

WORKING LIKE A MACHINE OR A BEAST: EXPLORING MECHANISTIC AND ANIMALISTIC DEHUMANIZATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

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This research explores for the first time whether the two forms of organizational dehumanization (i.e., mechanistic and animalistic) are empirically distinct as well as their relationships with employees' well-being (i.e., decreased job satisfaction), attitudes (i.e., increased turnover intentions), and behaviors (i.e., decreased in-role performance). Three cross-sectional field studies involving employees from various occupational domains were conducted. Results of structural equation modeling showed that mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization are empirically distinct constructs that are differently related to outcomes. Specifically, when considering the two forms of organizational dehumanization, (1) both animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization are negatively related to job satisfaction, (2) only mechanistic organizational dehumanization is positively related to turnover intentions, and (3) only animalistic organizational dehumanization is negatively related to in-role performance. Theoretical contributions to the organizational dehumanization literature as well as promising future research avenues are discussed.

Keywords: animalistic organizational dehumanization, mechanistic organizational dehumanization, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, in-role performance

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Between capitalistic injunctions to produce more and more (Bell & Khoury, 2011), indecent work conditions (Christ et al., 2020) and the rise of artificial intelligence in the workplace (Fritts & Cabrera, 2021), workers of our days are likely to feel that their humanity is being disregarded by their employing organization (Caesens et al., 2017). Given their relevance

in today's professional world, these perceptions, operationalized by the construct of organizational dehumanization (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017), have sparked scholars' interest. They were found to bring highly detrimental consequences for both employees (e.g., increased emotional exhaustion; Caesens et al., 2017) and organizations (e.g., increased absenteeism; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022). Rooted in social psychology, research on organizational dehumanization has heavily drawn on Haslam's (2006) dual model that distinguishes between mechanistic (i.e., being reduced to the status of objects or machines) and animalistic (i.e., being reduced to the status of under-evolved beings such as animals or children) dehumanization. So far, scholars have focused on mechanistic organizational dehumanization (i.e., employees' perceptions to be treated as tools or machines by their organization), leaving its animalistic dimension (i.e., employees' perceptions to be treated as under-evolved beings such as animals or children by their organization) underexplored. To the best of our knowledge, employees' perceptions of animalistic organizational dehumanization have never been operationalized.

Although the mechanistic form of organizational dehumanization has so far been considered more relevant because of its greater prevalence in organizations, animalistic organizational dehumanization also holds significance in the workplace and may thus also occur in organizational settings (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Christoff, 2014). Considering this, it is worth examining the animalistic form of organizational dehumanization as well as if it differs from mechanistic organizational dehumanization. Accordingly, this research pursues three main objectives across three studies, thereby contributing to the extant literature in multiple ways. First, it examines for the first time through quantitative research the animalistic form of dehumanization in organizations as well as its distinctiveness with mechanistic organizational dehumanization at the empirical level. In doing so, this research helps build a holistic and comprehensive view of the organizational dehumanization construct (Brison et al., 2022). Second, the present research aims at exploring whether animalistic organizational dehumanization relates to employee's well-

being (i.e., decreased job satisfaction), attitudes (i.e., increased turnover intentions), and behaviors (i.e., decreased in-role performance), above and beyond mechanistic organizational dehumanization. In doing so, this research may show that animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization have specific consequences (Demoulin et al., 2021; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2021), which is a first step toward identifying the potential nomological network of each form of organizational dehumanization. Third, by highlighting which of the two forms of organizational dehumanization is primarily related to employees' decreased job satisfaction, increased turnover intentions and decreased in-role performance, this research provides practitioners with precise levers to rely on according to the objectives they pursue.

Organizational Dehumanization

Over the past decade, there has been a growing research interest in the concept of organizational dehumanization, which refers to employees' perceptions that they are being denied their humanness by their organization (Caesens et al., 2017). Grounded in social psychology, the construct of organizational dehumanization is derived from Haslam's (2006) dual model of dehumanization. This model holds that humanness can be understood in two ways, resulting in two distinct forms of dehumanization. On the one hand, humanness can be the product of a comparison of humans with other animals, which results in the identification of the characteristics that differentiate human from animals, that is human uniqueness (i.e., civility, refinement, morality, rationality, maturity). When denied human uniqueness, individuals are likely to feel closer to the status of animals, fostering animalistic dehumanization. On the other hand, humanness can be the result of a non-comparative process that aims to identify the characteristics that are typical of or fundamental to humans, that is human nature (i.e., emotionality, interpersonal warmth, cognitive openness, agency, depth). When denied human nature, individuals are likely to feel treated like tools or machines, promoting mechanistic dehumanization.

