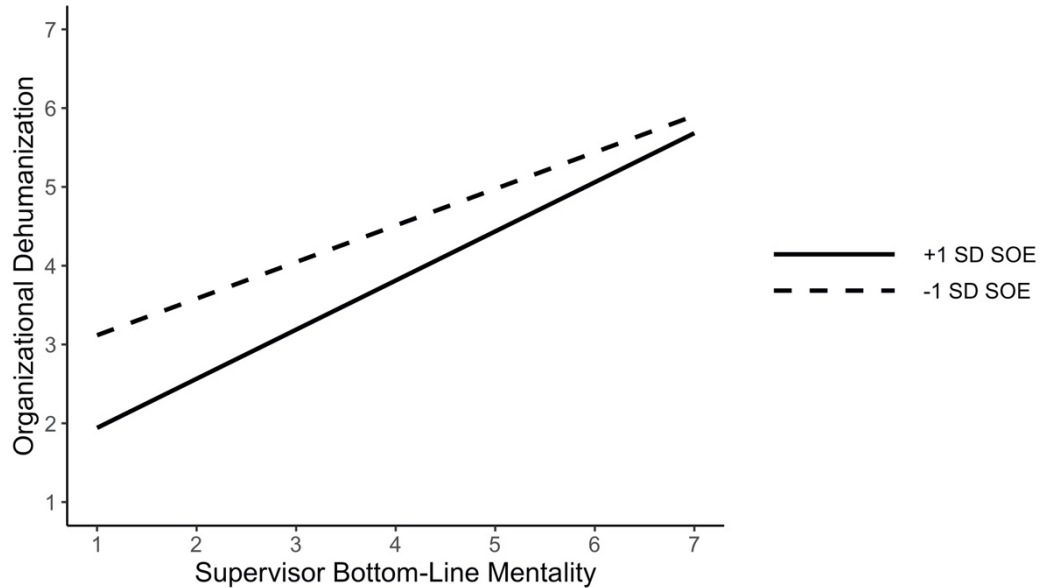
Figure 4.1. Relationship between Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality and Organizational Dehumanization at Low (−1 SD) and High (+1 SD) Levels of Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment. SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the relationships between supervisor BLM and the two types of HR attributions would be moderated by supervisor's organizational embodiment. Each HR attribution was treated as a separate dependent variable. First, organization-centric HR attributions was regressed on the predictor, moderator, and interaction term. Results of this moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.6. The interaction term, BLM × SOE, is significant ($b_3 = .06$, $t = 52.56$, $p < .05$), indicating that the relationship between supervisor BLM and organization-centric HR attributions is contingent on the level of supervisor's organizational embodiment.

Table 4.6. Moderated Regression Results for The Relationship Between Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality and Organization-Centric HR Attributions Conditional on Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

		Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	i_Y	3.38	0.06	52.56	< .001
BLM (X)	b_1	.52	.04	14.28	< .001
SOE (W)	b_2	−.19	.06	−3.41	< .001
BLM × SOE (XW)	b_3	.06	.03	2.10	< .05

$$R^2 = .39, MSE = 1.55$$
$$F_{(3, 397)} = 86.2, p < .001$$

Note. Independent variables were mean-centered. X = predictor, W = moderator, XW = interaction term.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

The nature of this moderation effect was examined by visualizing the simple slopes at different levels of the moderator. Following a similar process as before, the relationship between supervisor BLM and organization-centric HR attributions at low supervisor's organizational embodiment (one standard deviation below the mean) and high supervisor's organizational embodiment (one standard deviation above the mean) was graphed and displayed in Figure 4.2. At high levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment, compared to low levels, the relationship between supervisor BLM and organization-centric HR attributions is more strongly positive. Similar to before, the moderator appears to also have a significant negative main effect on organization-centric HR attributions as well ($b_2 = −.19$, $t = −3.41$, $p < .001$).
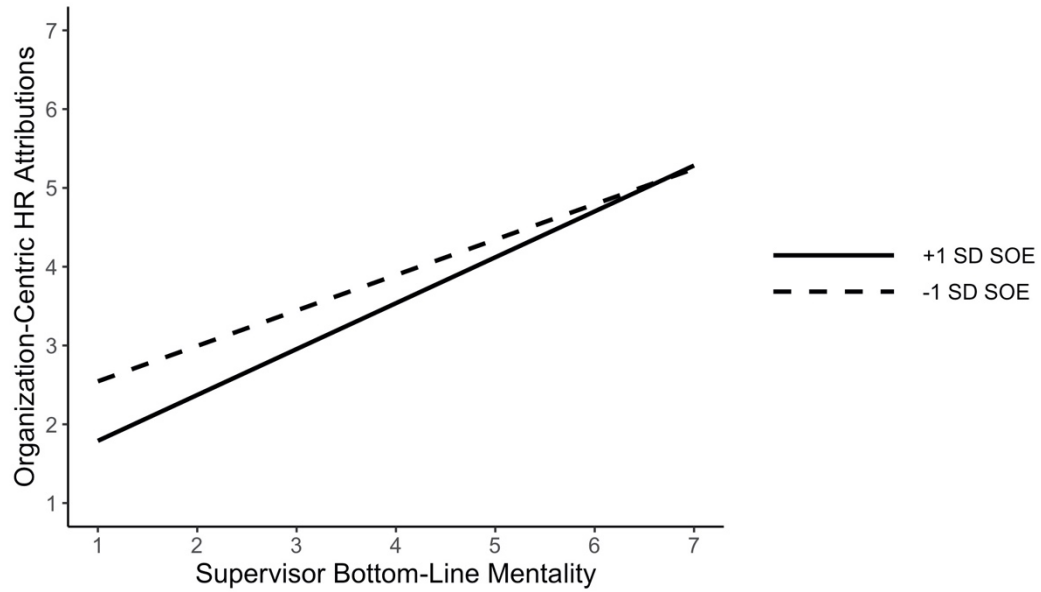
Figure 4.2. Relationship between Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality and Organization-Centric HR Attributions at Low (−1 SD) and High (+1 SD) Levels of Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment. SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment.

Second, employee-centric HR attributions was regressed on supervisor BLM, supervisor's organizational embodiment, and the interaction term between the two variables. Results of this moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.7. The interaction term, BLM × SOE, was not significant ($b_3 = -.01$, $t = -.16$, $p = .87$).

Based on this pair of moderated regression analyses, Hypothesis 6 is partially supported. With organization-centric HR attributions as the outcome, a significant moderation effect of supervisor's organizational embodiment in the hypothesized direction was confirmed. However, no significant moderation effect was detected with employee-centric HR attributions as the outcome.

Table 4.7. Moderated Regression Results for The Relationship Between Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality and Employee-Centric HR Attributions Conditional on Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

		Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	i_Y	4.46	.07	62.10	< .001
BLM (X)	b_1	−.27	.04	−6.73	< .001
SOE (W)	b_2	.67	.06	10.60	< .001
BLM × SOE (XW)	b_3	−.01	.03	−.16	.87

$$R^2 = .35, MSE = 1.93$$
$$F_{(3, 397)} = 70.2, p < .001$$

Note. Independent variables were mean-centered. X = predictor, W = moderator, XW = interaction term.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

Integrating the prior mediation and moderation hypotheses, Hypothesis 7 posited conditional indirect effects involving the focal variables. Specifically, it was proposed that the positive indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization mediated by HR attributions is moderated by supervisor's organizational embodiment. As with previous hypothesis tests, organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions were analyzed separately. Model coefficients for the conditional process analysis testing the conditional indirect effect with organizational-centric HR attributions as the mediator and supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first-stage moderator (i.e., moderating the a-path) are presented in Table 4.8. The bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval of the index of moderated mediation did not include zero (a_3b = .02, 95% CI = [.002, .042]), indicating a significant conditional indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first-stage moderator.

Table 4.8. Model Coefficients for the Conditional Indirect Effect of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization through Organization-Centric HR Attributions with Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment as First-stage Moderator

		Consequent						
		M (Organization-Centric HR Attributions)				*Y* (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	*p*		Coef.	SE	*p*
X (BLM)	a_1	.52	.04	< .001	*c'*	.41	.04	< .001
M		—	—	—	*b*	.34	.05	< .001
W (SOE)	a_2	−.19	.06	< .001		—	—	—
XW (BLM×SOE)	a_3	.06	.03	.04		—	—	—
Intercept	i_M	3.38	.07	< .001	i_Y	2.64	.16	< .001
		$R^2 = .40$ $F_{(3, 397)} = 86.2, p < .001$				$R^2 = .60$ $F_{(2, 398)} = 301.5, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. *X* = independent variable, *M* = mediator, *W* = moderator, *XW* = interaction term, *Y* = dependent variable. *c'* = direct effect of *X* on *Y*. *X* and *W* were mean-centered.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

To further examine the nature of the significant conditional indirect effect from the previous analysis, the indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions was calculated at different levels of the moderator, supervisor's organizational embodiment ($\theta_{X\rightarrow M}b$). Following the steps explicated in Hayes (2017), this calculation was conducted by multiplying the two components that the indirect effect consists of: the effect of the predictor on the mediator and the effect of the mediator on the outcome controlling for the predictor ($\theta_{X\rightarrow M}b = (a_1 + a_3 W)b$). Results of the calculation are summarized in Table 4.9. As indicated by the pattern of the values in the right-most columns, the indirect effect increases at higher levels of the moderator, which aligns with the direction hypothesized. That is, at higher levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment, the positive indirect effect of

supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR

attributions becomes stronger.

Table 4.9. Quantification of the Conditional Indirect Effect

Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment (W)	Value of W	Indirect Effect		
		$\theta_{X \to M} = a_1 + a_3 W$	b	$\theta_{X \to M} b = (a_1 + a_3 W)b$
−1 SD	−1.149	.4489	.3397	.1525
Mean	0	.5149	.3397	.1749
+1 SD	1.149	.5809	.3397	.1973

Model coefficients for the conditional process analysis with employee-centric HR

attributions as the mediator and supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first-stage

moderator are presented in Table 4.10. The bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval

of the index of moderated mediation included zero ($a_3b = .001$, 95% CI = [−.018, .023]).

Thus, the conditional indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational

dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions with supervisor's

organizational embodiment as a first-stage moderator was not significant. As a significant

conditional indirect effect was found for the model with organization-centric HR

attributions as the mediator and a nonsignificant conditional indirect effect was found for

the model with employee-centric HR attributions as the mediator, Hypothesis 7 was

partially supported.

Table 4.10. Model Coefficients for the Indirect Effect of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization through Employee-Centric HR Attributions with Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment as a First-stage Moderator

		Consequent						
		M (Employee-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a_1	−.27	.05	< .001	c'	.49	.03	< .001
M		—	—	—	b	−.27	.04	< .001
W (SOE)	a_2	.67	.07	< .001		—	—	—
XW (BLM×SOE)	a_3	−.01	.04	.89		—	—	—
Intercept	i_M	4.46	.08	< .001	i_Y	4.95	.18	< .001
		$R^2 = .35$ $F_{(3, 397)} = 70.2, p < .001$				$R^2 = .60$ $F_{(2, 398)} = 294.8, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, W = moderator, XW = interaction term, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y. X and W were mean-centered.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

Consequences of Organizational Dehumanization

To replicate past research, it was hypothesized that organizational dehumanization would be negatively related to job satisfaction (Hypothesis 8) and affective commitment (Hypothesis 9) and positively related to turnover intentions (Hypothesis 10). From Table 4.1, the bivariate correlations indicate that organizational dehumanization was negatively related to job satisfaction ($r = −.68, p < .001$) and affective commitment ($r = −.68, p < .001$) and positively related to turnover intentions ($r = .65, p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 8, 9, and 10 are supported.

Hypothesis 11 proposed a positive relationship between organizational dehumanization and burnout. As indicated in Table 4.1, the positive correlation between the two variables was significant ($r = .65, p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 11 is supported.

Hypothesis 12 proposed that organizational dehumanization and task performance would be negatively related. According to Table 4.1, there is a significant negative

correlation between organizational dehumanization and task performance ($r = -.12$, $p < .05$). However, a closer inspection of the scatterplot between the two variables suggests that the observed association in this sample does not conform to a bivariate normal distribution (Figure 4.3), which brings into question the validity of the null-hypothesis significance test on the correlation coefficient. A visual inspection of the scatterplot suggests that this may be due to the distribution of self-reported task performance being heavily negatively skewed, introducing a ceiling effect.
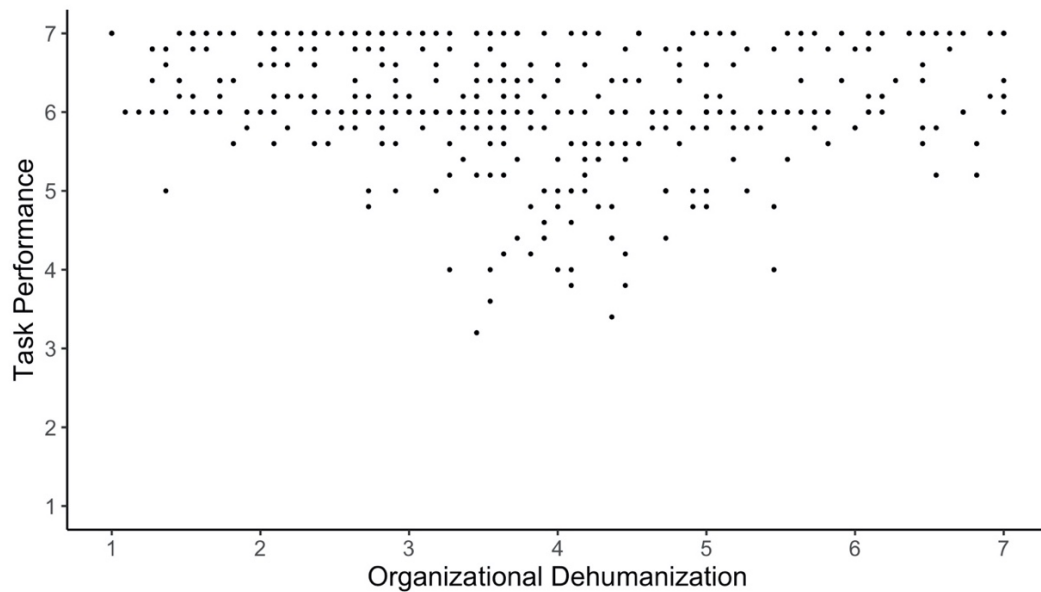
Figure 4.3. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between Organizational Dehumanization and Task Performance.

Visual inspection of a histogram of the self-reported task performance scores (Figure 4.4) confirms the negative skew of this distribution. Indeed, from Table 4.1, task performance had a high mean value in this sample ($M = 6.12$, $SD = .76$). Further analysis revealed that the range of scores was restricted (minimum = 3.20, maximum = 7.00) and 391 individuals (97.51% of the sample) reported a score greater than 4, the midpoint of the scale. One potential explanation for this is that task performance was self-reported in

the present study. Past research has demonstrated that ratings of task performance tend to be lenient when they are obtained via self-evaluation (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). Thus, the distribution of task performance ratings in the present study may be typical and expected based on past research on self-reported appraisals. Nevertheless, although Hypothesis 12 is supported on the basis of the significant bivariate correlation, caution should be exercised when interpreting this result given the bivariate non-normality shown in Figure 4.3.
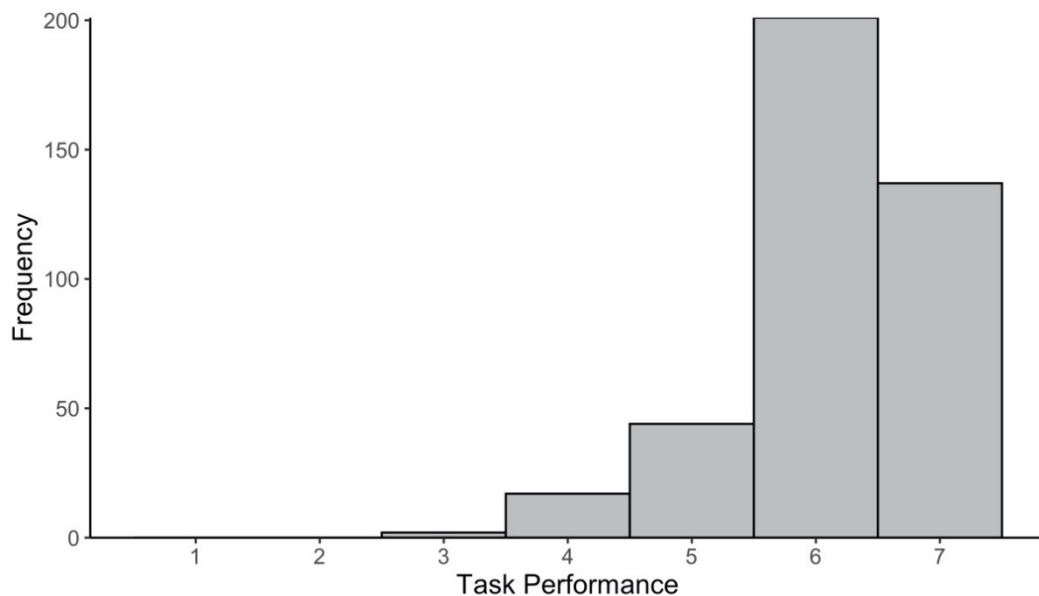
Figure 4.4. Histogram of Self-reported Task Performance Scores.

Hypothesis 13 proposed that organizational dehumanization and OCBs would be negatively correlated. The bivariate correlation between the two variables was not significant ($r = -.09$, $p > .05$), as indicated in Table 4.1. Thus, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.