The construct of dehumanization was first studied in the context of various societal concerns such as ethnicity and genocide (e.g., Kelman, 1973), disability (e.g., O'Brien, 1999) or medical relationships (e.g., Vaes & Muratore, 2013), to name a few. Later on, scholars pointed out that dehumanization is an ongoing issue in the organizational world (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011; Christoff, 2014), thereby shifting scholars' focus to the construct of organizational dehumanization (e.g., Caesens et al., 2017). Referring to employees' perceptions that they are being denied humanness by their organization (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017), organizational dehumanization has been conceptualized from the victims' (i.e., employees) perspective. So far, empirical studies have primarily focused on the mechanistic dimension of organizational dehumanization, defined as "the experience of an employee who feels objectified by his or her organization, denied personal subjectivity, and made to feel like a tool or instrument for the organization's ends" (Bell & Khoury, 2011, p. 170), and most often operationalized with the scale developed by Caesens et al. (2017). Part of the reason for this is that the mechanistic dimension of dehumanization is more likely to occur in organizations (Christoff, 2014). Indeed, since "the commodification of one's actions and behavior is the central subject of the [...] contract that [...] characterizes employment" (Bell & Khoury, 2011, p. 180), employees' perceptions to be used as tools for the organization's ends are likely to be common (Bell & Khoury, 2011).

Mechanistic Organizational Dehumanization

Because of the harmful nature of organizational dehumanization and the high prevalence of its mechanistic form in organizations (Christoff, 2014), a handful of studies sought to identify the predictors of mechanistic organizational dehumanization that fall into six categories (Brison et al., 2022). First, societal factors such as ideologies (e.g., capitalism; Bell & Khoury, 2011) and national culture (Nguyen et al., 2021) affect mechanistic organization dehumanization. For instance, the recent study from Nguyen et al. (2021) indicated that Vietnamese workers experienced less mechanistic organization dehumanization than British workers. Second,

organizational factors were also found to influence these perceptions. Specifically, perceived organizational support (Caesens et al., 2017) and procedural organizational justice (Bell & Khoury, 2016) negatively predict mechanistic organizational dehumanization, while red tape (Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022) positively predicts it. Third, environmental factors including the type of desks (Taskin et al., 2019) and the quality of the physical environment (Stinglhamber et al., 2022) also affected mechanistic organizational dehumanization. More precisely, collective and shared workspaces (i.e., flex-desks; Taskin et al., 2019) and poor environmental quality (e.g., bad air quality or inadequate level of noise; Stinglhamber et al., 2022) held positive and negative relationships with employees' mechanistic organizational dehumanization perceptions, respectively. Fourth, job characteristics such as job autonomy (Caesens et al., 2019; Demoulin et al., 2020) and meaningfulness of work (Caesens et al., 2019) negatively predict mechanistic organizational dehumanization. Fifth, interpersonal factors play a significant role in the development of these perceptions, of which abusive supervision that was found to increase subordinates' mechanistic organizational dehumanization (Caesens et al., 2019). Lastly, individual factors were also pointed out as relevant (Brison et al., 2022). For instance, employees' negative affectivity positively relates to mechanistic organizational dehumanization (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2021).

Alongside the identification of the predictors of mechanistic organizational dehumanization, scholarly attention was also devoted to its unwished-for consequences in terms of employees' well-being, attitudes toward the organization and the work itself, as well as behaviors (e.g., Caesens et al., 2017, 2019; Stinglhamber et al., 2021; Taskin et al., 2019). For instance, mechanistic organizational dehumanization was found to be associated with increased emotional exhaustion (e.g., Stinglhamber et al., 2021), decreased job satisfaction (e.g., Caesens et al., 2017), decreased affective commitment (e.g., Caesens et al., 2019), increased turnover intentions (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2016), and decreased promotive voice behaviors (e.g., Stinglhamber et al., 2021). Scholars proposed that organizational dehumanization is a harmful

experience that threatens employees' basic needs (Christoff, 2014) and that encourages them to reciprocate this negative organizational treatment by adopting negative attitudes and behaviors directed to the organization (Ahmed & Khan, 2016; Stinglhamber et al., 2021). Additionally, employees are likely to dissociate themselves from the organization in order to take distance from this belittling entity, resulting in negative work attitudes and behaviors (Bell & Khoury, 2011). Corroborating some of these claims, empirical studies revealed that the effects of mechanistic organizational dehumanization on its deleterious consequences may indeed be explained by the thwarting of employees' basic needs (i.e., autonomy, relatedness, competence; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022) and the fostering of thoughts of revenge (Stinglhamber et al., 2023).

Animalistic Organizational Dehumanization

Although prior studies on organizational dehumanization have primarily focused on its mechanistic form, scholars highlighted that contemporary workplaces are not void of animalistic dehumanization (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011). First, from a theoretical point of view, since animalistic dehumanization encompasses the idea of inferiority according to which animals are inferior to humans (Haslam, 2006), it seems relevant to introduce this idea in organizations where the vertical hierarchy is likely to induce such inferiority (Bell & Khoury, 2011). Second, adopting the perspective of either an external observer or the victims (i.e., employees), some studies have already pointed out the relevance of animalistic dehumanization in an organizational context.

In a recent study, Agadullina and collaborators (2022) indeed found that low-status employees were more animalistically dehumanized by observers, as compared to high-status employees. This research further indicated that the higher the perceived status of target employees, the lower the animalistic dehumanization of their stigmatized occupation (i.e., dirty-job) by observers (Agadullina et al., 2022). They also highlighted that male and female employees were equally likely to be animalistically dehumanized (Agadullina et al., 2022). Lastly, Valtorta et al. (2019) provided evidence that employees whose work is perceived as immoral will be more likely to be the target of animalistic dehumanization in laypeople's eyes. In

addition, qualitative findings revealed that managers from the cleaning industry describe employees working in their firm as inferior and under-evolved beings (Nisim & Benjamin, 2010). More precisely, they “inferiorized employees’ rationality” (Nisim & Benjamin, 2010, p. 225), especially when workers expressed a desire to find improved employment conditions in the future (Nisim & Benjamin, 2010). On top of this, it came out from the interviews led by Nisim and Benjamin (2010) that the morality of cleaning workers was often doubted by their managers, as they refer to the “workers’ inferior moral code” (p. 226) including laziness and looking for easy money.

In addition, scholars have differentiated animalistic dehumanization from mechanistic dehumanization to explore the potential positive effects of organizational dehumanization on third-party employee evaluations (Fowler & Utych, 2021; Utych & Fowler, 2021, 2022). Specifically, compared to using neutral language (e.g., “great employee”) to describe a target employee, using animalistic dehumanizing language (e.g., “workhorse”) did not influence observers’ evaluations of this employee, except on the “naturally gifted” trait where the target employee was evaluated more positively than in the neutral language condition (Fowler & Utych, 2021). Conversely, compared to neutral language, mechanistic dehumanizing language (e.g., “machine”) positively influenced observers’ evaluations of the target employee (Fowler & Utych, 2021). Moreover, another study from the same authors (Utych & Fowler, 2021) revealed that the positive relationship between a target employee’s perceived Human Uniqueness, compared to Human Nature, and observers’ evaluation of the target employee’s competence was stronger. However, target employees’ perceived Human Uniqueness and Human Nature were positively associated with observers’ evaluations of the target employees’ positive personal traits such as “hard-working” (Utych & Fowler, 2021). Further, these effects did not depend on target employees’ gender (Utych & Fowler, 2022).

Finally, turning to the victims’ perspective, a qualitative study has considered employees’ perceptions to be treated like animals by their employer (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). On

the one hand, it appears from this qualitative study that some organizational practices are likely to affect employees' animalistic organizational dehumanization perceptions (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). For instance, unkept organizational promises, insufficient voice in decision making or conveying unreliable information to employees on the grounds that they are unable to handle negative news tend to elicit animalistic organizational dehumanization (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). Similarly, although procedural justice was found to negatively predict mechanistic organizational dehumanization (Bell & Khoury, 2016), the authors found that employees' perceptions that they are treated in an unequal manner seem to primarily promote animalistic organizational dehumanization (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). In the same vein, lay-offs aimed at improving the organization's profits are argued to be key predictors of animalistic organizational dehumanization (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). On the other hand, despite empirical evidence that interpersonal mistreatment is an antecedent of mechanistic organizational dehumanization (e.g., Caesens et al., 2019), the qualitative study from Väyrynen and Laari-Salmela (2018) indicated that being treated in a degrading way by others might primarily foster animalistic organizational dehumanization. Namely, animalistic organizational dehumanization is likely to emerge when employees are made to feel like "lesser beings" deprived of maturity through patronizing and child-like treatment (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018).

The Present Research

Drawing on this prior research showing the relevance of considering animalistic dehumanization in the work context, we propose to distinguish between mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization. Consistent with Bell and Khoury's (2011) definition of mechanistic organizational dehumanization, we adopt the victims' (i.e., employees) perspective and suggest that employees may also feel animalistically dehumanized by their organization. Building on Haslam's (2006) seminal work on dehumanization, we propose to define animalistic organizational dehumanization as the experience of an employee who feels

lessened by his or her organization, denied maturity and sophistication, and made to feel like an under-evolved being such as an animal or a child. Based on the above, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Animalistic organizational dehumanization is empirically distinct from mechanistic organizational dehumanization.