Hypothesis 14 stated that organizational dehumanization would be positively related to CWBs. As shown in Table 4.1, there is a significant positive relationship

between the two variables ($r = .34$, $p < .001$). The scatterplot of the relationship between

organizational dehumanization and CWBs (Figure 4.5), along with a histogram of CWBs

(Figure 4.6), indicates a floor effect. From Table 4.1, CWBs had a low mean value ($M =$

1.44, $SD = .45$), and further analysis revealed a restricted range (minimum = 1.00,

maximum = 3.50). This floor effect from low numbers of reported CWBs is typical of

this area of research (e.g., Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, 2007). Despite this restriction

of range, the correlation between organizational dehumanization and CWBs was

moderate to strong in this sample. Hypothesis 14 is supported.
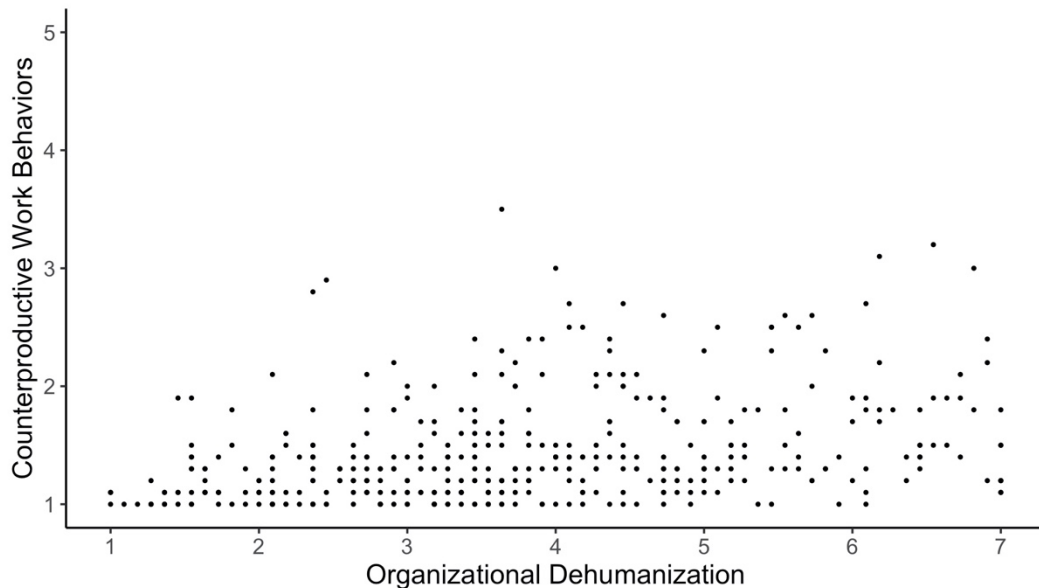
Figure 4.5. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between Organizational
Dehumanization and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.
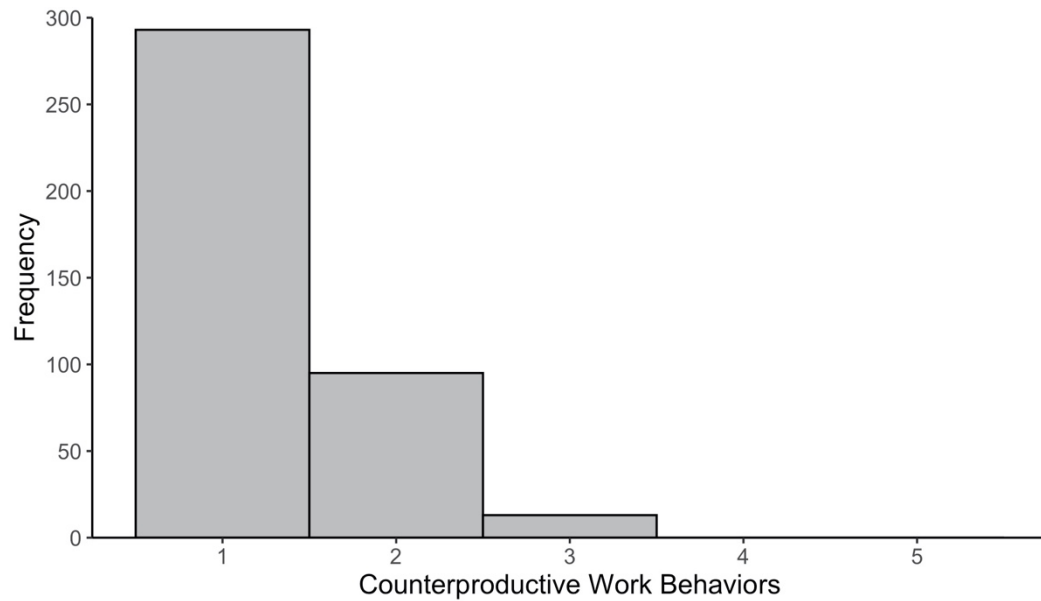
Figure 4.6. Histogram of Self-reported Counterproductive Work Behaviors.

Summary of Hypothesis Tests

For convenience and ease of access, a summary of the results from the hypothesis tests are provided in Table 4.11. Results largely indicated support for they hypothesized conceptual model in Figure 1.1. Organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions (Hypothesis 1) and supervisor BLM (Hypothesis 2) were significantly related to organizational dehumanization, and the HR attributions were also significantly related to supervisor BLM (Hypothesis 3). Significant indirect effects of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through HR attributions were demonstrated (Hypothesis 4). Significant moderation effects of supervisor's organizational embodiment on the relationships between supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization (Hypothesis 5) and between supervisor BLM and organization-centric HR attributions (Hypothesis 6) were found. However, significant moderation effects were not found for the relationship between supervisor BLM and employee-centric HR attributions (Hypothesis 6). Supervisor's organizational embodiment also significantly moderated the indirect effect

71

of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR

attributions, but the moderation on the indirect effect through employee-centric HR

attributions was not significant (Hypothesis 7). Finally, organizational dehumanization

was significantly related to job satisfaction (Hypothesis 8), affective commitment

(Hypothesis 9), turnover intentions (Hypothesis 10), burnout (Hypothesis 11), task

performance (Hypothesis 12), and CWBs (Hypothesis 14), but not significantly related to

OCBs (Hypothesis 13).

Table 4.11. Summary of Results from Hypothesis Tests

	Hypothesis	Table	Figure	Supported
1	Organization-centric (employee-centric) HR attributions positively (negatively) related to organizational dehumanization	4.1		Yes
2	Supervisor bottom-line mentality positively related to organizational dehumanization	4.1		Yes
3	Supervisor bottom-line mentality positively (negatively) related to organizational-centric (employee-centric) HR attributions	4.1		Yes
4	Supervisor bottom-line mentality indirectly affects organizational dehumanization through a positive (negative) effect on organization-centric (employee-centric) HR attributions	4.3, 4.4		Yes
5	Supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the supervisor bottom-line mentality – organizational dehumanization relationship	4.5	4.1	Yes
6	Supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the supervisor bottom-line mentality – organization-centric (employee-centric) HR attributions relationship	4.6, 4.7	4.2	Partial
7	Supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the indirect effect of supervisor bottom-line mentality on organizational dehumanization through HR attributions	4.8, 4.9, 4.10		Partial
8	Organizational dehumanization negatively related to job satisfaction	4.1		Yes
9	Organizational dehumanization negatively related to affective commitment	4.1		Yes
10	Organizational dehumanization positively related to turnover intentions	4.1		Yes
11	Organizational dehumanization positively related to burnout	4.1		Yes
12	Organizational dehumanization negatively related to task performance	4.1	4.3, 4.4	Yes
13	Organizational dehumanization negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors	4.1		No
14	Organizational dehumanization positively related to counterproductive work behaviors	4.1	4.5, 4.6	Yes

Additional Analyses

Three categories of additional analyses were conducted. First, parallel and conditional parallel indirect effects of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through both organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions were examined to extend the results for Hypothesis 7. Second, the relationship between specific HR practices and the variables of interest were examined. Third, further exploration of organization and individual demographics was conducted.

Parallel and Conditional Parallel Indirect Effects

Although not formally hypothesized, the theoretical rationale and the conceptual model presented suggest that supervisor BLM exhibits indirect effects on organizational dehumanization through both organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions. To test the implied parallel multiple mediator model, supervisor BLM was modeled with indirect effects through both HR attributions on organizational dehumanization and 95% confidence intervals on both indirect effects were calculated with 10,000 bias-corrected bootstrap samples (Hayes, 2017). Following Hayes' (2017) approach, the product of the paths linking supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions (a_1b_1) quantified the specific indirect effect through the first mediator, organization-centric HR attributions. Likewise, the products of the paths linking supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions (a_2b_2) quantified the specific indirect effect through the second mediator, employee-centric HR attributions. Model coefficients for this analysis are presented in Table 4.12. and a labelled statistical diagram with the path coefficients is presented in Figure 4.7.

Table 4.12. Model Coefficients for the Parallel Indirect Effects of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization Through Organization-Centric HR Attributions and Employee-Centric HR Attributions

		Consequent										
		M_1 (Organization-Centric HR Attributions)				M_2 (Employee-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a_1	.54	.04	< .001	a_2	−.38	.04	< .001	c'	.35	.04	< .001
M_1		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_1	.30	.05	< .001
M_2		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_2	−.23	.03	< .001
Intercept	i_{M_1}	1.54	.13	< .001	i_{M_2}	5.74	.17	< .001	i_Y	2.64	.24	< .001
		$R^2 = .37$ $F_{(1, 399)} = 235, p < .001$				$R^2 = .16$ $F_{(1, 399)} = 77, p < .001$				$R^2 = .65$ $F_{(3, 397)} = 248.4, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
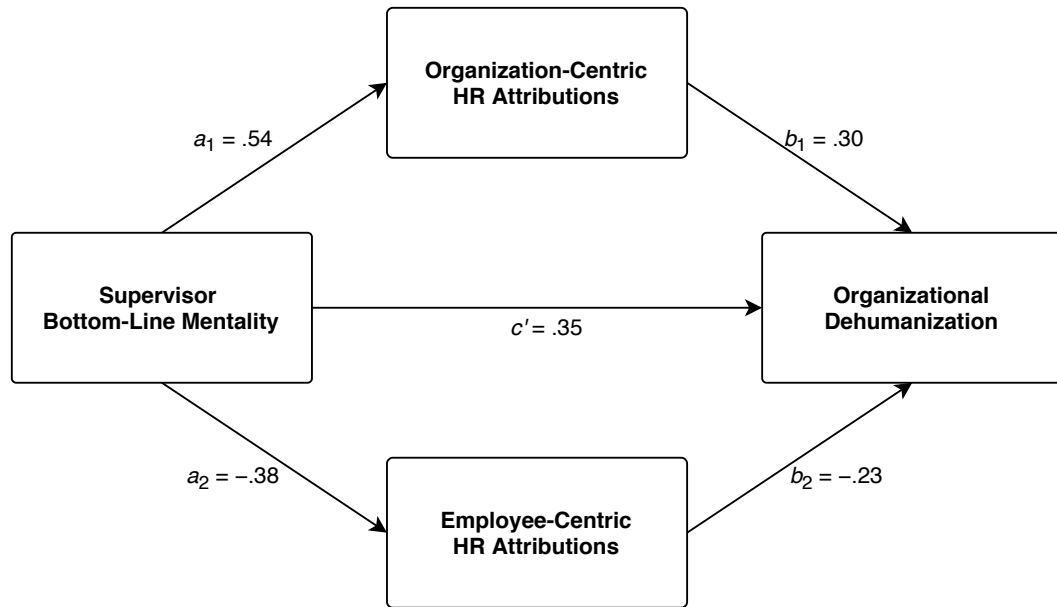
Figure 4.7. Statistical Diagram of the Parallel Indirect Effects Model.

The bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the estimate of the specific indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions did not include zero ($a_1b_1 = .16$, 95% CI = [.11, .22]). Similarly, the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the estimate of the specific indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions also did not include zero ($a_2b_2 = .09$, 95% CI = [.06, .13]). Thus, the parallel multiple mediator model was supported. Notably, the direct effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization after controlling for the effects of both HR attributions was also significant ($c' = .35$, $t = 8.44$, $p < .001$). These results lend further support for the previous hypothesized relationships (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 4) and bolster the notion that supervisor BLM exhibits direct effects as well as distinct indirect effects through HR attributions on organizational dehumanization.

To further extend this line of inquiry, supervisor's organizational embodiment was added as a moderator to examine the conditional parallel indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization. First, a model with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first stage moderator of the specific indirect path from supervisor BLM to organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions (i.e., the a_1 path) was tested. Second, a model with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a moderator of both the a_1 path and the direct path (c') was tested. Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 present the diagrams for these analyses. Since the previous tests of Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7 indicated that supervisor's organizational embodiment did not significantly moderate the relationship between supervisor BLM and employee-centric HR attributions and also did not significantly moderate the indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions, models with supervisor's organizational embodiment moderating the specific indirect path from supervisor BLM to organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions (i.e., the a_2 path) were not tested.

The same approach for testing the parallel indirect effects outlined previously (Hayes, 2017) was used to estimate the specific indirect effects of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions. To test the conditional specific indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first-stage moderator, a 95% confidence interval on the index of moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015) was calculated using 10,000 bias-corrected bootstrap samples. For the model in Figure 4.9, an additional interaction

term (b_4) indicating the moderation effect of supervisor's organizational embodiment on the direct path between supervisor BLM and organizational dehumanization was evaluated with a null-hypothesis significance test at the .05 level. Results for the models in Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 are presented in Table 4.13 and Table 4.14, respectively.
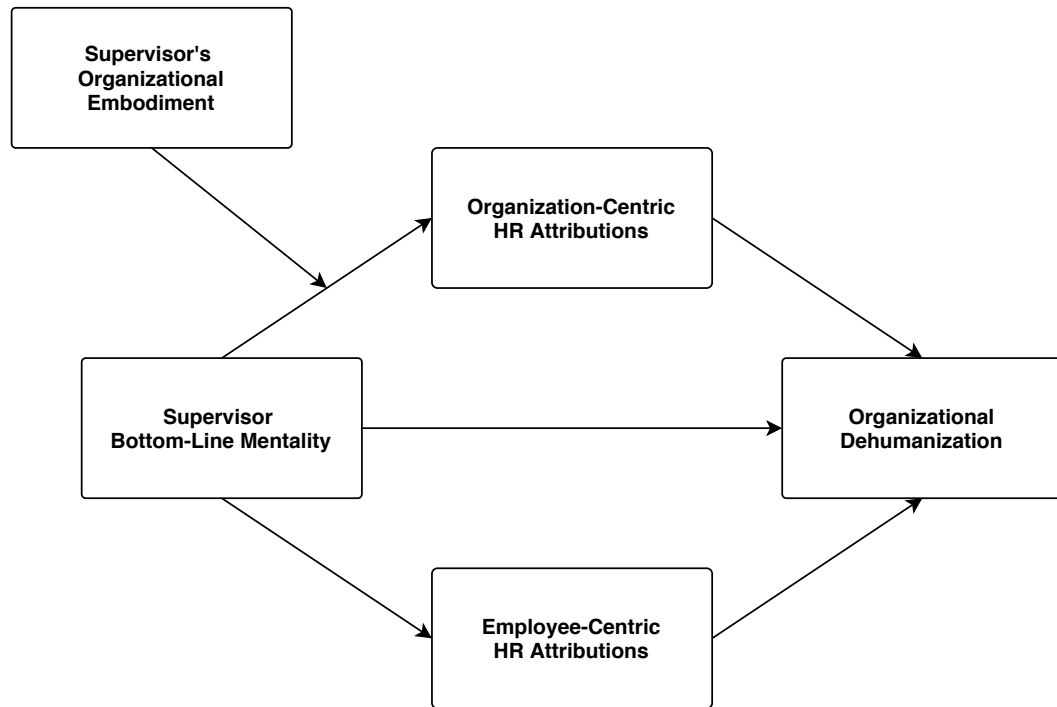
Figure 4.8. Parallel Indirect Effects Model with a_1 Moderated.
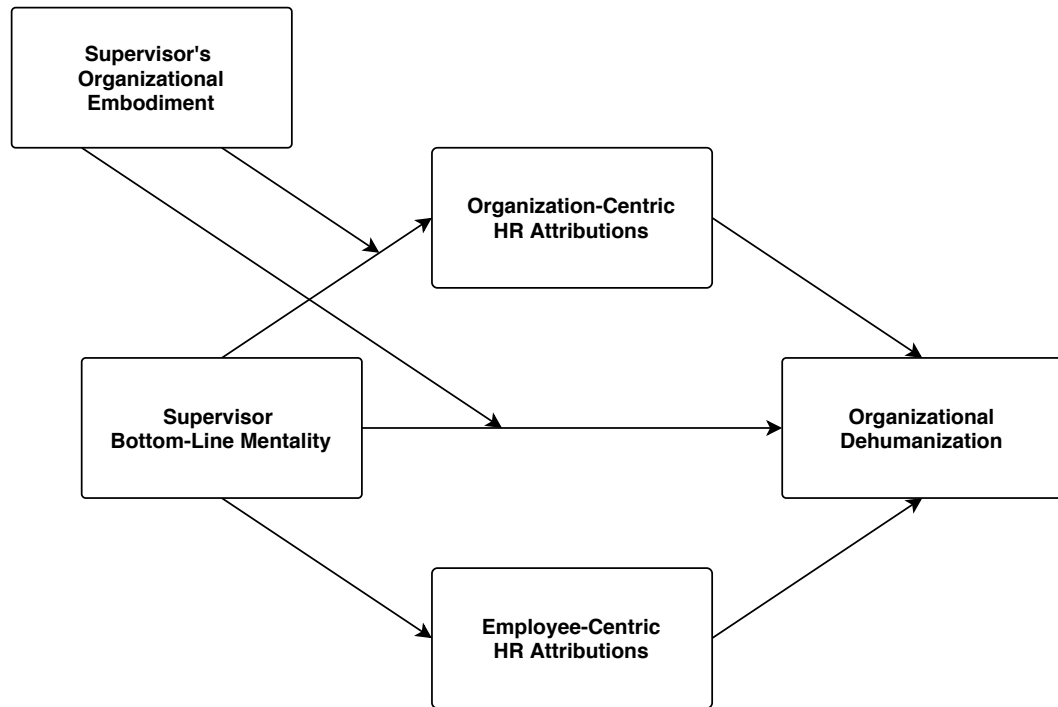
Figure 4.9. Parallel Indirect Effects Model with a_1 and c' Moderated.

Table 4.13. Model Coefficients for the Parallel Indirect Effects of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization Through Organization-Centric HR Attributions and Employee-Centric HR Attributions with Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment as a First-Stage Moderator of the a_1 Path

		Consequent										
		M_1 (Organization-Centric HR Attributions)				M_2 (Employee-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a_1	.52	.04	<.001	a_2	−.38	.04	<.001	c'	.35	.04	<.001
M_1		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_1	.30	.05	<.001
M_2		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_2	−.23	.03	<.001
W (SOE)	a_3	−.19	.06	<.001		—	—	—		—	—	—
XW (BLM×SOE)	a_4	.06	.03	<.05		—	—	—		—	—	—
Intercept	i_{M_1}	3.38	.06	<.001	i_{M_2}	5.74	.17	<.001	i_Y	3.78	.23	<.001
		$R^2 = .39$				$R^2 = .16$				$R^2 = .65$		
		$F_{(3, 397)} = 86.2, p < .001$				$F_{(1, 399)} = 77, p < .001$				$F_{(3, 397)} = 248.4, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, W = moderator, XW = interaction term, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y. X and W were mean-centered.
BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality
SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

Table 4.14. Model Coefficients for the Parallel Indirect Effects of Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality on Organizational Dehumanization Through Organization-Centric HR Attributions and Employee-Centric HR Attributions with Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment as a Moderator of a_1 and c' Paths

				Consequent						
		M_1 (Organization-Centric HR Attributions)				M_2 (Employee-Centric HR Attributions)				Y (Organizational Dehumanization)		
Antecedent		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p		Coef.	SE	p
X (BLM)	a_1	.52	.04	<.001	a_2	−.38	.04	<.001	c'	.36	.04	<.001
M_1		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_1	.27	.04	<.001
M_2		—	—	—		—	—	—	b_2	−.17	.04	<.001
W (SOE)	a_3	−.19	.06	<.001		—	—	—	b_3	−.18	.04	<.001
XW (BLM×SOE)	a_4	.06	.03	<.05		—	—	—	b_4	.05	.02	<.01
Intercept	i_{M_1}	3.38	.06	<.001	i_{M_2}	5.74	.17	<.001	i_Y	3.66	.23	<.001
		$R^2 = .39$				$R^2 = .16$				$R^2 = .67$		
		$F_{(3, 397)} = 86.2, p < .001$				$F_{(1, 399)} = 77, p < .001$				$F_{(5, 395)} = 158.3, p < .001$		

Note. Unstandardized coefficients reported. X = independent variable, M = mediator, W = moderator, XW = interaction term, Y = dependent variable. c' = direct effect of X on Y. X and W were mean-centered.

BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

SOE = Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment

For the model with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a first-stage moderator of the a_1 path only (Figure 4.8, Table 4.13), the confidence intervals on the estimates of the specific indirect effects of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions ($a_1b_1 = .15$, 95% CI = [.10, .21]) and through employee-centric HR attributions ($a_2b_2 = .09$, 95% CI = [.06, .13]) did not include zero, corroborating previous results and indicating significant parallel indirect effects. The confidence interval for the index of moderated mediation also did not include zero ($a_4b_1 = .02$, 95% CI = [.001, .037]), indicating a significant conditional specific indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions moderated by supervisor's organizational embodiment. The sign for this estimate of the index of moderated mediation mirrors that of the one found in the test of Hypothesis 7 – in fact, the estimates are identical – suggesting that the moderation effect operates in the same manner. That is, the positive indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions increases in magnitude with increasing level supervisor's organizational embodiment. This finding provides further support for the results of the test of the conditional process model in Hypothesis 7.