As stated by scholars, experiencing animalistic dehumanization “is expected to be associated with the sense that one is debased, contaminated, and disgusting” (Bastian & Haslam, 2011, p. 297). Hence, animalistic dehumanization fosters aversive self-awareness among targets (i.e., representing the self as undesirable and unworthy; Bastian & Haslam, 2011), making animalistic organizational dehumanization likely to be detrimental to employees’ well-being. Similarly, animalistic organizational dehumanization is argued to thwart employees’ basic psychological needs, resulting in detrimental consequences for both employees and organizations (Christoff, 2014). Interestingly, scholars further stated that the attitudinal and behavioral consequences following animalistic dehumanization could be similar to those fostered by mechanistic dehumanization (Demoulin et al., 2021). Indeed, both mechanistic and animalistic dehumanization are argued to promote negative attitudes and behaviors, notably in organizational settings where dehumanized employees are likely to retaliate against the perpetrator (e.g., the organization; Demoulin et al., 2021). Drawing on these insights, employees who experience animalistic organizational dehumanization may develop negative organizational attitudes (e.g., increased turnover intentions) and may engage in behaviors intended to harm the organization (e.g., decreased in-role performance). Yet, since the construct of animalistic organizational dehumanization has never been operationalized, these assumptions have never been quantitatively tested across a wide range of employees and occupational domains. Based on the above, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2: When mechanistic organizational dehumanization is controlled for, animalistic organizational dehumanization is negatively related to job satisfaction (H2a),

positively related to turnover intentions (H2b), and negatively related to in-role performance (H2c).

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDIES

Hypotheses were tested across three cross-sectional studies which all received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the authors' institution¹. In Study 1, we examined whether the animalistic and mechanistic forms of organizational dehumanization are empirically distinguishable from one another (H1). In Study 2, we assessed for the second time the distinctiveness of animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization (H1) and also explored how animalistic organizational dehumanization influences employees' job satisfaction (H2a) and turnover intentions (H2b) when controlling for mechanistic organizational dehumanization. Lastly, in Study 3, we replicated the findings of Studies 1 and 2 (H1, H2a, and H2b) and extended them by examining the effect of animalistic organizational dehumanization on employees' job performance (H2c) when mechanistic organizational dehumanization is controlled for. To ensure that the sample sizes of our three studies were large enough to yield accurate estimates, we followed scholars' recommendations who suggested to have at least five cases per estimated parameter (Bentler, 1995; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) and at least 200 cases in total (Kline, 2015).

STUDY 1

Method

Participants and Procedure

For this first study, we relied on a convenience sample composed of employees coming from a variety of organizations and sectors in Belgium. Specifically, participants were recruited through social networks (e.g., LinkedIn) and were invited to complete an online questionnaire. Before beginning the survey, participants were guaranteed that the data collected would be anonymous and strictly confidential. In total, 308 employees fully completed the

survey. Of these participants, 77.6% were women and the mean age was 43.87 years ($SD=10.53$). A large proportion of participants had a bachelor's degree (45.5%) and mainly worked in science and pharmaceuticals (21.9%), public administration (16.9%), and IT and information services (12.6%). Lastly, participants had been working in their organizational for 12.46 years ($SD=10.82$), with a permanent (92.9%) and full-time (62.3%) work contract.

Measures

All items were assessed on 7-point Likert agreement scales.

Mechanistic organizational dehumanization (Cronbach's $\alpha=.90$, McDonald's $\omega=.90$) was measured with the 5-item short scale of mechanistic organizational dehumanization that Lagios and Caesens (2022) developed and validated based on Caesens et al.'s (2017) 11-item scale (e.g., "My organization considers me as a number").

Animalistic organizational dehumanization (Cronbach's $\alpha=.90$, McDonald's $\omega=.90$) was assessed with five items that were slightly adapted from existing scales of animalistic dehumanization (Bastian & Haslam, 2011; Demoulin et al., 2021). Specifically, the items were reworded so that the perpetrator of dehumanization would be employees' organization. The items were the following: "My organization treats me like a child" (Item 1), "My organization treats me as if I was under-evolved" (Item 2), "My organization considers me as immature" (Item 3), "My organization sees me as lacking intelligence and competence" (Item 4), and "My organization sees me as primitive" (Item 5).

Results

Measurement Model

Table 1 displays the relationships between the sociodemographic variables and animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization. As it can be seen, employees' education level was negatively correlated with their perceptions of both animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization. Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were then performed on *Mplus* 8.8 (MLR estimator) to examine whether the two forms of organizational

dehumanization were empirically distinct. Specifically, we compared our hypothesized two factor-model, $\chi^2(34)=125.83$; RMSEA=.09; SRMR=.06; CFI=.93; TLI=.91 to an alternative one-factor model, $\chi^2(35)=264.05$; RMSEA=.15; SRMR=.08; CFI=.83; TLI=.78. Results showed that the two-factor model was superior to the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=138.22$, $SBC=46.81$, $p<.001$), thus supporting H1. The standardized factor loadings of the items of mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization are depicted in Table 2.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables for Study 1

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	-	-	-							
2. Age (years)	43.87	10.53	-.04	-						
3. Education level	-	-	-.17**	.05	-					
4. Organizational tenure (years)	12.46	10.82	.03	.61***	-.20***	-				
5. Employment contract	-	-	.00	.25***	.01	.18**	-			
6. Working time	-	-	.37***	-.13*	.21***	-.13*	.01	-		
7. Mechanistic organizational dehumanization	3.47	1.44	.04	-.08	-.18**	-.01	.00	-.09	-	
8. Animalistic organizational dehumanization	2.21	1.09	.02	-.02	-.19**	.03	-.03	-.03	.68***	-

Note. $N = 308$ (excepted for Education level $N = 301$). Gender was coded 0 for *male* and 1 for *female*. Education level was coded 1 for *did not complete high school*, 2 for *high school*, 3 for *some college*, 4 for *bachelor's degree*, 5 for *master's degree*, and 6 for *Ph.D.* Employment contract was coded 0 for *temporary job contract* and 1 for *permanent job contract*. Working time was coded 0 for *part-time* and 1 for *full-time*.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 2
Standardized Factor Loadings of the Items of Mechanistic and Animalistic Organizational Dehumanization

Items	Standardized factor loadings (CFA)		
	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Mechanistic organizational dehumanization			
Item 1	.80	.86	.81
Item 2	.80	.86	.83
Item 3	.75	.77	.83
Item 4	.84	.85	.86
Item 5	.80	.84	.82
Animalistic organizational dehumanization			
Item 1	.84	.87	.75
Item 2	.84	.76	.90
Item 3	.79	.74	.82
Item 4	.83	.82	.89
Item 5	.76	.73	.85

Note. $N = 308$. $N = 255$. $N = 277$. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis. All items significantly load on their respective factor.

STUDY 2

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants of Study 2 were recruited on Prolific Academic, i.e., a crowdsourcing platform dedicated to academic purposes. Specifically, we recruited 286 participants who were invited to complete an online questionnaire. To take part in the research, participants had to (1) be English-native speakers, (2) have an approval rate of at least 90% in previous surveys completed on the platform, (3) not be self-employed, and (4) work part-time or full-time. Before starting the questionnaire, participants were informed that their responses would be anonymous and kept confidential. After removing participants ($N=31$) who failed to correctly answer to at least one of the three attentional check questions included in the survey (Aguinis et al., 2021; DeSimone et al., 2015), the final sample size was of 255 participants. The sample was predominantly composed of women (72.2%). The mean age was 35.11 years old ($SD=9.5$) and most participants held a bachelor's degree (39.6%). Moreover, 21.5% of the sample was employed in medium-sized organizations (employing between 50 and 249 employees), and the three most represented sectors were retail and sales (14.9%), teaching and education (14.9%), and health and social care (12.9%). Lastly, participants had been working in their organization for an average of 5.8 years ($SD=5.34$) and most of them held a permanent (92.2%), full-time (65.1%) work contract.

Measures

All items were assessed on 7-point Likert agreement scales. Mechanistic (Cronbach's $\alpha=.92$, McDonald's $\omega=.92$) and animalistic (Cronbach's $\alpha=.89$, McDonald's $\omega=.89$) organizational dehumanization were measured with the same scales as the ones used in Study 1.

Job satisfaction (Cronbach's $\alpha=.90$, McDonald's $\omega=.90$) was measured using Eisenberger et al.'s (1997) four-item scale (e.g., "All in all, I'm very satisfied with my current job").

Turnover intentions (Cronbach's $\alpha=.91$, McDonald's $\omega=.91$) were assessed with the three items developed by Jaros (1997; e.g., "I intend to leave my organization in a near future").