For the model with supervisor's organizational embodiment as a moderator of both the a_1 and c' paths (Figure 4.9, Table 4.14), the confidence intervals on the estimates of the specific indirect effects of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions ($a_1b_1 = .14$, 95% CI = [.09, .20]) and through employee-centric HR attributions ($a_2b_2 = .07$, 95% CI = [.04, .10]) both did not include zero. Furthermore, the confidence interval on the estimate of the index of

moderated mediation also did not include zero ($a_4b_1 = .02$, 95% CI = [.001, .033]). These results further corroborate the findings of the analyses above. In addition, as indicated by the significant interaction term in Table 4.14 ($b_4 = .05$, $t = 2.84$, $p < .01$), supervisor's organizational embodiment significantly moderated the direct effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization after controlling for the direct effects of both HR attributions. The sign of this interaction term is the same as the one found in the moderated regression analysis (Table 4.5), suggesting that the moderation effect works similarly. That is, the positive direct effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization increases at higher levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment. This result further demonstrates support for the results from the test of Hypothesis 5.

Together, results of the analyses conducted to investigate the parallel and conditional parallel indirect effects provide further support for the conceptual model presented in Figure 1.1 and bolster the findings from the hypothesis tests conducted previously. Beyond supporting the results from the previous hypotheses tests, these analyses further extend the hypotheses and advance a more holistic understanding of the relationships between the variables of interest by examining them jointly in the same models.

HR Practices

Non-evaluative perceptions of HR practices implemented by respondents' respective organizations were collected from the sample in this study. As described in the Methods section, participants were asked to indicate, to the best of their knowledge, whether a series of twelve distinct HR practice items were implemented by their employing organization (Yes = 1, No/I Don't Know = 0). The HR practices were

categorized as selection, training, performance management, or compensation practices and summative indices were calculated to indicate the extent to which respondents perceived each of the HR practice categories as being implemented by their organization. Table 4.1 reported previously presented the correlations between the total sum of HR practices, sum of each specific category of practices, and the variables of interest. Results largely indicated that higher levels of perceived HR practices were associated with lower levels of organizational dehumanization, organization-centric HR attributions, and supervisor BLM, and higher levels of employee-centric HR attributions, suggesting that HR practices are related to desirable outcomes for organizations. Interestingly, however, selection practices did not have significant correlations with organizational dehumanization, organization-centric HR attributions, and supervisor BLM.

Since each HR practice item referred to a distinct HR practice, the relationships between specific items and the variables of interest could be examined and were of theoretical interest. Thus, Pearson correlations between specific HR practice items, based on the one-item responses, and the variables of interest were calculated and presented in Table 4.15. Results generally corroborate the correlations between the summative indices and the variables of interest presented in Table 4.1, indicating that the reported existence of specific individual HR practices tended to be negatively related to organizational dehumanization, organization-centric HR attributions, and supervisor BLM, and positively related to employee-centric HR attributions. However, two notable observations emerged. First, the practice of using formal testing differed from the other practices and was positively correlated with organizational dehumanization, organization-centric HR attributions, and supervisor BLM, and not significantly related to employee-

centric HR attributions. Second, all three individual performance management practices

were not significantly related to organization-centric HR attributions, although they

trended in the same direction as the other practices. A cautionary note regarding the HR

practices measure is that responses were highly skewed. Additional information about the

response frequencies to the HR practices measure can be found in Appendix C.

Table 4.15. Pearson Correlations Between Specific HR Practices and Organizational Dehumanization, Organization-Centric HR Attributions, Employee-Centric HR Attributions, and Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality

	HR Practice	OD	OCA	ECA	BLM
Selection	I took a formal test (e.g., job knowledge, personality) before being hired.	.13**	.22***	.08	.15**
	I had a job interview before being hired.	−.18***	−.17***	.20***	−.18***
	I was one among many job candidates considered before being hired.	−.10	−.09	.20***	−.14**
Training	I am provided opportunities for training and development.	−.27***	−.18***	.36***	−.29***
	I receive the training I need to do my job.	−.28***	−.17***	.37***	−.24***
	I receive training to develop my skills and knowledge.	−.23***	−.17***	.40***	−.23***
Performance Management	I receive a formal evaluation of my performance at least once a year.	−.09	−.02	.25***	−.17***
	Performance appraisals provide me with an assessment of my work-related strengths and weaknesses.	−.21***	−.09	.36***	−.19***
	I receive feedback regarding my performance outside of formal performance appraisals.	−.25***	−.08	.29***	−.25***
Compensation	The pay and rewards I receive are directly related to my performance at work.	−.17***	−.14**	.30***	−.05
	Future pay raises are based on my job performance.	−.25***	−.16**	.37***	−.15**
	Future promotions are based on my job performance.	−.27***	−.11*	.39***	−.17***

Note. $N = 401$. Pearson correlations (r) reported. Responses were numerically coded (Yes = 1, No/I Don't Know = 0). OD = Organizational Dehumanization. OCA = Organization-centric HR Attributions. ECA = Employee-centric HR Attributions. BLM = Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Further Exploration of Demographics

Although no formal hypotheses were proposed for the organization and individual demographic variables, further analyses were conducted to explore their relationships with the focal variables in this study. Several demographic variables had significant correlations with the variables of interest in Table 4.1. Some of these variables were dichotomous and dummy-coded for easier interpretation of their correlations in the table. Additional analyses were conducted on these variables to further clarify their relation to focal variables. Other categorical variables were measured on a nominal scale with more than two categories and thus were not presented in the correlation matrix. Additional analyses were conducted on these variables to examine potential group differences. A summary of the notable findings is presented in the following section.

Organization Type

To examine mean differences across focal variables between employees who reported working in for-profit organizations and those who reported working in nonprofit organizations, individual two-sample t-tests were conducted. Significant mean differences in organizational dehumanization, organization-centric HR attributions, and supervisor BLM between the two groups of employees emerged. Specifically, employees working in for-profit organizations reported higher levels of organizational dehumanization ($t_{(398)} = 2.92$, $p = .004$), organization-centric HR attributions ($t_{(399)} = 2.74$, $p = .006$), and supervisor BLM ($t_{(399)} = 3.46$, $p = < .001$). Table 4.16 summarizes the sample means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals on the population means for each group of employees across the focal variables. Bar graphs are also

presented to visualize the mean differences, including the confidence intervals around the

estimated population mean (Figure 4.10, Figure 4.11, Figure 4.12).

Table 4.16. Mean Differences in Organizational Dehumanization, Organization-Centric HR Attributions, and Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Between Employees in For-profit Organizations and Employees in Nonprofit Organizations

Variable	Organization Type	M	SD	95% CI
Organizational Dehumanization	For-profit	3.88	1.51	[3.71, 4.05]
	Nonprofit	3.35	1.33	[3.06, 3.64]
Organization-Centric HR Attributions	For-profit	3.46	1.63	[3.28, 3.64]
	Nonprofit	2.92	1.41	[2.62, 3.23]
Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	For-profit	3.51	1.79	[3.31, 3.71]
	Nonprofit	2.75	1.76	[2.37, 3.14]

Note. N (For-profit) = 318. N (Nonprofit) = 83.
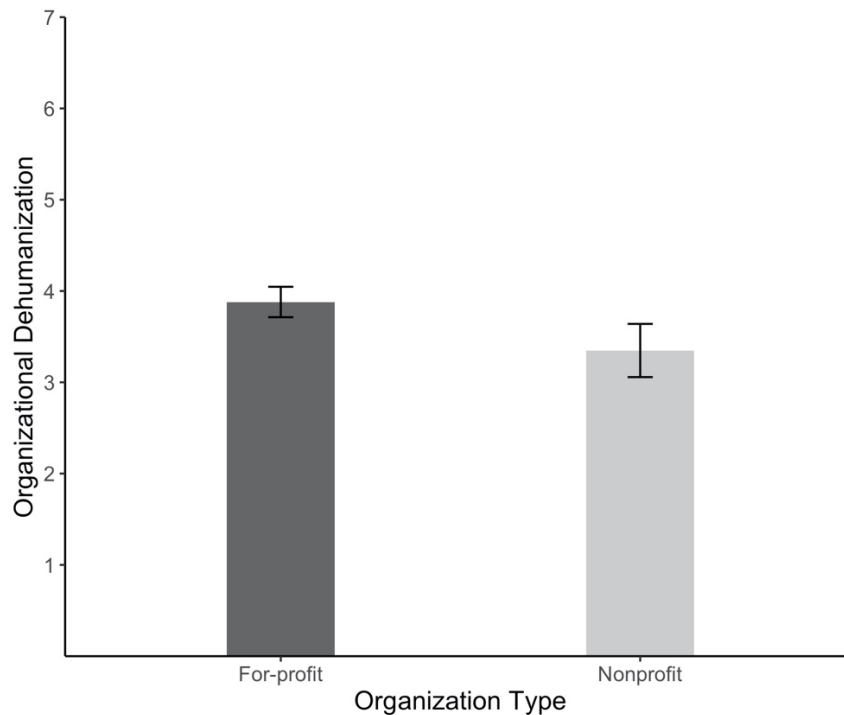
Figure 4.10. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization by Organization Type. Error bars show 95% CIs.
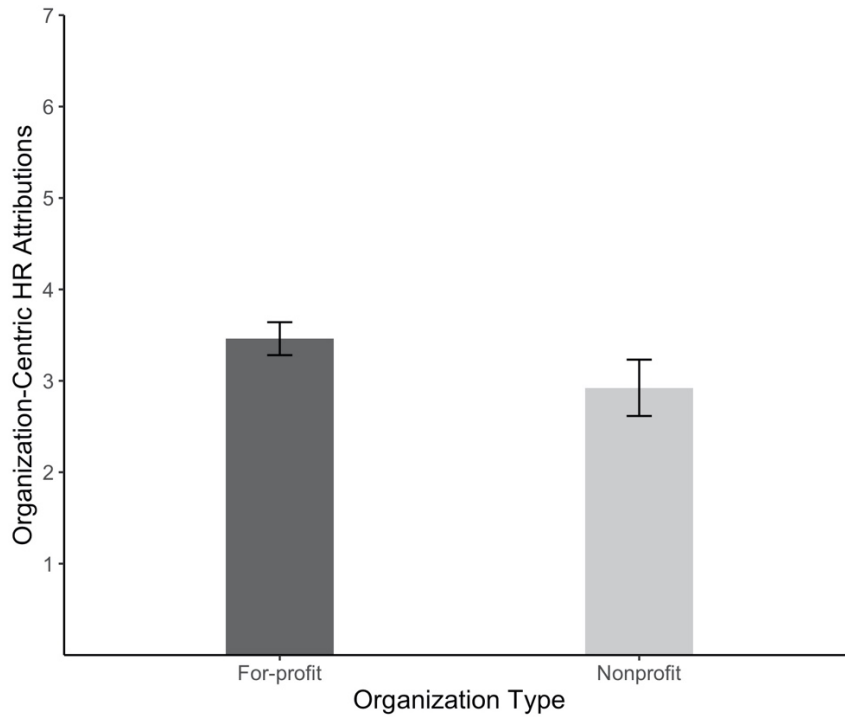
Figure 4.11. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organization-Centric HR Attributions by Organization Type. Error bars show 95% CIs.
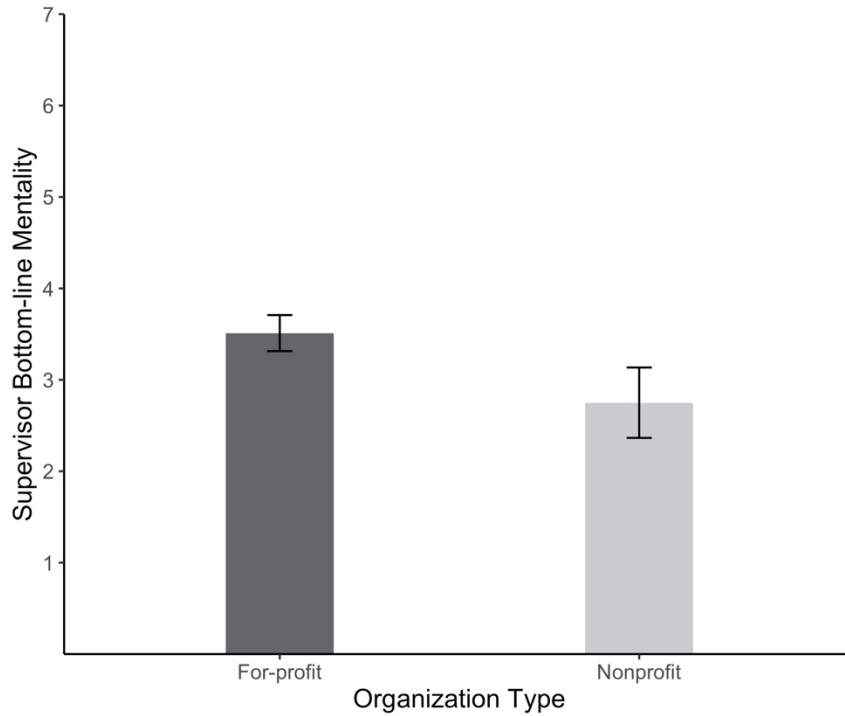
Figure 4.12. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality by Organization Type. Error bars show 95% CIs.

Responsibility for Direct Reports

Two sample *t*-tests were conducted to examine the mean differences across focal variables between employees who reported having responsibility for direct reports and those who did not. There were significant mean differences in organizational dehumanization and employee-centric HR attributions between these two groups of employees. Specifically, employees who were responsible for direct reports reported lower levels of organizational dehumanization ($t_{(398)} = -2.10, p = .03$) and higher levels of employee-centric HR attribution ($t_{(398)} = 2.30, p = .02$) compared to employees who were not responsible for direct reports. The means, standard deviations, and confidence intervals for each group of employees across the focal variables are presented in Table 4.17, and bar graphs visualizing the mean differences are displayed in Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14. Notably, although the *t*-tests indicate a significant mean difference in organizational dehumanization and employee-centric HR attributions between the two groups of employees, the 95% confidence intervals on the estimate of the population means overlap.

Table 4.17. Mean Differences in Organizational Dehumanization and Employee-Centric HR Attributions Between Employees with Responsibility for Direct Reports and Employees without Responsibility for Direct Reports

Variable	Responsibility for Direct Reports	*M*	*SD*	95% *CI*
Organizational Dehumanization	Yes	3.59	1.37	[3.38, 3.79]
	No	3.91	1.56	[3.70, 4.11]
Employee-Centric HR Attributions	Yes	4.69	1.59	[4.45, 4.93]
	No	4.29	1.80	[4.05, 4.52]

Note. N (Yes) = 172. N (No) = 229.
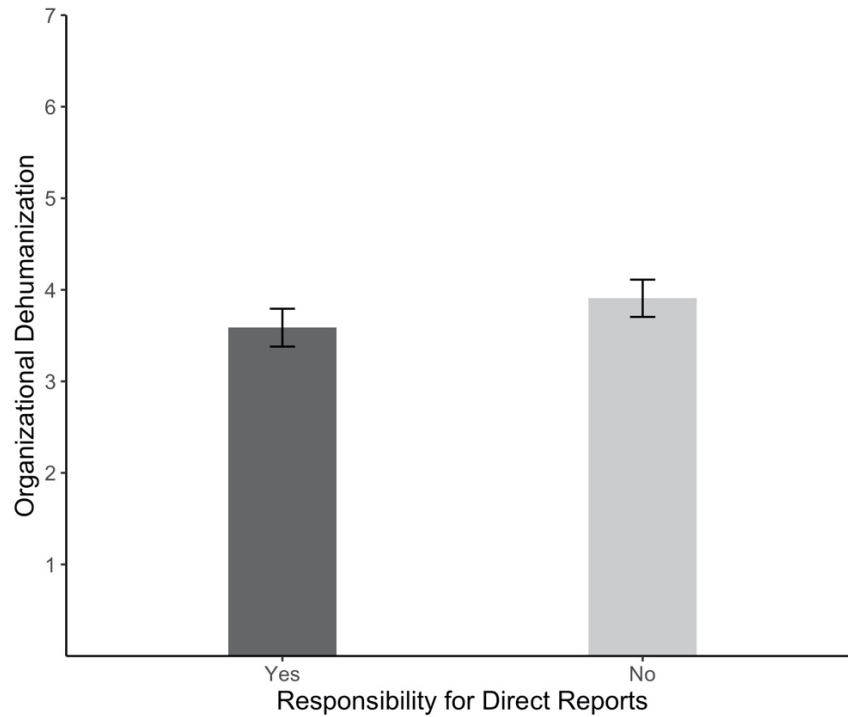
Figure 4.13. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization by Responsibility for Direct Reports. Error bars show 95% CIs.
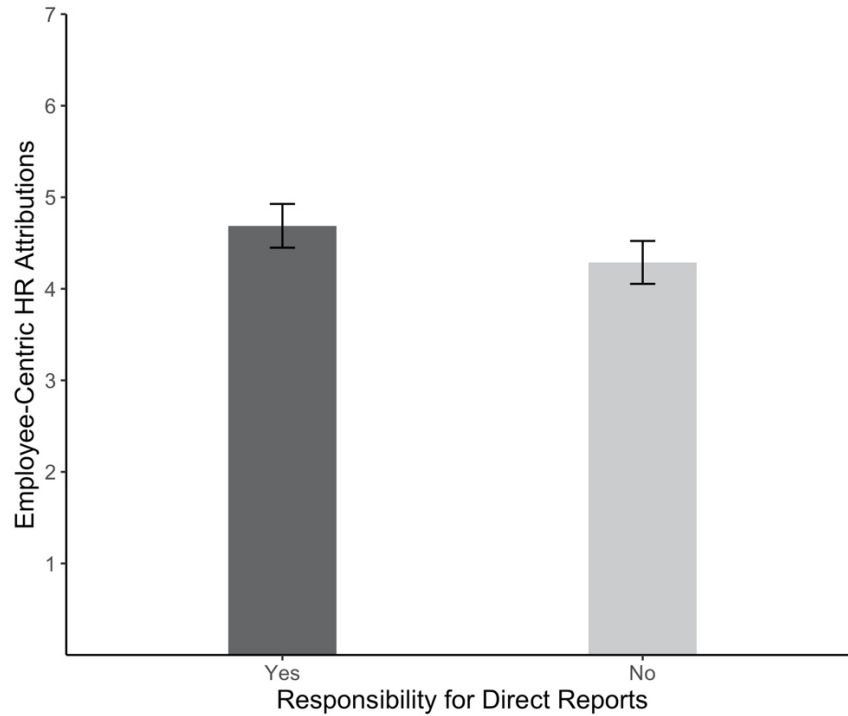
Figure 4.14. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Employee-Centric HR Attributions by Responsibility for Direct Reports. Error bars show 95% CIs.

Industry

Participants indicated the industry in which they worked by selecting one of nineteen industries in a list. The industry categories were based on the North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS). For each focal variable, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether a mean difference between industries existed. Due to small group sample sizes in several industries, Fligner-Killeen tests were conducted to check for potential heterogeneity of variance prior to conducting the ANOVAs. Across all focal variables, the χ^2 values for the Fligner-Killeen tests were nonsignificant at $p < .05$, so homogeneity of variance was assumed. Results of the ANOVAs indicated that there were significant mean differences between industries for organizational dehumanization ($F_{(18, 381)} = 2.62, p < .001$) and supervisor BLM ($F_{(18, 382)} = 2.53, p < .001$). Table 4.18 presents the means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals for organizational dehumanization and supervisor BLM across industries. No significant mean differences between industries were detected for organization-centric HR attributions ($F_{(18, 382)} = 1.57, p = .06$) and employee-centric HR attributions ($F_{(18, 382)} = 1.51, p = .08$).

Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's test indicated that employees in the Accommodation, Food Services industry were significantly different from those in the Arts, Entertainment, Recreation industry and the Finance, Insurance industry on organizational dehumanization. Additionally, employees in the Retail Trade industry were also significantly different from those in the Entertainment, Recreation; Educational Services; and Finance, Insurance industries on organizational dehumanization. To visualize the mean differences identified by the post-hoc analysis, bar graphs were

constructed and presented in Figures 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, and 4.19. From these graphs, it can be observed that employees in the Accommodation, Food Services industry and employees in the Retail Trade industry reported higher levels of organizational dehumanization than the groups to which they were compared.

Table 4.18. Means, Standard Deviations, and 95% CI for Organizational Dehumanization and Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Across Industries

Industry	n	Organizational Dehumanization			Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality		
		M	SD	95% CI	M	SD	95% CI
Accommodation, Food Services	22	4.66	1.27	[4.09, 5.22]	4.55	1.88	[3.71, 5.38]
Administrative, Support, Waste Management, Remediation	6	3.71	1.50	[2.13, 5.29]	3.17	2.22	[.83, 5.50]
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting	3	5.33	1.81	[.85, 9.82]	5.67	1.15	[2.80, 8.53]
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	23	3.13	1.25	[2.6, 3.67]	3.41	1.85	[2.61, 4.21]
Construction	15	4.16	1.51	[3.33, 5.00]	3.45	1.13	[2.82, 4.08]
Educational Services	39	3.35	1.50	[2.86, 3.83]	2.62	1.72	[2.06, 3.17]
Finance, Insurance	49	3.26	1.35	[2.87, 3.65]	2.77	1.57	[2.32, 3.22]
Healthcare, Social Assistance	47	3.95	1.64	[3.47, 4.43]	3.34	1.95	[2.77, 3.90]
Information	25	4.31	1.53	[3.68, 4.94]	3.21	1.64	[2.53, 3.89]
Management of Companies and Enterprises	6	3.62	.71	[2.88, 4.36]	3.25	1.70	[1.47, 5.03]
Manufacturing	34	3.81	1.56	[3.27, 4.36]	3.68	1.76	[3.06, 4.29]
Mining, Quarrying, Oil, and Gas Extraction	1	5.18	—	—	4.25	—	—
Professional, Scientific, Technical Services	42	3.51	1.34	[3.09, 3.93]	3.16	1.76	[2.61, 3.70]
Public Administration	12	3.30	1.25	[2.50, 4.09]	2.42	1.75	[1.31, 3.53]
Real Estate, Rental, Leasing	9	3.20	1.09	[2.36, 4.04]	3.25	.83	[2.61, 3.89]
Retail Trade	32	4.57	1.62	[3.98, 5.15]	4.31	1.88	[3.63, 4.99]
Transportation, Warehousing	21	3.87	1.39	[3.23, 4.50]	3.61	1.93	[2.73, 4.49]
Utilities	3	3.27	.48	[2.08, 4.47]	2.17	1.04	[−.42, 4.75]
Wholesale Trade	11	3.57	1.09	[2.84, 4.30]	3.68	1.70	[2.54, 4.83]
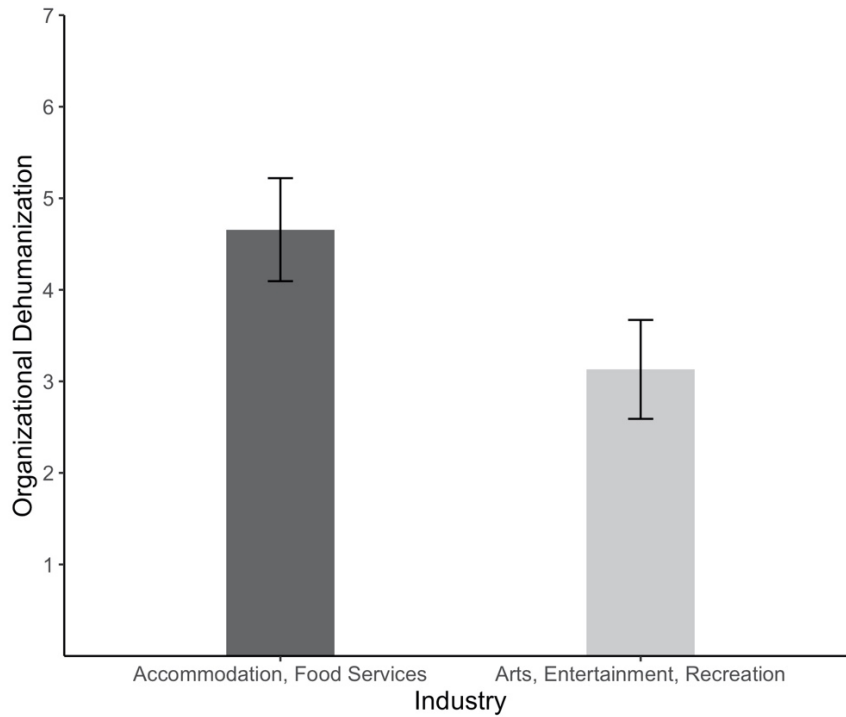
Figure 4.15. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization Between Accommodation, Food Services Employees and Arts, Entertainment, Recreation Employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
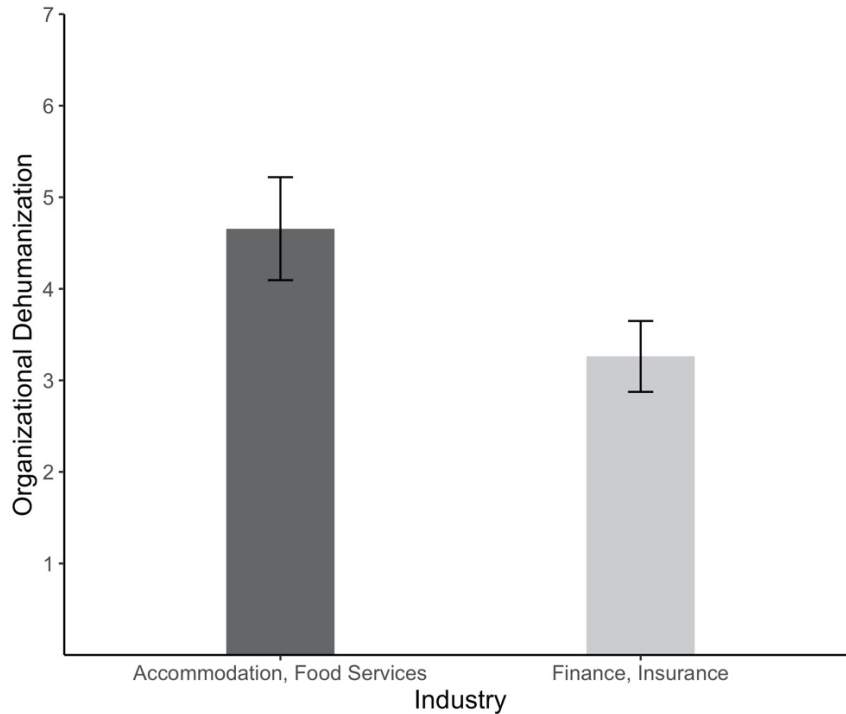
Figure 4.16. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization Between Accommodation, Food Services employees and Finance, Insurance employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
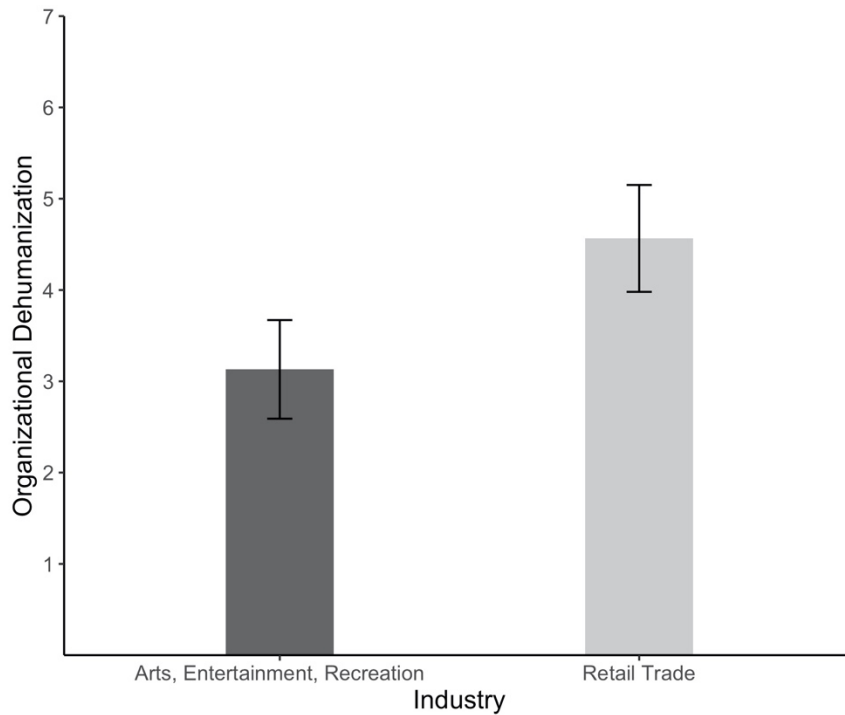
Figure 4.17. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization Between Arts, Entertainment, Recreation Employees and Retail Trade employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
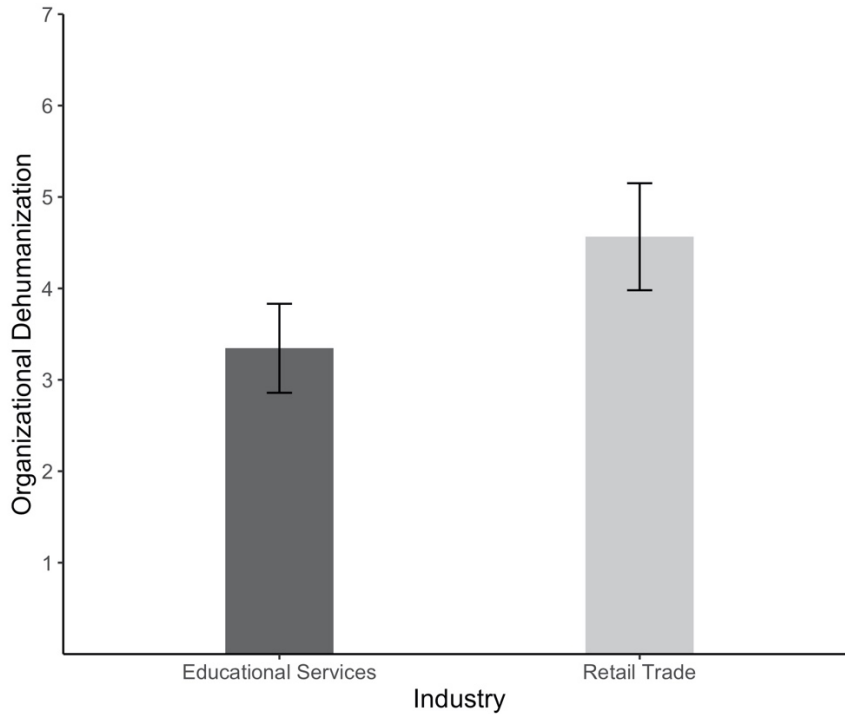
Figure 4.18. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization Between Educational Services Employees and Retail Trade employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
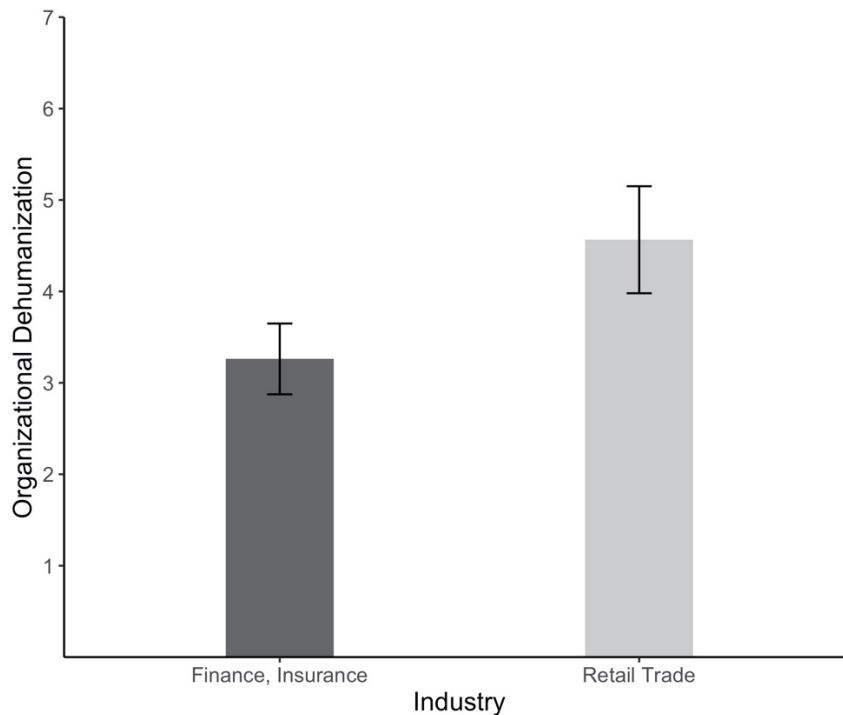
Figure 4.19. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Organizational Dehumanization Between Finance, Insurance Employees and Retail Trade employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.

A Tukey's test was also conducted for post-hoc comparisons between industries for supervisor BLM. Results of this analysis revealed that employees who worked in the Accommodation, Food Services industry were significantly different from those who worked in the Educational Services and Finance, Insurance industries on supervisor BLM. Additionally, the analysis indicated that employees in the Retail Trade industry also differed significantly from those in the Educational Services and Finance, Insurance industries. Visualizations of the mean differences are presented in Figures 4.20, 4.21, 4.22, and 4.23. Following a similar pattern as with organizational dehumanization, employees in the Accommodation, Food Services and Retail Trade industries reported higher levels of supervisor BLM compared to employees in the Educational Services and Finance, Insurance industries.
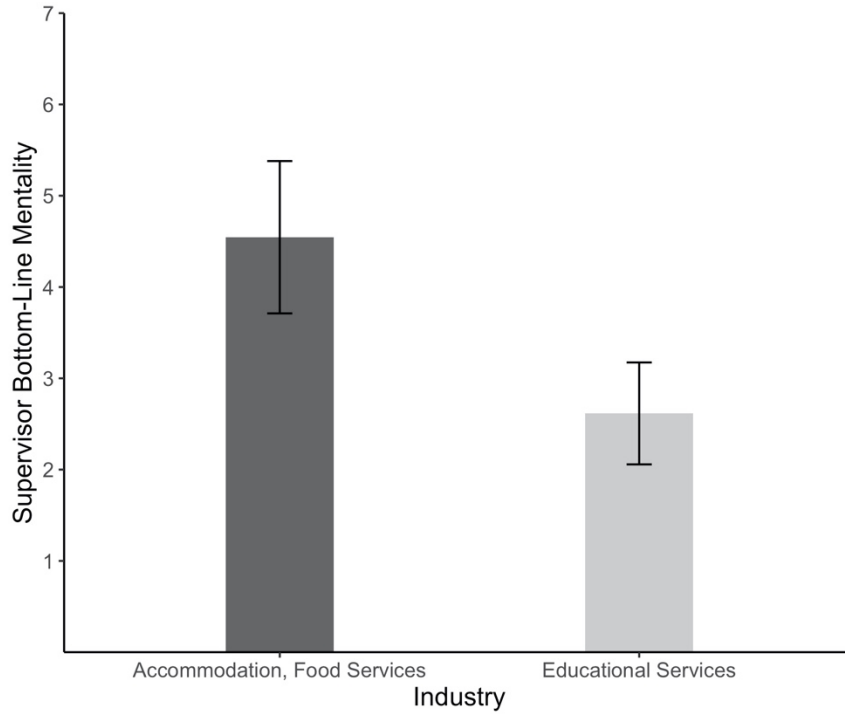
Figure 4.20. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Between Accommodation, Food Services Employees and Educational Services Employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
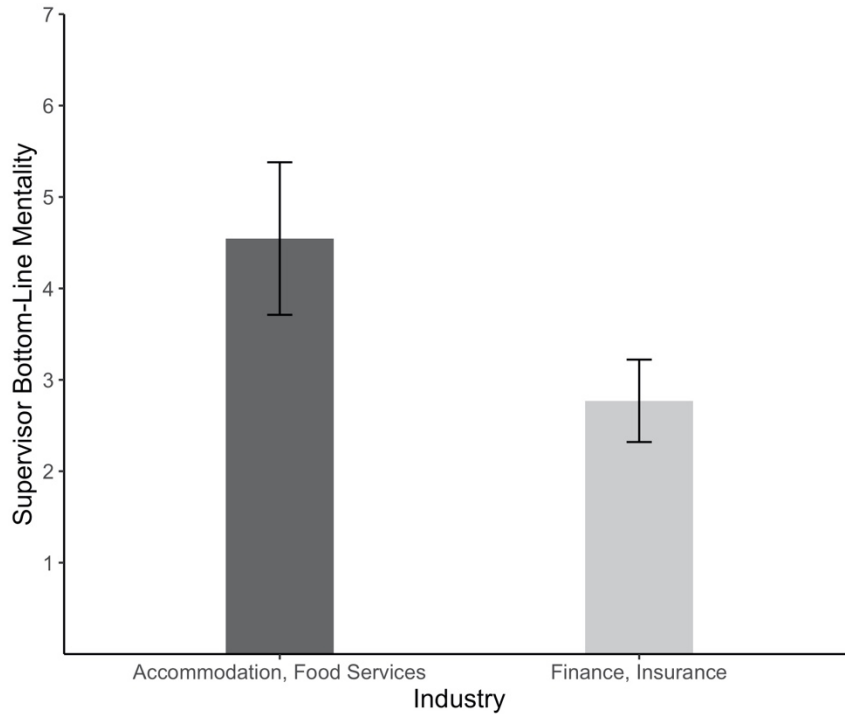
Figure 4.21. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Between Accommodation, Food Services Employees and Finance, Insurance Employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
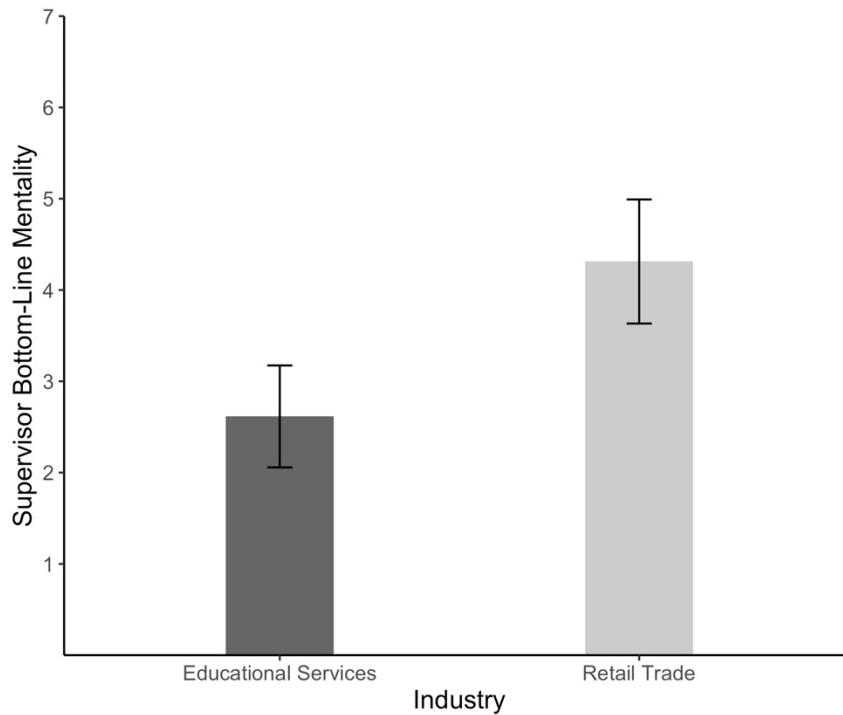
Figure 4.22. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Between Educational Services Employees and Retail Trade employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.
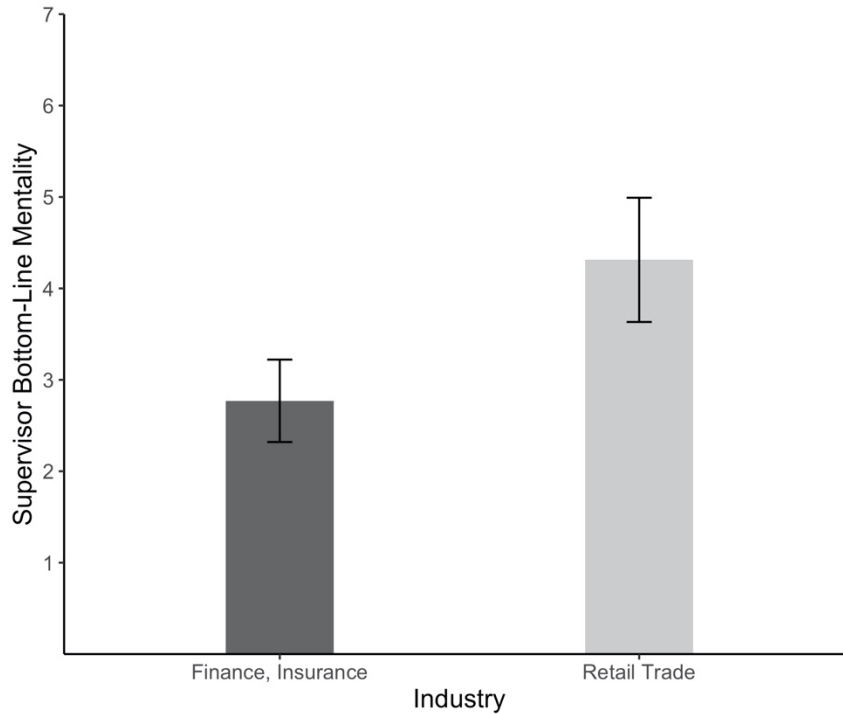
Figure 4.23. Bar Graph of the Mean Difference in Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Between Finance, Insurance Employees and Retail Trade employees. Error bars show 95% CIs.