Control variables. To treat our sociodemographic control variables, we relied on Becker et al.'s (2016) recommendations. We accordingly examined the relationships between our sociodemographic control variables and the dependent variables included in the model, and contrasted the results. As none of the sociodemographic control variables correlated with the dependent variables (Table 3), we report below the results without the sociodemographic control variables for parsimony purposes (Becker et al., 2016). Interestingly, Table 3 also indicates that organizational size was positively correlated with both animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization.

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables for Study 2

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	-	-	-										
2. Age (years)	35.11	9.51	.13*	-									
3. Education level	-	-	.06	-.08	-								
4. Organizational tenure (years)	5.80	5.34	.03	.46***	-.12*	-							
5. Organizational size	-	-	-.01	.00	-.05	.17**	-						
6. Employment contract	-	-	-.02	-.02	-.16**	.13*	.09	-					
7. Working time	-	-	-.27***	-.15*	.12	-.04	.09	.09	-				
8. Mechanistic organizational dehumanization	3.81	1.65	-.06	-.08	-.09	-.05	.27***	.09	-.02	-			
9. Animalistic organizational dehumanization	2.44	1.29	-.10	-.04	-.12	.00	.17**	.04	.05	.72***	-		
10. Job satisfaction	4.75	1.57	.02	.01	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.05	-.02	-.60***	-.57***	-	
11. Turnover intentions	3.94	1.89	-.04	-.06	.02	-.03	.02	-.01	-.03	.56***	.46***	-.69***	-

Note. *N* = 255 (excepted for Age *N* = 254 and Education level *N* = 251). Gender was coded 0 for *male* and 1 for *female*. Education level was coded 1 for *did not complete high school*, 2 for *high school*, 3 for *some college*, 4 for *bachelor's degree*, 5 for *master's degree*, and 6 for *Ph.D.* Organizational size was coded 1 for *1-9 employees*, 2 for *10-49 employees*, 3 for *50-249 employees*, 4 for *250-499 employees*, 5 for *500-999 employees*, 6 for *1000-1999 employees*, 7 for *2000-4999 employees*, 8 for *5000-9999 employees*, and 9 for *more than 10000 employees*. Employment contract was coded 0 for *temporary job contract* and 1 for *permanent job contract*. Working time was coded 0 for *part-time* and 1 for *full-time*.

p* < .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001.

Results

Measurement Model

As for Study 2, we performed CFAs on *Mplus* 8.8 (MLR estimator) to demonstrate the distinctiveness of the four constructs included in our model (i.e., mechanistic organizational dehumanization, animalistic organizational dehumanization, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions). As indicated in Table 4, the four-factor model fitted the data well, $\chi^2(113)=205.09$; RMSEA=.06; SRMR=.05; CFI=.96; TLI=.96 and was superior to all more constrained models, including a three-factor model in which mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization were combined into one factor. These results are in line with H1. Furthermore, all items loaded significantly on their respective factors, with standardized loadings ranging from .77 to .86 for mechanistic organizational dehumanization, from .73 to .87 for animalistic organizational dehumanization, from .77 to .90 for job satisfaction, and from .82 to .92 for turnover intentions.

TABLE 4
Fit Indices for Measurement Models for Study 2

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	SCF	$\Delta\chi^2_{SB} (\Delta df)$
1. Four-factor model	205.09	113	.06	.05	.96	.96	1.210	-
2. Three-factor model (MOD and AOD = 1 factor)	349.31	116	.09	.06	.91	.89	1.235	84.86(3)***
3. Three-factor model (MOD and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	487.80	116	.12	.08	.85	.82	1.246	138.78(3)***
4. Three-factor model (MOD and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	513.66	116	.12	.08	.84	.81	1.258	129.82(3)***
5. Three-factor model (AOD and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	505.44	116	.12	.08	.84	.81	1.224	210.25(3)***
6. Three-factor model (AOD and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	570.53	116	.12	.09	.81	.78	1.222	263.64(3)***
7. Three-factor model (job satisfaction and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	352.347	116	.09	.05	.90	.89	1.241	78.51(3)***
8. Two-factor model (MOD, AOD, and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	622.46	118	.13	.09	.79	.76	1.275	198.65(5)***
9. Two-factor model (MOD, AOD, and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	648.72	118	.13	.09	.78	.75	1.292	187.95(5)***
10. Two-factor model (MOD, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	687.19	118	.14	.09	.77	.73	1.267	244.83(5)***
11. Two-factor model (AOD, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	673.96	118	.14	.10	.77	.74	1.271	229.47(5)***
12. One-factor model	827.88	119	.15	.10	.71	.67	1.318	251.37(6)***

Note. *N* = 255. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SCF = scaling correction factor; $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}$ = strictly positive Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test; MOD = mechanistic organizational dehumanization. AOD = animalistic organizational dehumanization. The final model is indicated in bold.

****p* < .001.

Structural Model

In line with our hypotheses, we tested a structural equation model in which both mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization were related to job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This model displayed a good fit with the data, $\chi^2(113)=205.09$; RMSEA=.06; SRMR=.05; CFI=.96; TLI=.96. As depicted in Figure 1, animalistic organizational dehumanization was negatively related to job satisfaction and non-significantly related to turnover intentions when mechanistic organizational dehumanization was controlled for, thereby providing support for H2a but not for H2b. With regard to mechanistic organizational dehumanization, results indicated that it was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to turnover intentions when controlling for animalistic organizational dehumanization.

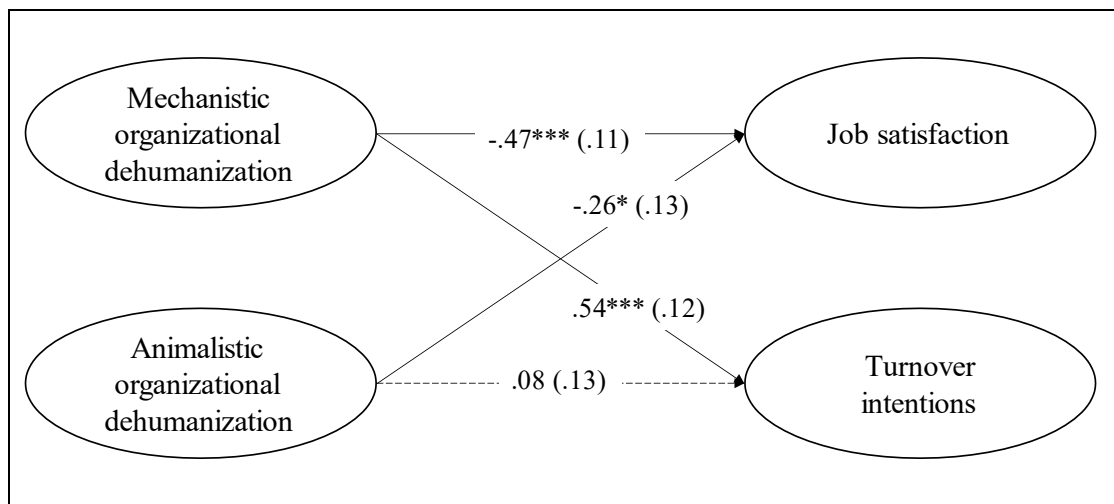


FIGURE 1
Standardized Coefficients for the Structural Equation Model of Study 2

Note. $N = 255$. Dotted arrows represent non-significant paths. Standard errors are indicated in brackets.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

STUDY 3

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants in this third study were recruited with the same strategy as the one used in Study 1 (i.e., recruitment of a convenience sample composed of employees coming from a

variety of organizations and sectors in Belgium). Here again, participants were guaranteed that their responses would be anonymous and confidential. In total, 271 employees fully completed the online questionnaire. Of these participants, 78.6% were women, while the mean age was 44 years old ($SD=12.60$). Most participants held a master's degree (43.5%), were working in organizations employing between 50 and 199 employees (27.3%), and mainly in teaching and education (17%), public administration (14.8%) and health and social care (11.1%). Finally, the mean organizational tenure was 12.05 years ($SD=10.82$), and most employees held a permanent employment contract (77.5%) and worked part-time (91.1%).

Measures

All items were assessed on 7-point Likert agreement scales. Mechanistic (Cronbach's $\alpha=.92$, McDonald's $\omega=.92$) and animalistic (Cronbach's $\alpha=.92$, McDonald's $\omega=.92$) organizational dehumanization, job satisfaction (Cronbach's $\alpha=.91$, McDonald's $\omega=.92$), and turnover intentions (Cronbach's $\alpha=.90$, McDonald's $\omega=.90$) were measured with the same scales as the ones used in Study 2.

In-role performance (Cronbach's $\alpha=.69$, McDonald's $\omega=.70$) was measured with five items from Williams and Anderson (1995; e.g., "I adequately complete assigned duties), using a 7-point Likert agreement scale.

Control variables. Similar to Study 2, we treated our sociodemographic control variables by following Becker et al.'s (2016) recommendations (Table 5). As the inclusion of the sociodemographic control variables correlating with the outcomes did not change the interpretation of the findings, the results presented below are free from any controls for parsimony reasons (Becker et al., 2016). With regard to the two forms of organizational dehumanization, organizational size was positively correlated with both animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization, while educational level was only negatively correlated with animalistic organizational dehumanization.