No significant mean differences were found for other categorical variables: organization region (Midwest, Northeast, South, West), marital status (single, married, divorced, domestic partnership, separated, widowed), and race (White, Black, Asian, Hispanic/Latino, Mixed). Beyond the results reported in this section and in the correlation matrix (Table 4.1), no other notable findings in regard to organizational and individual demographic variables emerged.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Recent occurrences of employee maltreatment in organizations reported in the popular media reveal a common theme and allude to a distinctive qualitative employee experience: feeling dehumanized by the organization. Although the phenomenon of dehumanization has received attention in the social psychology literature, the recent reports in the media and preliminary scientific work suggest that it is also relevant to the organizational sciences. Despite the theoretical and empirically established negative consequences of organizational dehumanization, there is currently a dearth of research on the phenomenon and it is critically understudied. Research on organizational dehumanization is still in its early stages and the nomological network of the construct is being expanded. A notable area in need of further development is examining the potential antecedents of organizational dehumanization. Past work has clearly shown that organizational dehumanization is related to several undesirable consequences for employees and organizations, but the potential sources of this distinct experience has yet to be elaborated upon. To this end, a primary objective of the present research was to establish initial evidence for the nature of the relationships between two potential antecedents – HR attributions and supervisor BLM – and organizational dehumanization. Beyond this objective, the present research also replicated and expanded the nomological

network of consequences as well as explored individual and organizational demographic correlates of organizational dehumanization.

The present research contributes to the three nascent research literatures of organizational dehumanization, HR attributions, and supervisor BLM by being the first to demonstrate the relationships between the constructs. Consistent with predictions, organization-centric HR attributions and supervisor BLM positively predicted, while employee-centric HR attributions negatively predicted, organizational dehumanization. This suggests that employees who more strongly believe that the purpose behind the HR policies and practices in their organization are to exploit and get the most out of workers are more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. Similarly, employees who view their immediate supervisor as disproportionately preoccupied with the bottom line are more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. In contrast, employees who more strongly believe that the motive for HR policies and practices in their organization is to support employee attitudes and well-being are less likely to feel dehumanized by their organization.

The current study also contributes to the literature by providing evidence for the proposed mechanism whereby supervisor BLM impacts organizational dehumanization through HR attributions. Consistent with predictions, supervisor BLM had both a positive indirect effect on organizational dehumanization through its positive effect on organization-centric HR attributions as well as a positive indirect effect on organizational dehumanization through its negative effect on employee-centric HR attributions. This suggests that employees who view their supervisor as focusing exclusively on the bottom line are more likely to attribute exploitative motives and less likely to attribute supportive

motives to their organization's HR policies and practices, and this in turn may lead employees to feel dehumanized by their organization.

Another contribution of the present research is the extension of research on supervisor's organizational embodiment. As hypothesized, supervisor's organizational embodiment strengthened the positive relationships between supervisor BLM and both organizational dehumanization and organization-centric HR attributions. This suggests that employees who view their supervisor as fixated on the bottom line are even more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization if they also view their supervisor as an embodiment of their organization. Similarly, when employees view their supervisor as a representative of their organization, they may be even more likely to attribute exploitative reasons to the purpose of HR policies and practices as a result of their supervisor being overly focused on the bottom line. Furthermore, supervisor's organizational embodiment moderated the positive indirect effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through organization-centric HR attributions. This suggests that employees who believe their supervisor prioritizes the attainment of the bottom line are even more likely to attribute exploitive motives to HR policies and practices if they also view their supervisor as characteristic of their organization, and this would subsequently lead them to feel dehumanized by their organization.

Unexpectedly and contrary to predictions, supervisor's organizational embodiment did not moderate the relationship between supervisor BLM and employee-centric HR attributions. This suggests that employees whose supervisor adopted a bottom-line mentality are not increasingly less likely to make employee-centric HR attributions at higher levels of perceived supervisor's organizational embodiment.

Instead, employees are less likely to believe their organization implements HR policies and practices to support their attitudes and well-being when their supervisor exhibits a bottom-line mentality *regardless* of the degree to which their supervisor embodies their organization. Similarly, the indirect positive effect of supervisor BLM on organizational dehumanization through employee-centric HR attributions did not change at higher levels of supervisor's organizational embodiment. This suggests that employees who view their supervisor as strongly prioritizing the bottom line are less likely to attribute supportive motives to HR policies and practices and subsequently more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization, and this occurs *regardless* of the extent to which they identify their supervisor with their organization.

This discrepant finding that supervisor's organizational embodiment moderates the relationship between supervisor BLM and organization-centric HR attributions but does not moderate the relationship between supervisor BLM employee-centric HR attributions is intriguing. One potential explanation for this finding could be that employees are more likely to conflate negative valuations of their supervisor (e.g., high BLM) with a lack of positive regard from their organization (e.g., low employee-centric HR attributions) than they are to associate negative valuations of their supervisor (e.g., high BLM) with clearly negative intentions from their organization (e.g., high organization-centric HR attributions). Perhaps employees distinguish between a *lack of positive treatment* and *deliberate maltreatment* from their organization when it comes to making sense of the meaning behind their supervisor's priorities. In other words, employees may be quicker to draw the connection between their supervisor fixating on the bottom line and their organization failing to be considerate of their well-being

103

whereas employees may not so readily associate their supervisor fixating on the bottom line with the conclusion that their organization intentionally seeks to exploit them. Future research can further examine this pattern of results to better understand the role of supervisor's organizational embodiment in linking employee perceptions of supervisors with perceptions of organizational treatment.

The present research successfully replicated the results of past research on the consequences of organizational dehumanization and also provided further incremental extensions. As expected, organizational dehumanization negatively predicted job satisfaction and affective commitment and positively predicted turnover intentions. This suggests that employees who feel dehumanized by their organization are more likely to feel dissatisfied with their job, feel emotionally detached from their organization, and consider leaving their organization. Providing an incremental extension beyond past research that demonstrated the positive link between organizational dehumanization and emotional exhaustion, the present study also found that organizational dehumanization positively predicted burnout, conceptualized as exhaustion and disengagement. Employees who feel dehumanized by their organization are more likely to feel physically, emotionally, and cognitively drained as well as to feel psychologically distant from their work.

The present research also contributes to the literature by introducing job performance as a consequence of organizational dehumanization. As expected, organizational dehumanization negatively predicted task performance and positively predicted CWBs. This suggests that employees who feel dehumanized by their organization are less likely to perform well on the job and more likely to engage in

104

behaviors that bring harm to the organization. Contrary to expectations, however, organizational dehumanization did not significantly predict OCBs. This is surprising given that past research indicates interpersonal maltreatment and OCBs are negatively related (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008; Schilpzand & Huang, 2018). A potential explanation for this stems from the literature on cross-cultural differences in perceived organizational support. Since perceived organizational support is conceptually similar to organizational dehumanization in that both reflect employees' perceptions of their organization, the findings in this literature may be informative. Interestingly, research in this area has demonstrated that the relationship between perceived organizational support and OCBs is moderated by cultural differences across nations. Using Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions as a moderator, meta-analytic analyses indicate that higher levels of collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and femininity strengthen the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and OCBs (Chiaburu, Chakrabarty, Wang, & Li, 2015). Under Hofstede's (2001) framework, the United States is rated as low on the cultural dimensions of collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and femininity. In tandem with the meta-analytic results, this suggests that the relationship between perceived organizational support and OCBs may be attenuated in a sample based in the United States (Chiaburu et al., 2015). Perhaps this moderating effect also generalizes to the relationship between organizational dehumanization and OCBs. Given that the data collection strategy for the present study restricted participants to those in the United States, the relationship between organizational dehumanization and OCBs may be attenuated in the present research due to the cultural characteristics of the present sample.

Several interesting results regarding individual and organizational characteristics emerged in the exploratory analyses. First, in terms of individual characteristics, salary, education, and responsibility for direct reports were negatively correlated with organizational dehumanization. Second, in terms of organizational characteristics, organization type (for-profit and nonprofit), number of levels in the organizational hierarchy, and industry were related to organizational dehumanization in the present sample. Employees who worked for for-profit organizations were more likely to feel dehumanized compared to those who worked for nonprofit organizations. Employees in organizations with more hierarchical levels were more likely to feel dehumanized. Lastly, employees in the Accommodation, Food Services and Retail Trade industries reported higher levels of organizational dehumanization than those in the Arts, Entertainment, Recreation; Education Services; and Finance and Insurance industries. Potential implications and future research directions that can be derived from these demographic correlates are included and expounded upon in the discussion that follows.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The present research expands on the nomological network of organizational dehumanization and provides a much-needed investigation of novel antecedents. The results indicate that aspects of the workplace beyond abusive supervision can influence the degree to which employees feel dehumanized by their organization. Specifically, the results indicate that experiences with general organizational practices (e.g., the HR process) and supervisor dispositions (e.g., BLM) may be sufficient to engender perceptions of organizational dehumanization. This suggests that interventions that solely target abusive supervisor behaviors may not necessarily be enough to prevent perceptions

106

of dehumanization from surfacing as these perceptions could emerge due to other sources in the workplace. Rather, organizations need to formulate their personnel practices, leadership, and overarching strategy to clearly convey to employees that they are valued as unique individuals and not regarded as replaceable instruments.

In terms of personnel practices, the present research suggests that subjective interpretations formed by employees may be as important if not more so than the actual objective procedures and regulations. Indeed, results indicate that the existence of various HR practices generally related to favorable employee outcomes across the board and it was primarily the distinct interpretations about purpose that distinguished whether employees felt dehumanized or not. In other words, it may not so much be about *which* practices exist but rather employee beliefs about *why* they exist. This finding validates the need for research in HRM to consider subjective interpretations of policies and practices (Nishii et al., 2008) and also suggests that organizations need to be attentive to employees' unique perspectives on personnel practices. This finding also raises the question of *how* employees' idiosyncratic beliefs and interpretations of personnel practices might form. Perhaps certain employees may be more prone to develop cynical beliefs about the organization and workplace practices (e.g., employees with high trait negative affectivity) and as a result be more likely feel dehumanized by the organization regardless of the true form and intent of the workplace practices in reality. Future research is needed to explore this line of inquiry and examine potential individual differences that predict HR attributions and organizational dehumanization.

The importance of leadership and the impact of the priorities that supervisors convey to employees is also highlighted in the present research. Employees take cues

from the dispositions and behaviors of their supervisors and use this information to understand and navigate their workplace. According to the results of the present research, employees might form their beliefs about the purpose of personnel practices and their perceptions of how the organization regards them based on the extent to which supervisors prioritize the bottom line. Organizations should be aware that cynical beliefs about the HR process and pessimistic perceptions of organizational treatment may arise when employees discern that their immediate supervisor cares more about the bottom line than the well-being of employees. One way to prevent supervisors from falling into this unidimensional mindset of caring only for the bottom line could be to set formal requirements for supervisors to be responsible for the attitudes and well-being of their direct reports. By holding supervisors responsible for more than just the performance achievements of their direct reports, organizations may be able to discourage supervisors from adopting a bottom-line mentality and preempt the negative chain of beliefs and perceptions that follow.

In addition to the above implications that follow directly from the findings, results from the present research also inform further speculative conclusions and highlight avenues for future research. For instance, the primary finding that organizational dehumanization may not be limited to occur only when suffering blatantly abusive behaviors from one's supervisor or glaringly unjust treatment from one's organization and can instead emerge from experiencing subtle and discrete qualities of commonplace circumstances at work suggests that other less tangible aspects of the workplace can set the tone for how employees feel treated by their organization. One potential aspect of the workplace that was not explored in the present research but may

likely have implications is organizational culture (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). Indeed, work cultures have been implicated in the recent corporate cases of alleged employee maltreatment mentioned in the introduction to this paper. Wells Fargo's "sales-oriented culture" has been blamed for the struggles of the employees at the bank (Frost, 2017). Amazon's work culture that emphasizes "competition, combativeness, and criticism" has also been described as "hostile and destructive to employees' mental health" by employees (Danner, 2015). Evidently, culture played a role in these cases where employees reported feeling dehumanized by their organization. In such cases, supervisors may be behaving as expected within the norms of the organization and technically not be engaging in abuse, but it is the norms themselves that employees take as a cue that indicates to them that they are being dehumanized. Thus, organizations should be watchful of the culture that employees reside in and the implicit messages conveyed to them. To prevent dehumanization perceptions from developing among employees, organizations need to foster a corporate culture that communicates to employees that they are valued and respected as individuals and not treated as mere instruments for profit.

Beyond culture and climate, results of the present study also suggest that other characteristics of organizations can impact how employees feel their organization views them. For instance, this study found that employees who worked for for-profit organizations felt more dehumanized than those who worked for nonprofit organizations. One way to interpret this finding is that an organization's broader mission or purpose could impact employee perceptions of organizational treatment. Generally speaking, for-profit organizations provide goods and services with the primary goal of financial gain

while nonprofit organizations raise money to accomplish missions related to social causes or advocacy. Given this difference in priorities, the societal and humanitarian contribution of nonprofit organizations could be more directly salient compared to that of for-profit organizations. Thus, employees who work for nonprofit organizations may perhaps find their work to be more personally meaningful and impactful as it relates to the greater mission and purpose of their organization. These employees may be more likely to identify with their organization's values and feel treated like a partner pursuing a shared goal. Conversely, employees who work for for-profit organizations might not enjoy these same benefits and may perhaps be more likely to feel treated like a cog in a machine primarily dedicated to generating profit. This is not to say that all for-profit organizations do not seek to contribute to societal and humanitarian efforts. Plenty of corporations do (Preston, 2016). However, these philanthropic goals may not be as salient or obvious given the primary objective of for-profit organizations. One way in which for-profit organizations can make their dedication to philanthropy salient is through a mission statement (Braun, Wesche, Frey, Weisweiler, & Peus, 2012). Communicating to employees the philanthropic goals of the organization beyond making a profit may help employees develop a greater sense of purpose and meaning to their work and prevent them from feeling like a cog in the machine.

The roles of organizational structure and aspects of the job are also implicated in the present findings. The positive relationship between number of organizational levels and organizational dehumanization indicates that employees who work in organizations with a taller structure (i.e., more levels) as opposed to a flatter structure (i.e., less levels) may be more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. This finding aligns with

110

past research that has shown that taller organizational structures tend to negatively impact employee attitudes (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Ivancevich & Donnelly, Jr., 1975; Oldham & Hackman, 1981). One way to interpret this finding is through the perspective of organizational control. Past research has suggested that taller organizational structures are linked to more control placed on processes and outputs (Ouchi, 1977). Perhaps employees perceive organizations with taller structures as more bureaucratic and controlling and ultimately feel treated as just a small part of a larger system. Another way to interpret this finding is through the perspective of job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Past research has indicated that taller organizational structures are associated with more homogenous job tasks and less skill variety (Oldham & Hackman, 1981; Ouchi, 1977). Perhaps employees working in organizations with taller structures are more likely to feel dehumanized due to performing more monotonous tasks and duties.

Other demographic findings from the present research also hint at the link between aspects of the job and organizational dehumanization. Results indicate that employees in Accommodation, Food Services and Retail Trade industries may be more likely to feel dehumanized than those in the Arts, Entertainment, Recreation; Education Services; and Finance and Insurance industries. Although inferences drawn from these findings are limited without knowledge of specific job tasks and duties, these findings might suggest significant differences in perceptions of organizational dehumanization as a function of the type of work involved on the job – at least to the extent to which industry is related to the type of work involved. To speculate using a job design framework (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), perhaps work in the Accommodation, Food Services and Retail Trade industries involves less autonomy, task significance, and skill

variety compared to the other industries. In comparison to work in the Accommodation, Food Services, and Retail Industries, work in the Arts, Entertainment, Recreation industry may involve more creativity and freedom of expression; work in the Educational Services industry may involve more responsibility and meaning that is endemic to pedagogical roles; and work in the Finance and Insurance industry may involve more complexity in problem-solving. Along these lines, perhaps employees whose jobs involve less autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and task significance are more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. Additionally, the finding that employees who reported lower salaries, less education, and no responsibility for direct reports were more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization could imply a link between job prestige and organizational dehumanization. Higher pay, more educational requirements, and more responsibility have been found to relate to higher levels of job prestige in past research (Garbin & Bates, 1961; Simpson & Simpson, 1960). This suggests that employees with less prestigious jobs may be more likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. Future research can further examine the potential link between job design and prestige and organizational dehumanization.

More broadly, results of the present research suggest that certain segments of the working population require more attention from researchers and practitioners in the field of IO/HRM. Putting together the notable demographic findings, the profile of a dehumanized employee appears to be one who receives low wages, is less educated, does not hold a managerial position, and works in a customer service or sales job: the prototype of a frontline employee. As workers who hold immediate customer- or client-facing positions, these employees are often the direct drivers of organizational

performance. However, and unfortunately not surprisingly, these frontline workers also face mistreatment in both directions: from the organization that employs them and from the customers and clients with whom they interact. Indeed, this prevalent issue of frontline worker mistreatment has recently emerged as a critical societal concern in the wake of the global SARS-CoV-2 pandemic (Mandel, 2020; Sainato, 2020; Selyukh & Bond, 2020). Despite being deemed essential workers who are needed by society in a time of crisis, these frontline employees are among the lowest paid, least revered, and as the present research findings would suggest, most likely to feel dehumanized by their organization. Some important questions raised by the present research and current events are whether these employees have received adequate attention in the IO/HRM literature and whether the practical implications of past research in the organizational sciences can be applied to benefit this population of workers. In other words, are frontline employees adequately represented in past IO/HRM research and, if so, what are the actionable steps organizations can take to motivate these employees? Future research can address these questions.

Taken altogether, the results of the present research elucidate how certain aspects of employees' work lives might explain why they come to believe their organization dehumanizes them. The present research suggests that the aspects of work that employees find dehumanizing may be embedded within features of their jobs, characteristics of their supervisors, and organizational practices. Knowing this and the deleterious outcomes that accompany dehumanization, an avenue of inquiry that follows is in considering potential measures to combat its occurrence in organizations. Although not empirically examined in the present research, recommendations that were posed previously included conveying

support rather than exploitation through organizational practices and incentivizing

supervisors to precipitate high employee morale. Work design and job characteristics

(Hackman & Oldham, 1975) were also implicated in the results, suggesting that

enhancing employees' experience with their day-to-day work activities by embedding

aspects such as skill variety or autonomy may help prevent them from feeling as though

they are treated as subhuman. However, a crucial consideration that was alluded to

previously is that there may be specific populations of employees, namely those who fit

the profile of a frontline worker, who may be at higher risk for experiencing

dehumanization. For this segment of the working population, a point of concern is the

degree to which their jobs can actually be enhanced to improve their experience at work.

As employees in these positions are often directly involved in generating the output and

product of organizations (i.e., the bottom line), the tasks and duties that they are

responsible for may require high levels of uniformity and standardization. Thus,

adjustments to work design and job characteristics may perhaps be less flexible or more

limited for these employees. In such cases where directly augmenting features of

employees' jobs may not be feasible, other approaches to preventing dehumanization

perceptions are necessary.

As mentioned previously, another approach to staving off employee perceptions

of dehumanization is through leadership, particularly leadership from managers who

directly interact with employees (e.g., frontline managers). Beyond encouraging

supervisors to simply avoid a myopic focus on the bottom line, organizations can also

select or train supervisors to practice good leadership in general. Supervisors who exhibit

transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994) or servant leadership (Van

114

Dierendonck, 2011), or perhaps just consideration behaviors (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004), may likely fend off employees' dehumanization perceptions as these leadership styles are ostensibly incompatible with treating employees as simple instruments for achieving the bottom line. However, another relevant concern is the consequence of supervisors themselves feeling dehumanized. This may especially be a plausible reality for frontline managers as they are held directly responsible for bottom line attainment and thus may have similar experiences to frontline employees. Along these lines, perhaps feeling dehumanized can be contagious and trickle down from frontline managers to frontline employees via the mechanism of bottom-line mentality: due to stringent demands for meeting the bottom line, frontline managers may feel treated as an instrument dedicated to obtaining the bottom line for organizations, adopt a bottom-line mentality, and subsequently subject their direct reports to the same treatment. Indeed, research on self-dehumanization (Ruttan & Lucas, 2018) and trickle-down leadership (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012) suggests that this may be possible. Thus, although looking toward immediate supervisors and their leadership styles as a potential avenue for stymieing dehumanization perceptions of their direct reports, the effectiveness of this approach may be limited when supervisors themselves feel subjected to bottom-line attainment and dehumanized.

Evidently, the notion of a focus on the bottom line (e.g., profits) is strongly implicated in the current study. Extrapolating beyond the role of immediate supervisors, a broader implication of the present research is the potential link between dehumanization and *organizational priorities set by top management*. Indeed, past research has indicated

that the bottom-line mentality of top management can impact employee outcomes (Babalola et al., 2019). In conjunction with research demonstrating that aspects of leadership can trickle down from top management to lower level supervisors (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Mawritz et al., 2012), this suggests that a focus on the bottom line can originate from the distal upper echelons of an organizational hierarchy and become instilled in the broader workplace through an organization's culture, climate, practices, and leadership across multiple levels. Thus, in the context of the present research, organizational dehumanization may arise not only from the bottom-line mentality of immediate supervisors but also from a broader organizational emphasis on the bottom line that permeates the entire workplace starting from the top. Organizations may need to look beyond bottom-line mentality on a case-by-case basis with individual supervisors and reflect on the degree to which dehumanizing aspects of work arise from a broader bottom-line mentality that pervades the workplace when the tone set by top leadership is to get results at all costs without regard for the welfare of its human capital. As the saying goes, "leadership starts at the top", and the message that employees are valued as individuals must originate from there as well.

About half a century ago, distinguished economist Milton Friedman famously stated that "the social responsibility of business is to increase its profits" (Friedman, 1970). In line with this statement, corporations have largely measured success based on shareholder return on investment and employees have amounted to a means to attain the bottom line. Thus, in a broad sense, corporations at large have adopted a bottom-line mentality and employees, who are valued and managed primarily as resources for making profits, are dehumanized. To the extent that the narrow purpose of generating profit – or

116

obtaining some other bottom line outcome – is indeed the *raison d'être* of corporations and that a bottom-line mentality is an inextricable feature of organizational life, then perhaps the priorities of corporations are naturally incompatible with the notion of humanization from the start. However, some hopeful change may be on the horizon. The Business Roundtable consisting of nearly 200 CEOs of major corporations in the United States recently issued a statement asserting that maximizing profits should not be the sole purpose of corporations (Kelly, 2019). Instead, the statement implores that corporations are responsible for various stakeholders, including employees, and that people should be placed over profits (Kelly, 2019). Although concrete and actionable steps for living up to this ideal have yet to be presented, perhaps this statement may serve as an impetus that widens the scope of corporate priorities beyond profits and toward humanizing the workplace.

Limitations and Future Directions

The contributions and implications of the present research should be understood in light of its limitations. First, in terms of sample characteristics, participants in the present study consisted of workers in the United States, predominantly White, and mostly full-time employees. Additionally, not all industries were well-represented. These sample characteristics influence the external validity of the present research and the generalizability of the present findings to organizations in other countries and different industries and workers of different races and employment statuses are tentative. Future research can contribute to this area of inquiry by addressing this limitation and examining the relationships between the focal variables in different national and industry contexts and with more employee diversity.

Second, the present research was conducted using a cross-sectional design and responses were collected from a single source at one time. Thus, the research design and data collection strategy of the current study do not provide strong bases for demonstrating causal effects. Common-method bias and the lack of temporal precedence make inferences of the causal directions proposed in this study tentative (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Specifically, it is not conclusively demonstrated that supervisor BLM and HR attributions causally affect organizational dehumanization. An alternative explanation may be that organizational dehumanization causes supervisor BLM and HR attributions or that some unmeasured variable causes all three. Of course, this also means that causal inferences drawn from the mediation analyses are tentative. The present study does not demonstrate that supervisor BLM temporally precedes HR attributions or that HR attributions temporally precede organizational dehumanization. Future research can address this limitation by using a longitudinal design to examine changes in the focal variables over time. Additionally, future research can also use an experimental design, perhaps with vignettes, to examine whether manipulating supervisor BLM affects HR attributions and organizational dehumanization.

Despite the limitations stated, the present research has several strengths. First, in terms of sample characteristics, there was broad and even representation across several demographic groups. Different categories for gender, age, marital status, education, responsibility for direct reports, salary, and organization region were well-represented in the sample. Additionally, using a wide-sampling approach, as opposed to using a case study with one particular organization, allowed for gauging employee experiences across

diverse organizations and contexts. This allowed differences across organizational demographics to be examined here.

Second, in addressing the limitations of the cross-sectional design, it is worth emphasizing that the present research is the first to empirically examine and demonstrate the relationships between supervisor BLM, HR attributions, and organizational dehumanization. Following Spector's (2019) arguments, this research provides the preliminary contribution to the larger effort of determining causal relationships by first establishing the covariation between the focal variables. Results of the current study supported the theory and hypotheses presented and indicate that supervisor BLM, HR attributions, and organizational dehumanization are related to each other in the way expected. Along these lines, the mediation analyses also demonstrated support for the proposed causal mechanism whereby supervisor BLM increases organizational dehumanization via its two distinct influences on organization-centric and employee-centric HR attributions. Although the design and data collection do not provide strong bases to unequivocally prove causality, at the very least the statistical results show that the data is consistent with the causal process proposed (Hayes, 2017). Future research can build on this initial foundation and work on confirming or disconfirming the causal directions proposed.

Furthermore, although the cross-sectional design of the study limits the degree to which causal relationships can be demonstrated by the data, there are at least three reasons to believe the proposed causal directions are accurate. First, organizational support theory, a theoretical framework that underlies perceived organizational support, which as discussed previously is a construct similar and related to organizational

119

dehumanization, places HR practices and leadership as antecedents that precede

employee perceptions of the treatment they receive from the organization (Eisenberger,

Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger, Rhoades, Shanock, & Wen, 2020).

Since organizational dehumanization also reflects employee perceptions of organizational

treatment, it may be reasonable to expect the same: HR practices and leadership are

antecedents to perceptions of being dehumanized by the organization. Thus, in the

context of the present study, organizational support theory would suggest that HR

attributions and supervisor BLM precede organizational dehumanization. Second, theory

in the HRM literature assert that supervisor implementation of HR policies and practices

impacts employee perceptions and interpretations of the HR process which subsequently

impact employee reactions (Nishii & Wright, 2008; Russell et al., 2018). This suggests

that the causal flow starts from supervisor characteristics and behaviors and ends with

employee appraisals of their situation. Thus, in the context of the present research, HRM

theory would suggest that supervisor BLM causes HR attributions which in turn cause

perceptions of dehumanization. Third, past research on organizational dehumanization

has already found empirical support for the causal effect of supervisor behaviors on

organizational dehumanization. Specifically, as described earlier, Caesens and colleagues

(2019) conducted cross-lagged panel analyses and demonstrated that abusive supervision

causes organizational dehumanization and not the other way around. Thus, based on both

theoretical and empirical grounds, it is reasonable to expect a causal relationship between

supervisor BLM, HR attributions, and organizational dehumanization in the direction

proposed in the present research.

Conclusion

Organizational dehumanization is a critical workplace consequence that has recently begun receiving more attention in the popular media and academic literature. Given the deleterious outcomes associated with employees feeling dehumanized by their organization, the present research was conducted to shed light on potential antecedents that may give rise to such negative perceptions of one's organization. Results of the current study demonstrated that HR attributions and supervisor BLM significantly predict organizational dehumanization, suggesting that the beliefs employees form regarding HR policies and practices at their workplace and the degree to which their supervisors emphasize the bottom line can impact the degree to which employees feel dehumanized by their organization. Results of this study also provide initial evidence for the process through which supervisor BLM impacts HR attributions and subsequently organizational dehumanization. Results also indicated that the degree to which supervisor BLM impacts organization-centric HR attributions and organizational dehumanization depends on supervisors' organizational embodiment. Finally, organizational dehumanization was found to predict job attitudes, withdrawal, well-being, and performance as well. The present research lays the groundwork for future research to build upon by connecting three constructs with growing literatures and relevance to modern organizations and further expanding the nomological network of organizational dehumanization.

REFERENCES

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Alarcon, G. M. (2011). A meta-analysis of burnout with job demands, resources, and attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *79*(2), 549–562.

Anderson, C., & Brown, C. E. (2010). The functions and dysfunctions of hierarchy. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *30*, 55–89.

Arnold, C. (2016, October 4). Former Wells Fargo Employees Describe Toxic Sales Culture, Even At HQ. *NPR*. https://www.npr.org/2016/10/04/496508361/former-wells-fargo-employees-describe-toxic-sales-culture-even-at-hq

Aryee, S., Chen, Z. X., Sun, L.-Y., & Debrah, Y. A. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 191–201.

Ashforth, B. (1994). Petty tyranny in organizations. *Human Relations*, *47*(7), 755-778.

Babalola, M. T., Greenbaum, R. L., Amarnani, R. K., Shoss, M. K., Deng, Y., Garba, O. A., & Guo, L. (2020). A business frame perspective on why perceptions of top management's bottom-line mentality result in employees' good and bad behaviors. *Personnel Psychology*, *73*(1), 19–41.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *10*(2), 170–180.

Balliet, D., & Ferris, D. L. (2013). Ostracism and prosocial behavior: A social dilemma

  perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *120*(2),

  298–308.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (Eds.). (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness*

  through transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bastian, B., & Haslam, N. (2010). Excluded from humanity: The dehumanizing effects of

  social ostracism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*(1), 107–113.

Bastian, B., & Haslam, N. (2011). Experiencing dehumanization: Cognitive and

  emotional effects of everyday dehumanization. *Basic and Applied Social*

  Psychology, *33*(4), 295–303.

Bell, C. M., & Khoury, C. (2011). Organizational de/humanization, deindividuation,

  anomie, and in/justice. *Emerging Perspectives on Organizational Justice and*

  Ethics, 167–197.

Bentein, K., Vandenberg, R., Vandenberghe, C., & Stinglhamber, F. (2005). The role of

  change in the relationship between commitment and turnover: a latent growth

  modeling approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(3), 468–482.

Bonner, J. M., Greenbaum, R. L., & Quade, M. J. (2017). Employee unethical behavior to

  shame as an indicator of self-image threat and exemplification as a form of self-

  image protection: The exacerbating role of supervisor bottom-line

  mentality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(8), 1203–1221.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include

elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.),

Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 71–98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM-Firm Performance Linkages:

The Role of the "Strength" of the HRM System. *The Academy of Management

Review*, *29*(2), 203–221.

Bowling, N. A., & Hammond, G. D. (2008). A meta-analytic examination of the

construct validity of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job

Satisfaction Subscale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *73*(1), 63–77.

Braun, S., Wesche, J. S., Frey, D., Weisweiler, S., & Peus, C. (2012). Effectiveness of

mission statements in organizations–A review. *Journal of Management &

Organization*, *18*(4), 430–444.

Caesens, G., Nguyen, N., & Stinglhamber, F. (2019). Abusive Supervision and

Organizational Dehumanization. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *34*, 709–

728.

Caesens, G., Stinglhamber, F., Demoulin, S., & De Wilde, M. (2017). Perceived

organizational support and employees' well-being: the mediating role of

organizational dehumanization. *European Journal of Work and Organizational

Psychology*, *26*(4), 527–540.

Campbell, J. P., & Wiernik, B. M. (2015). The Modeling and Assessment of Work

Performance. *Annual Review Organizational Psychology Organizational

Behavior*, *2*(1), 47–74.

Chiaburu, D. S., Chakrabarty, S., Wang, J., & Li, N. (2015). Organizational support and

    citizenship behaviors: A comparative cross-cultural meta-analysis. *Management*

    International Review, *55*(5), 707–736.

Christoff, K. (2014). Dehumanization in organizational settings: some scientific and

    ethical considerations. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *8*, 1–5.

Connelly, B. L., Certo, S. T., Ireland, R. D., & Reutzel, C. R. (2011). Signaling theory: A

    review and assessment. *Journal of Management*, *37*(1), 39–67.

Danner, C. (2015, August 15). *Former Amazon Employees Detail Brutal Work*

    Environment. Intelligencer. https://nymag.com/intelligencer/2015/08/former-

    amazon-employees-detail-brutal-workplace.html

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job

    demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499–

    512.

Demerouti, E., Mostert, K., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Burnout and work engagement: a

    thorough investigation of the independency of both constructs. *Journal of*

    Occupational Health Psychology, *15*(3), 209–222.

Den Hartog, D. N., Boon, C., Verburg, R. M., & Croon, M. A. (2013). HRM,

    Communication, Satisfaction, and Perceived Performance: A Cross-Level Test.

    Journal of Management, *39*(6), 1637–1665.

Egan, M. (2016, November 3). Inside Wells Fargo, workers say the mood is grim. *CNN*

    Business. https://money.cnn.com/2016/11/03/investing/wells-fargo-morale-

    problem/index.html

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 500–507.

Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. E., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., & Steiger-Mueller, M. (2010). Leader–member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(6), 1–19.

Eisenberger, R., Rhoades Shanock, L., & Wen, X. (2020). Perceived Organizational Support: Why Caring About Employees Counts. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *7*, 101–124.

Eissa, G., Wyland, R., Lester, S. W., & Gupta, R. (2019). Winning at all costs: An exploration of bottom-line mentality, Machiavellianism, and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *29*(3), 469–489.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*, 1149–1160.

Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Berry, J. W., & Lian, H. (2008). The development and validation of the Workplace Ostracism Scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(6), 1348–1366.

Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1991). *Social cognition*. Mcgraw-Hill Book Company.

Flores, G. L., Posthuma, R. A., & Campion, M. A. (2016). Managing the risk of negative effects of high performance work practices. In N. M. Ashkanasy, R. J. Bennett & M. J. Martinko (Eds.), *Understanding the high performance workplace: The line between motivation and abuse* (pp. 15–38). New York, NY: Routledge.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., Goh, A., & Bruursema, K. (2007). Does your coworker know what you're doing? Convergence of self- and peer-reports of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Stress Management, 14*(1), 41–60.

Friedman, M. (1970). A Friedman doctrine: The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times Magazine*, *13*, 32–33.

Frost, W. (2017, April 10). Wells Fargo report gives inside look at the culture that crushed the bank's reputation. *CNBC*. https://www.cnbc.com/2017/04/10/wells-fargo-report-shows-culture-that-crushed-banks-reputation.html

Garbin, A. P., & Bates, F. L. (1961). Occupational prestige: an empirical study of its correlates. *Social Forces*, *40*(2), 131–136.

Ghosh, S. (2018, July 14). *Amazon warehouse workers tell us their horror stories*. Business Insider. http://www.businessinsider.com/amazon-warehouse-workers-share-their-horror-stories-2018-4

Gillet, N., Fouquereau, E., Forest, J., Brunault, P., & Colombat, P. (2012). The impact of organizational factors on psychological needs and their relations with well-being. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(4), 437–450.

Gould-Williams, J., & Davies, F. (2005). Using social exchange theory to predict the effects of HRM practice on employee outcomes: An analysis of public sector workers. *Public Management Review*, *7*(1), 1–24.

Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., & Eissa, G. (2012). Bottom-line mentality as an antecedent of social undermining and the moderating roles of core self-evaluations and conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(2), 343–359.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *60*(2), 159–170.

Harris, M. M., & Schaubroeck, J. (1988). A meta-analysis of self-supervisor, self-peer, and peer-supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, *41*(1), 43–62.

Haslam, N. (2006). Dehumanization: An Integrative Review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *10*(3), 252–264.

Haslam, N., & Loughnan, S. (2014). Dehumanization and Infrahumanization. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *65*(1), 399–423.

Hayes, A. F. (2015). An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *50*(1), 1–22.

Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Heidemeier, H., & Moser, K. (2009). Self–other agreement in job performance ratings: A meta-analytic test of a process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 353–370.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. Eastford, CT: Martino Publishing.

Hewett, R., Shantz, A., & Mundy, J. (2019). Information, beliefs, and motivation: The antecedents to human resource attributions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(5), 570–586.

Hewett, R., Shantz, A., Mundy, J., & Alfes, K. (2018). Attribution theories in human resource management research: A review and research agenda. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *29*(1), 87–126.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences, comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(3), 350–366.

Huang, J. L., Liu, M., & Bowling, N. A. (2015). Insufficient effort responding: Examining an insidious confound in survey data. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 828–845.

Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly Jr, J. H. (1975). Relation of organizational structure to job satisfaction, anxiety-stress, and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 272–280.

Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(3), 319–337.

Jawahar, I. M., Stone, T. H., & Kisamore, J. L. (2007). Role conflict and burnout: The direct and moderating effects of political skill and perceived organizational support on burnout dimensions. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *14*(2), 142–159.

Jensen, J. M., Patel, P. C., & Messersmith, J. G. (2013). High-performance work systems and job control: Consequences for anxiety, role overload, and turnover intentions. *Journal of Management*, *39*(6), 1699–1724.

Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of

    consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, *89*(1), 36–51.

Kehoe, R. R., & Wright, P. M. (2013). The Impact of High-Performance Human

    Resource Practices on Employees' Attitudes and Behaviors. *Journal of*

    Management, *39*(2), 366–391.

Kelley, H. H. (1967). Attribution theory in social psychology. In *Nebraska symposium on*

    motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Kelly, J. (2019, August 20). *Top CEOs Sign A Statement Prioritizing People Over*

    Profits: What It Means for Employees. Forbes.

    https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2019/08/20/top-ceos-sign-a-radical-

    statement-prioritizing-employees-over-profits/

Kerr, S. (1975). On the folly of rewarding A, while hoping for B. *Academy of*

    Management Journal, *18*(4), 769–783.

Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive leadership: A

    theoretical review, integration, and future research agenda. *Journal of*

    Management, *39*(5), 1308–1338.

Kuo, L. (2019, April 15). Working 9 to 9: Chinese tech workers push back against long

    hours. *The Guardian*. https://www.theguardian.com/world/2019/apr/15/china-

    tech-employees-push-back-against-long-hours-996-alibaba-huawei

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the

    three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(2), 123–133.

Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. (2002). Examining the human resource architecture: The

    relationships among human capital, employment, and human resource

    configurations. *Journal of Management*, *28*(4), 517–543.

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and

    organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 370–390.

Liao, S. (2019, April 2). *Chinese developers use GitHub to protest long work hours*. The

    Verge. https://www.theverge.com/2019/4/2/18291035/chinese-developers-github-

    protest-long-work-hours

Lustenberger, D. E., & Jagacinski, C. M. (2010). Exploring the effects of ostracism on

    performance and intrinsic motivation. *Human Performance*, *23*(4), 283–304.

Mackey, J. D., Frieder, R. E., Brees, J. R., & Martinko, M. J. (2017). Abusive

    supervision: A meta-analysis and empirical review. *Journal of

    Management*, *43*(6), 1940–1965.

Mandel, K. (2020, March 26). We Now Know Who Society's Essential Workers Are.

    And They're Among the Lowest Paid. *Huffington Post*.

    https://www.huffpost.com/entry/essential-workers-lowest-

    paid_n_5e7bc7f7c5b6256a7a23e6f5

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of

    Psychology*, *52*(1), 397–422.

Mawritz, M. B., Greenbaum, R. L., Butts, M. M., & Graham, K. A. (2017). I just can't

    control myself: A self-regulation perspective on the abuse of deviant

    employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, *60*(4), 1482–1503.

Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Marinova, S. V. (2012).
A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, *65*(2), 325–357.

Mesdaghinia, S., Rawat, A., & Nadavulakere, S. (2018). Why moral followers quit: Examining the role of leader bottom-line mentality and unethical pro-leader behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1–15.

Messersmith, J. G., Patel, P. C., Lepak, D. P., & Gould-Williams, J. S. (2011). Unlocking the black box: Exploring the link between high-performance work systems and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 1105–1118.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 538–551.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2003). Job performance. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology,* Vol. 12, pp. 39–53). Hoboken, NJ, US: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Nguyen, N., & Stinglhamber, F. (2018). Emotional labor and core self-evaluations as mediators between organizational dehumanization and job satisfaction. *Current Psychology*, 1–9.

Nishii, L. H., & Wright, P. M. (2008). Variability at multiple levels of analysis: Implications for strategic human resource management. In Smith DB (Ed.), *The people make the place* (pp. 225–248). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee Attributions of the "Why" of HR Practices: Their Effects on Employee Attitudes and Behaviors, and Customer Satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *61*(3), 503–545.

Ogbonnaya, C., Daniels, K., Connolly, S., van Veldhoven, J. P. M., & Nielsen, K. (2016). Employees, supervisors and high-performance work practices. In N. M. Ashkanasy, R. J. Bennett & M. J. Martinko (Eds.), *Understanding the high performance workplace: The line between motivation and abuse* (pp. 39–62). New York, NY: Routledge.

Oldham, G. R., & Hackman, J. R. (1981). Relationships between organizational structure and employee reactions: Comparing alternative frameworks. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 66–83.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 85–97.

Ouchi, W. G. (1977). The relationship between organizational structure and organizational control. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 95–113.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *26*(7), 777–796.

Pfeffer, J. (2018). *Dying for a Paycheck: How modern management harms employee health and company performance—and what we can do about it*. New York: HarperBusiness.

Picchi, A. (2018, April 19). *Inside an Amazon warehouse: "Treating human beings as robots."* CBS News. https://www.cbsnews.com/news/inside-an-amazon-warehouse-treating-human-beings-as-robots/

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903.

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2007). Does rudeness really matter? The effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(5), 1181–1197.

Posthuma, R. A., Campion, M. C., Masimova, M., & Campion, M. A. (2013). A high performance work practices taxonomy: Integrating the literature and directing future research. *Journal of Management*, *39*(5), 1184–1220.

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *36*(4), 717–731.

Preston, C. (2016, June 22). *The 20 Most Generous Companies of the Fortune 500*. Fortune. https://fortune.com/2016/06/22/fortune-500-most-charitable-companies/

Quade, M. J., McLarty, B. D., & Bonner, J. M. (2019). The influence of supervisor bottom-line mentality and employee bottom-line mentality on leader-member exchange and subsequent employee performance. *Human Relations*. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0018726719858394

Robinson, S. L., O'Reilly, J., & Wang, W. (2013). Invisible at work: An integrated model of workplace ostracism. *Journal of Management*, *39*(1), 203–231.

Russell, Z. A., Steffensen, D. S., Ellen III, B. P., Zhang, L., Bishoff, J. D., & Ferris, G. R. (2018). High performance work practice implementation and employee impressions of line manager leadership. *Human Resource Management Review*, *28*(3), 258–270.

Ruttan, R. L., & Lucas, B. J. (2018). Cogs in the machine: The prioritization of money and self-dehumanization. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *149*, 47–58.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 68–78.

Sainato, M. (2020, April 12). "We're risking our life": Coronavirus takes a toll on essential workers still on the job. *The Guardian*. https://www.theguardian.com/world/2020/apr/12/essential-workers-coronavirus-outbreak-us

Sakurai, K., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Coworker incivility and incivility targets' work effort and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating role of supervisor social support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(2), 150–161.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 224–253.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(3), 293–315.

Schilpzand, P., & Huang, L. (2018). When and how experienced incivility dissuades

    proactive performance: An integration of sociometer and self-identity orientation

    perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *103*(8), 828–841.

Schilpzand, P., De Pater, I. E., & Erez, A. (2016). Workplace incivility: A review of the

    literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, *37*,

    S57–S88.

Schleicher, D. J., Baumann, H. M., Sullivan, D. W., Levy, P. E., Hargrove, D. C., &

    Barros-Rivera, B. A. (2018). Putting the system into performance management

    systems: A review and agenda for performance management research. *Journal of*

    Management, *44*(6), 2209–2245.

Schmid, E. A., Pircher Verdorfer, A., & Peus, C. (2019). Shedding light on leaders' self-

    interest: theory and measurement of exploitative leadership. *Journal of*

    Management, *45*(4), 1401–1433.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., & Macey, W. H. (2013). Organizational climate and

    culture. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *64*, 361–388.

Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-

    analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership*

    Quarterly, *24*(1), 138–158.

Selyukh, A., & Bond, S. (2020, April 28). More Essential Than Ever, Low-Wage

    Workers Demand More. *NPR*.

    https://www.npr.org/2020/04/27/843849435/hometown-heroes-or-whatever-low-

    wage-workers-want-more-than-praise

Shantz, A., Arevshatian, L., Alfes, K., & Bailey, C. (2016). The effect of HRM

  attributions on emotional exhaustion and the mediating roles of job involvement

  and work overload: Mediating roles of job involvement and work overload.

  Human Resource Management Journal, *26*(2), 172–191.

Shore, L. M., & Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. M. (2012). Perceived organizational cruelty: An

  expansion of the negative employee-organization relationship domain. In L. M.

  Shore, J. A. Coyle-Shapiro, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *The employee organization*

  relationship: Applications for the 21st century (pp. 139–157). New York:

  Routledge/Psychology Press.

Shoss, M. K., Eisenberger, R., Restubog, S. L. D., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2013). Blaming

  the organization for abusive supervision: The roles of perceived organizational

  support and supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied*

  Psychology, *98*(1), 158–168.

Simpson, R. L., & Simpson, I. H. (1960). Correlates and estimation of occupational

  prestige. *American Journal of Sociology*, *66*(2), 135–140.

Sims, R. R., & Brinkman, J. (2002). Leaders as moral role models: The case of John

  Gutfreund at Salomon Brothers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *35*, 327–339.

Sliter, M., Sliter, K., & Jex, S. (2012). The employee as a punching bag: The effect of

  multiple sources of incivility on employee withdrawal behavior and sales

  performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(1), 121–139.

Spector, P. E. (2019). Do not cross me: Optimizing the use of cross-sectional

  designs. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *34*(2), 125–137.

Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(4), 781–790.

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal?. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*(3), 446–460.

Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. (2007). An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 1069–1083.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(2), 178–190.

Truss, C. 1999. Soft and hard models of human resource management. In L. Gratton, V. Hope-Hailey, P. Stiles, & C. Truss (Eds.), *Strategic Human Resource Management: Corporate Rhetoric and Human Reality* (pp. 40–58). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Twenge, J. M., Baumeister, R. F., DeWall, C. N., Ciarocco, N. J., & Bartels, J. M. (2007). Social exclusion decreases prosocial behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*(1), 56–66.

Van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, *37*(4), 1228–1261.

Väyrynen, T., & Laari-Salmela, S. (2018). Men, mammals, or machines?

      Dehumanization embedded in organizational practices. *Journal of Business*

      Ethics, *147*(1), 95–113.

Wakabayashi, D. (2019, June 11). Google's Shadow Work Force: Temps Who

      Outnumber Full-Time Employees. *The New York Times*.

      https://www.nytimes.com/2019/05/28/technology/google-temp-workers.html

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and

      emotion. *Psychological Review*, *92*(4), 548–573.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational

      commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role

      behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *17*(3), 601–617.

Wolfe, D. M. (1988). Is there integrity in the bottom line: Managing obstacles to

      executive integrity. In S. Srivastva (Ed.), *Executive integrity: The search for high*

      human values in organizational life (pp. 140–171). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-

      Bass.

Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The relationship

      between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel*

      Psychology, *58*(2), 409–446.

Yan, Y., Zhou, E., Long, L., & Ji, Y. (2014). The influence of workplace ostracism on

      counterproductive work behavior: The mediating effect of state self-

      control. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *42*(6), 881–

      890.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ADDITIONAL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Table A.1. Response Frequencies for Organization Demographics

	Response	N
Organization Type	For-profit	318
	Nonprofit	83
Organization Size	Less than 10	23
	10 to 49	58
	50 to 99	45
	100 to 499	92
	500 to 999	52
	1000 or More	131
Organization Levels	Three or Fewer Levels	68
	Four Levels	99
	Five Levels	76
	Six Levels	56
	Seven Levels or More	102
Organization Centrality	CEO, President, or Managing Director	238
	Corporate Management	112
	Branch Management	36
	Input from Frontline Employees	10
Region	Midwest	101
	Northeast	82
	South	137
	West	80

Table A.2. Response Frequencies for Individual Demographics

	Response	*N*
Gender	Male	207
	Female	192
	Other	2
Age	18-24	20
	25-30	90
	31-40	152
	41-50	78
	51-60	49
	Over 60	12
Race	White	319
	Asian	27
	Black	24
	Hispanic, Latino	21
	Mixed	10
English is First Language	Yes	392
	No	9
Marital Status	Married	187
	Single	143
	Domestic Partnership	36
	Divorced	26
	Separated	5
	Widowed	4
Education	Highschool, GED	81
	2-Year College (Associates)	73
	4-Year College (BA/BS)	175
	Master's	64
	Doctoral/Professional (PhD/MD/JD)	8

Table A.3. Response Frequencies for Work-related Individual Demographics (Categorical Responses)

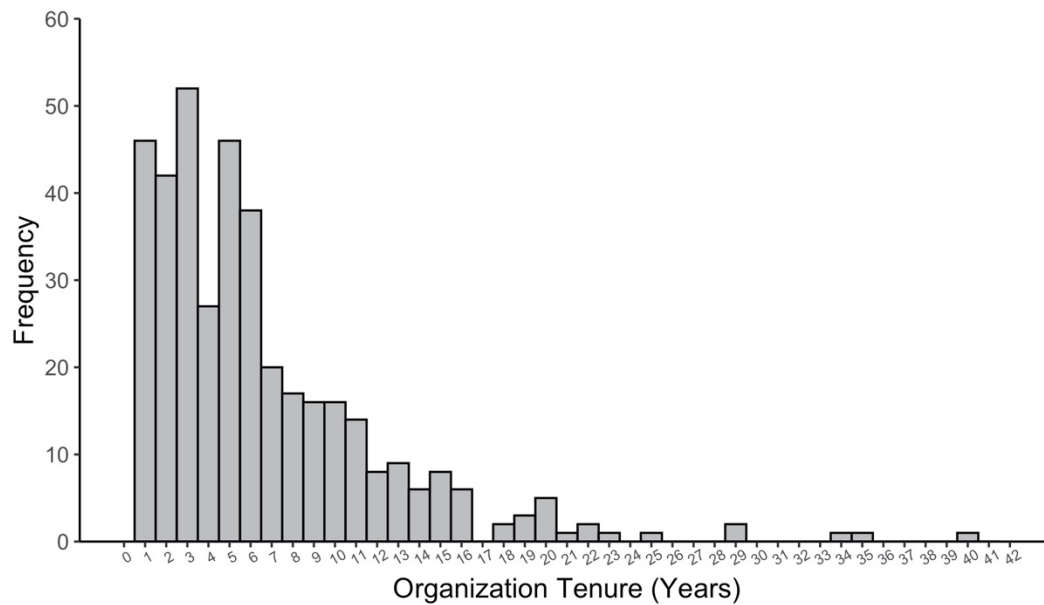|	Response	*N*
Employment Status	Full-Time	377
	Part-Time	24
Responsible for Direct Reports	Yes	172
	No	229
Salary	Less than $10,000	3
	$10,000 to $19,999	26
	$20,000 to $29,999	52
	$30,000 to $39,999	80
	$40,000 to $49,999	62
	$50,000 to $59,999	48
	$60,000 to $69,999	38
	$70,000 or More	92

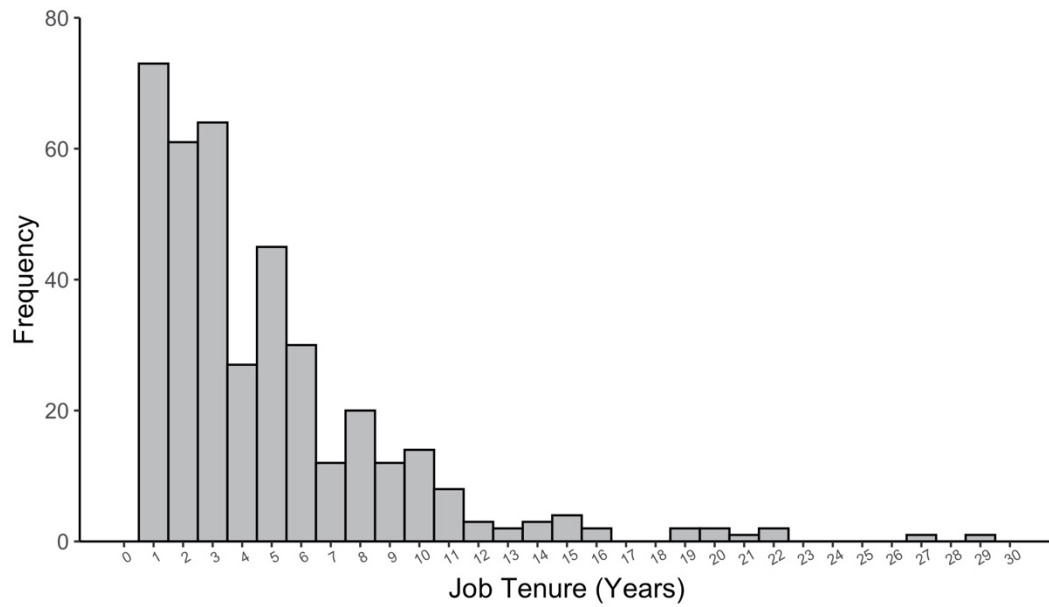Figure A.1. Histogram of Organization Tenure in Years.

Figure A.2. Histogram of Job Tenure in Years.
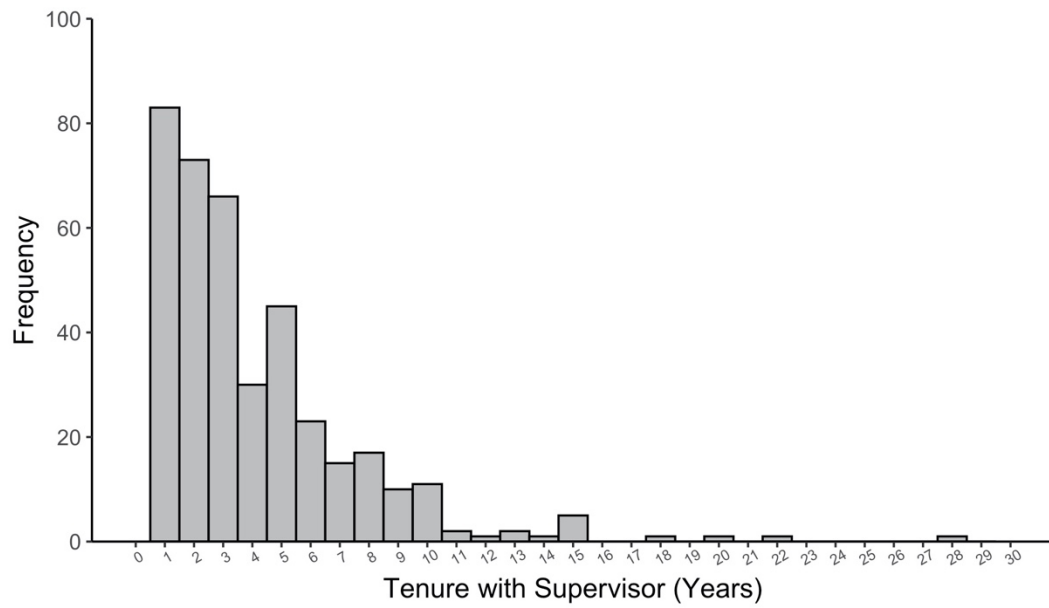
Figure A.3. Histogram of Tenure with Supervisor in Years.
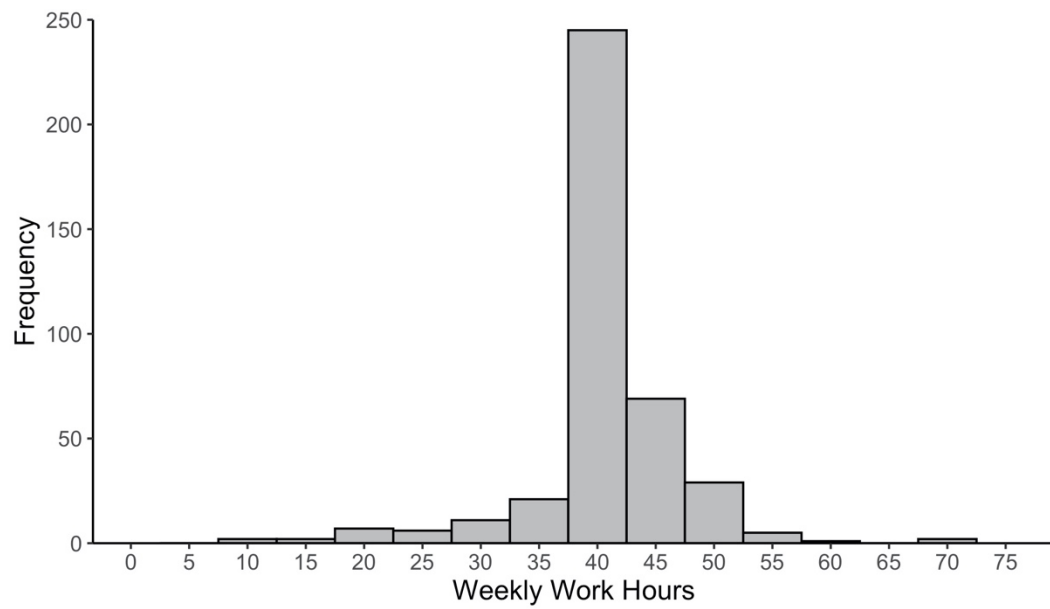
Figure A.4. Histogram of Weekly Work Hours.

SUPPLEMENTAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES RESULTS

Table B.1. Multiple Regression Results for Organizational Dehumanization Predicted by Employee-Centric HR Attributions with Covariates (Hypothesis 1 Supplement)

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	5.69	.31	18.20	< .001
Employee-Centric HR Attributions	−.41	.04	−9.67	< .001
Organization Type	.57	.16	3.67	< .001
Organization Levels	.19	.04	4.31	< .001
Education	−.02	.07	−.23	.81
Direct Reports	.02	.13	.16	.88
Salary	−.12	.04	−3.48	< .001
HR Practices	−.05	.03	−1.89	.06

$$R^2 = .37$$
$$F_{(7, 392)} = 32.6, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

Table B.2. Multiple Regression Results for Organizational Dehumanization Predicted by Organization-Centric HR Attributions with Covariates (Hypothesis 1 Supplement)

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	3.01	.29	10.31	< .001
Organization-Centric HR Attributions	.54	.03	15.84	< .001
Organization Type	.35	.14	2.54	< .05
Organization Levels	.13	.04	3.35	< .001
Education	−.08	.06	−1.34	.18
Direct Reports	−.07	.11	−.65	.51
Salary	−.06	.03	−2.02	< .05
HR Practices	−.13	.02	−6.33	< .001

$$R^2 = .52$$
$$F_{(7, 392)} = 61.4, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

Table B.3. Multiple Regression Results for Organizational Dehumanization Predicted by Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality with Covariates (Hypothesis 2 Supplement)

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	2.18	.28	7.50	$< .001$
Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	.54	.03	18.36	$< .001$
Organization Type	.28	.13	2.20	$< .05$
Organization Levels	.21	.04	5.92	$< .001$
Education	.04	.05	.68	.50
Direct Reports	−.15	.10	−1.44	.15
Salary	−.05	.03	−1.85	.07
HR Practices	−.09	.02	−4.73	$< .001$

$$R^2 = .58$$
$$F_{(7, 392)} = 77.2, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

Table B.4. Multiple Regression Results for Organization-Centric HR Attributions Predicted by Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality with Covariates (Hypothesis 3 Supplement)

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	.90	.37	2.41	$< .05$
Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	.53	.04	14.01	$< .001$
Organization Type	.27	.17	1.64	.102
Organization Levels	.20	.05	4.37	$< .001$
Education	.12	.07	1.77	.08
Direct Reports	−.02	.13	−.13	.90
Salary	−.05	.04	−1.28	.20
HR Practices	−.02	.03	−.89	.37

$$R^2 = .41$$
$$F_{(7, 392)} = 38.2, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

Table B.5. Multiple Regression Results for Employee-Centric HR Attributions Predicted by Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality with Covariates (Hypothesis 3 Supplement)

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	3.05	.41	7.43	< .001
Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	−.25	.04	−6.08	< .001
Organization Type	−.18	.18	−1.00	.32
Organization Levels	−.17	.05	−3.28	< .001
Education	.07	.08	.93	.35
Direct Reports	.12	.15	.83	.41
Salary	−.02	.04	−.60	.55
HR Practices	.31	.03	11.19	< .001

$$R^2 = .38$$
$$F_{(7, 392)} = 33.8, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

Table B.6. Multiple Regression Results for Organizational Dehumanization Predicted by Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality, Organization-Centric HR Attributions, and Employee-Centric HR Attributions with Covariates

	Coef.	SE	t	p
Intercept	2.56	.28	9.25	< .001
Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality	.35	.03	10.84	< .001
Organization-Centric HR Attributions	.27	.04	7.64	< .001
Employee-Centric HR Attributions	−.20	.03	−6.41	< .001
Organization Type	.17	.11	1.53	.13
Organization Levels	.12	.03	3.83	< .001
Education	.02	.05	.38	.70
Direct Reports	−.12	.09	−1.33	.19
Salary	−.05	.03	−1.80	.07
HR Practices	−.02	.02	−1.19	.23

$$R^2 = .68$$
$$F_{(9, 390)} = 90.8, p < .001$$

Note. HR = Human Resource

APPENDIX C

ADDITIONAL HR PRACTICE INFORMATION

Table C.1. Response Frequencies for Specific HR Practice Items.

	Item	Response	*N*
Selection	I took a formal test (e.g., job knowledge, personality) before being hired.	Yes	148
		No	253
	I had a job interview before being hired.	Yes	386
		No	15
	I was one among many job candidates considered before being hired.	Yes	279
		No	122
Training	I am provided opportunities for training and development.	Yes	337
		No	64
	I receive the training I need to do my job.	Yes	348
		No	53
	I receive training to develop my skills and knowledge.	Yes	330
		No	71
Performance Management	I receive a formal evaluation of my performance at least once a year.	Yes	319
		No	82
	Performance appraisals provide me with an assessment of my work-related strengths and weaknesses.	Yes	309
		No	92
	I receive feedback regarding my performance outside of formal performance appraisals.	Yes	325
		No	76
Compensation	The pay and rewards I receive are directly related to my performance at work.	Yes	240
		No	161
	Future pay raises are based on my job performance.	Yes	264
		No	137
	Future promotions are based on my job performance.	Yes	287
		No	114

Note. Response options were "Yes", "No", and "I Don't Know". No participants responded with "I Don't Know" and there were no missing responses.

Table C.2. Response Frequencies for HR Practice Categories

HR Practice Category	Summative Index of HR Practice Categories	N
Selection	0	8
	1	84
	2	198
	3	111
Training	0	29
	1	30
	2	41
	3	301
Performance Management	0	30
	1	51
	2	58
	3	262
Compensation	0	83
	1	51
	2	61
	3	206

Note. Response options were "Yes", "No", and "I Don't Know". No participants responded with "I Don't Know" and there were no missing responses. Summative index was calculated by summing all "Yes" responses to items for each HR practice category.

Table C.3. Response Frequencies for HR Practices Total

Total Summative Index of HR Practices	N
0	2
1	4
2	6
3	12
4	12
5	12
6	28
7	22
8	51
9	49
10	49
11	97
12	57

Note. Response options were "Yes", "No", and "I Don't Know". No participants responded with "I Don't Know" and there were no missing responses. Summative index was calculated by summing all "Yes" responses across all HR practices items.

APPENDIX D

EMPLOYEE MEASURES

HR Attributions Scale

(Hewett et al., 2019; R. Hewett, personal communication, August 21, 2019)

Instructions: In this section, we would like to know your opinion about why your organization has the human resource policies and practices it has. Please tell us the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below.

I think that my organization has human resource policies and practices in place:

1. … to squeeze the most work that they can out of me.
2. … to set performance standards that are too high.
3. … to force me to work harder.
4. … to help promote my job satisfaction.
5. … so that I feel valued and respected.
6. … to promote my well-being.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Organizational Dehumanization Scale

(Caesens, Stinglhamber, Demoulin, & De Wilde, 2017)

Instructions: Please indicate how strongly you agree to the following.

1. My organization makes me feel that one worker is easily as good as any other
2. My organization would not hesitate to replace me if it enabled the company to make more profit
3. If my job could be done by a machine or a robot, my organization would not hesitate to replace me by this new technology
4. My organization considers me as a tool to use for its own ends
5. My organization considers me as a tool devoted to its own success
6. My organization makes me feel that my only importance is my performance at work
7. My organization is only interested in me when it needs me
8. The only thing that counts for my organization is what I can contribute to it
9. My organization treats me as if I were a robot
10. My organization considers me as a number
11. My organization treats me as if I were an object

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Scale

(Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012)

Instructions: Please indicate how strongly you agree to the following.

1. My supervisor is solely concerned with meeting the bottom line
2. My supervisor only cares about the business
3. My supervisor treats the bottom line as more important than anything else
4. My supervisor cares more about profits than well-being

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Supervisor's Organizational Embodiment Scale

(Eisenberger et al., 2010)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. When my supervisor encourages me, I believe that my organization is encouraging me.
2. When my supervisor is pleased with my work, I feel that my organization is pleased.
3. When my supervisor compliments me, it is the same as my organization complimenting me.
4. When my supervisor pays attention to my efforts, I believe that my organization is paying attention to my efforts.
5. My supervisor is characteristic of my organization.
6. My supervisor and my organization have a lot in common.
7. When I am evaluated by my supervisor, it is the same as being evaluated by my organization.
8. My supervisor is representative of my organization.
9. My supervisor is typical of my organization.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Job Satisfaction Scale

(Bowling & Hammond, 2008)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Affective Commitment Scale

(Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 2001)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Turnover Intentions Scale

(Beintein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; adapted from Hom & Griffeth, 1991 and Jaros, 1997)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. I often think about quitting this organization.
2. I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory

(Demerouti et al., 2010)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.
2. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work. (R)
3. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way (R)
4. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better. (R)
5. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.
6. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically. (R)
7. I find my work to be a positive challenge.
8. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained. (R)
9. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work. (R)
10. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.
11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks. (R)
12. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary. (R)
13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.
14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.
15. I feel more and more engaged in my work.
16. When I work, I usually feel energized.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Task Performance

(Williams & Anderson, 1991)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding your work behaviors.

1. I adequately complete my assigned duties.
2. I fulfill the responsibilities specified in my job description.
3. I perform the tasks that are expected of me.
4. I meet the formal performance requirements of the job.
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

(Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010)

Instructions: How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

1. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
2. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
5. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
10. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

(Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010)

Instructions: How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies
2. Complained about insignificant things at work
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for
4. Came to work late without permission
5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't
6. Insulted someone about their job performance
7. Made fun of someone's personal life
8. Ignored someone at work
9. Started an argument with someone at work
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day

HR Practices Scale

(Items selected from Jensen et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Takeuchi et al., 2007)

Instructions: In this section, we would like to know about the human resource policies and practices you experience at your current job. Please indicate Yes, No, or I don't know for the following questions.

Selection
1. I took a formal test (e.g., job knowledge, personality) before being hired.
2. I had a job interview before being hired.
3. I was one among many job candidates considered before being hired.

Training
4. I am provided opportunities for training and development.
5. I receive the training I need to do my job.
6. I receive training to develop my skills and knowledge.

Performance management
7. I receive a formal evaluation of my performance at least once a year.
8. Performance appraisals provide me with an assessment of my work-related strengths and weaknesses.
9. I receive feedback regarding my performance outside of formal performance appraisals.

Compensation
10. The pay and rewards I receive are directly related to my performance at work.
11. Future pay raises are based on my job performance.
12. Future promotions are based on my job performance.

Scale: Yes, No, I don't know

HR Practices (Qualitative, Open-Ended)

Instructions: If you can provide more details, we would like to learn more about the human resource policies and practices you experience at your current job. Please describe your personal experiences with and opinions (e.g., what you have liked or disliked) about your organization's human resource policies and practices in the space below.

Organization Demographics

Instructions: To the best of your knowledge, please answer the following questions regarding the organization you currently work for.

1. Which of the following best describes your organization?
   a. For-profit
   b. Nonprofit
   c. Government

2. In total, how many workers does your organization employ?
   a. Less than 10
   b. 10 to 50
   c. 50 to 100
   d. 100 to 500
   e. 500 to 1000
   f. Over 1000

3. Approximately how many organizational levels are there in your organization (from frontline employees up to the CEO, president, or managing director)?
   a. Three or fewer levels
   b. Four levels
   c. Five levels
   d. Six levels
   e. Seven levels or more

4. Critical organizational decisions are typically determined by:
   a. The CEO, president, or managing director
   b. Corporate management
   c. Branch management
   d. Input from frontline employees
   e. Other (please explain)

5. In which region of the United States is your organization located?
   a. Northeast
   b. Midwest
   c. South
   d. West

6. Which of the following best describes the industry in which you work?
   a. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting
   b. Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
   c. Utilities
   d. Construction
   e. Manufacturing
   f. Wholesale Trade

g. Retail Trade
h. Transportation and Warehousing
i. Information
j. Finance and Insurance
k. Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
l. Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
m. Management of Companies and Enterprises
n. Administrative and Support and Waste Management and Remediation Services
o. Educational Services
p. Health Care and Social Assistance
q. Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
r. Accommodation and Food Services
s. Public Administration

Individual Demographics

Instructions: Please answer the following questions regarding your demographics and work.

1. What is your gender?
    a. Male
    b. Female

2. What is your age (in years)?
    a. 18 – 24
    b. 25 – 30
    c. 31 – 40
    d. 41 – 50
    e. 51 – 60
    f. Over 60

3. What is your race or ethnic background? Check all that apply.
    a. White/Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
    b. Black/African American
    c. Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American
    d. Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese
    e. Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian
    f. American Indian
    g. Alaskan Native
    h. Middle Eastern, including Northern African, Arabic, West Asian, and others
    i. Other: Please describe

4. Is English your first language?
    a. Yes
    b. No

5. What is your marital status?
    a. Single
    b. Married
    c. Separated
    d. Divorced
    e. Widowed
    f. Domestic Partnership

6. What state do you currently live in?

7. What is the highest level of education you have completed? Please select one.
    a. High school/GED
    b. 2-Year college degree (Associates)

c. 4-Year college degree (BA/BS)
d. Master's degree
e. Doctoral/Professional degree (PhD/MD/JD)

8. What is your employment status?
   a. Employed Full-Time
   b. Employed Part-Time
   c. Self-employed
   d. Unemployed

9. What is your current job title/position?

10. How long have you worked at your current organization (in years)?

11. How long have you held your current job title/position at your current organization (in years)?

12. How long have you worked for your current supervisor (in years)?

13. In your current position, are you responsible for supervising any direct reports?
    a. Yes
    b. No

14. On average, how many hours do you work per week?

15. Do you primarily work remotely?
    a. Yes
    b. No

16. What is your annual salary at your current organization?
    a. Less than $10,000 per year
    b. $10,000 to $20,000 per year
    c. $20,000 to $30,000 per year
    d. $30,000 to $40,000 per year
    e. $40,000 to $50,000 per year
    f. $50,000 to $60,000 per year
    g. $60,000 to $70,000 per year
    h. More than $70,000 per year

Insufficient Effort Responding Items

(Huang, Bowling, Liu, & Li, 2015)

1. I can run 2 miles in 2 min

2. I eat cement occasionally

3. I can teleport across time and space

4. I work fourteen months in a year

5. I work twenty-eight hours in a typical work day

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

APPENDIX E

SUPERVISOR MEASURES

HR Practices Scale

(Items selected from Jensen et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Takeuchi et al., 2007)

Instructions: In this section, we would like to know about the human resource policies and practices implemented by your organization. Please indicate Yes, No, or I don't know for the following questions.

Selection
1. Applicants take a formal test (e.g., job knowledge, personality) before being hired.
2. Applicants undergo an interview before being hired.
3. Many job candidates are considered before being hired.

Training
4. Employees are provided opportunities for training and development.
5. Employees receive the training they need to do their job.
6. Employees receive training to develop their skills and knowledge.

Performance management
7. Employees receive a formal evaluation of their performance at least once a year.
8. Performance appraisals provide employees with an assessment of my work-related strengths and weaknesses.
9. Employees receive feedback regarding their performance outside of formal performance appraisals.

Compensation
10. The pay and rewards that employees receive are directly related to their performance at work.
11. Employees receive pay raises based on their job performance.
12. Employees receive promotions based on their job performance.

Scale: Yes, No, I don't know

Supervisor Bottom-Line Mentality Scale

(Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012)

Instructions: Please indicate how strongly you agree to the following.

1. I am solely concerned with meeting the bottom line
2. I only care about the business
3. I treat the bottom line as more important than anything else
4. I care more about profits than well-being

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Task Performance

(Williams & Anderson, 1991)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding this employees' work behaviors.

1. This employee adequately completes his/her assigned duties.
2. This employee fulfills the responsibilities specified in his/her job description.
3. This employee performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. This employee meets the formal performance requirements of his/her job.
5. This employee engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

(Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010)

Instructions: How often has this employee done each of the following things on the job?

1. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
2. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
5. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
10. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

(Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010)

Instructions: How often has this employee done each of the following things on the job?

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies
2. Complained about insignificant things at work
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for
4. Came to work late without permission
5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't
6. Insulted someone about their job performance
7. Made fun of someone's personal life
8. Ignored someone at work
9. Started an argument with someone at work
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

Scale: 1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = every day

Individual Demographics

Instructions: Please answer the following questions regarding your demographics and work.

1. What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female

2. What is your age (in years)?
   a. 18 – 24
   b. 25 – 30
   c. 31 – 40
   d. 41 – 50
   e. 51 – 60
   f. Over 60

3. What is your race or ethnic background? Check all that apply.
   a. White/Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
   b. Black/African American
   c. Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American
   d. Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese
   e. Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian
   f. American Indian
   g. Alaskan Native
   h. Middle Eastern, including Northern African, Arabic, West Asian, and others
   i. Other: Please describe

4. Is English your first language?
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. What is your marital status?
   a. Single
   b. Married
   c. Separated
   d. Divorced
   e. Widowed
   f. Domestic Partnership

6. What state do you currently live in?

7. What is the highest level of education you have completed? Please select one.
   a. High school/GED
   b. 2-Year college degree (Associates)

c. 4-Year college degree (BA/BS)
d. Master's degree
e. Doctoral/Professional degree (PhD/MD/JD)

8. What is your employment status?
   a. Employed Full-Time
   b. Employed Part-Time
   c. Self-employed
   d. Unemployed

9. What is your current job title/position?

10. How long have you worked at your current organization (in years)?

11. How long have you held your current job title/position at your current organization (in years)?

12. How long (in years) have you worked with the direct report from whom you received the link to this survey?

13. On average, how many hours do you work per week?

14. What is your annual salary at your current organization?
   a. Less than $10,000 per year
   b. $10,000 to $20,000 per year
   c. $20,000 to $30,000 per year
   d. $30,000 to $40,000 per year
   e. $40,000 to $50,000 per year
   f. $50,000 to $60,000 per year
   g. $60,000 to $70,000 per year
   h. More than $70,000 per year

APPENDIX F

HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL

Office of Research Administration
Akron, OH 44325-2102

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

Date: 11/7/19

To: Steven Tseng
Department of Psychology

From: Katie Watkins   Assistant VP of ORA and IRB Administrator

IRB Number: 20191016

Title: Employee Experiences with and Thoughts about Human Resource Management

Approval Date: 11/7/19

Thank you for submitting your Request for Exemption to the IRB for review. Your protocol represents minimal risk to subjects and qualifies for exemption from the federal regulations under the category below:

☐ **Exemption 1** – Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, involving normal educational practices.

☑ **Exemption 2** – Research involving the use of educational tests, survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior.

☐ **Exemption 3** - Research involving the use of educational tests, survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior not exempt under category 2, but subjects are elected or appointed public officials or candidates for public office.

☐ **Exemption 4** – Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens.

☐ **Exemption 5** – Research and demonstration projects conducted by or subject to the approval of department or agency heads, and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine public programs or benefits.

☐ **Exemption 6** – Taste and food quality evaluation and consumer acceptance studies.

Annual continuation applications are not required for exempt projects. If you make changes to the study's design or procedures that increase the risk to subjects or include activities that do not fall within the approved exemption category, please contact the IRB to discuss whether or not a new application must be submitted. Any such changes or modifications must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to implementation.

Please retain this letter for your files. This office will hold your exemption application for a period of three years from the approval date. If you wish to continue this protocol beyond this period, you will need to submit another Exemption Request. If the research is being conducted for a master's thesis or doctoral dissertation, the student must file a copy of this letter with the thesis or dissertation.

☑ Approved consent form/s enclosed

The University of Akron is an Equal Education and Employment Institution

170