TABLE 5
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables for Study 3

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender	-	-	-											
2. Age (years)	44.02	12.60	.22	-										
3. Education level	-	-	-.11	.00	-									
4. Organizational tenure (years)	12.05	10.82	.16**	.62***	-.10*	-								
5. Organizational size	-	-	-.17**	.12	.03	.05	-							
6. Employment contract	-	-	.05	.20***	-.03	.21***	.03	-						
7. Working time	-	-	.08	-.04	.00	-.05	-.11	-.11	-					
8. Mechanistic organizational dehumanization	3.71	1.80	.00	.06	-.08	.02	.22***	.09	-.08	-				
9. Animalistic organizational dehumanization	2.53	1.57	.06	.08	-.15**	.10	.15**	.09	-.03	.72***	-			
10. Job satisfaction	4.97	1.66	-.08	-.01	.14**	.00	-.16**	-.05	.02	-.62***	-.63***	-		
11. Turnover intentions	3.48	1.97	.06	-.14**	-.01	-.17**	.04	.06	.05	.46***	.36***	-.61***	-	
12. In-role performance	6.01	0.78	-.03	.03	.01	.02	-.07	.01	-.09	-.20***	-.32***	.32***	-.25***	-

Note. *N* = 271 (excepted for Gender *N* = 269, Age *N* = 252, Organizational size *N* = 256, Education level *N* = 257, Employment contract *N* = 266, Working time *N* = 270). Gender was coded 0 for *male* and 1 for *female*. Education level was coded 1 for *did not complete high school*, 2 for *high school*, 3 for *some college*, 4 for *bachelor's degree*, 5 for *master's degree*, and 6 for *Ph.D.* Organizational size was coded 1 for 1-9 employees, 2 for 10-49 employees, 3 for 50-249 employees, 4 for 250-499 employees, 5 for 500-999 employees, 6 for 1000-1999 employees, 7 for 2000-4999 employees, 8 for 5000-9999 employees, and 9 for more than 10000 employees. Employment contract was coded 0 for *temporary job contract* and 1 for *permanent job contract*. Working time was coded 0 for *part-time* and 1 for *full-time*.

p* < .05. *p* < .01. *****p* < .001.

Results

Measurement Model

We conducted CFAs on *Mplus* 8.8 (MLR estimator) to examine the distinctiveness of the five variables included in our model (i.e., mechanistic organizational dehumanization, animalistic organizational dehumanization, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and in-role performance).

Results showed that the hypothesized five-factor model displayed a good fit with the data, $\chi^2(199)=372.31$; RMSEA=.06; SRMR=.06; CFI=.95; TLI=.94 and was superior to all more constrained models, including a four-factor model in which mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization were collapsed into one factor (Table 6). Again, these results are consistent with H1. All items loaded significantly on their respective factors, with standardized factors loadings ranging from .81 to .86 for mechanistic organizational dehumanization, from .75 to .90 for animalistic organizational dehumanization, from .77 to .92 for job satisfaction, from .84 to .91 for turnover intentions, and from .43 to .85 for in-role performance.

TABLE 6
Fit Indices for Measurement Models for Study 3

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	SCF	$\Delta\chi^2_{SB} (\Delta df)$
1. Five-factor model	372.31	199	.06	.06	.95	.94	1.187	-
2. Four-factor model (MOD and AOD = 1 factor)	589.85	203	.08	.07	.88	.86	1.214	107.77(4)***
3. Four-factor model (MOD and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	716.09	203	.10	.07	.84	.82	1.197	241.64(4)***
4. Four-factor model (MOD and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	749.19	203	.10	.09	.83	.81	1.295	282.03(4)***
5. Four-factor model (MOD and in-role performance = 1 factor)	598.18	203	.09	.09	.88	.86	1.233	83.53(4)***
6. Four-factor model (AOD and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	751.46	203	.10	.08	.83	.81	1.210	198.10(4)***
7. Four-factor model (AOD and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	802.95	203	.10	.10	.81	.79	1.202	267.90(4)***
8. Four-factor model (AOD and in-role performance = 1 factor)	570.42	203	.08	.08	.89	.87	1.223	82.32(4)***
9. Three-factor model (job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and in-role performance = 1 factor)	791.13	206	.10	.09	.82	.80	1.236	203.25(7)***
10. Three-factor model (MOD, AOD, and job satisfaction = 1 factor)	924.12	206	.11	.09	.78	.75	1.234	271.74(7)***
11. Three-factor model (MOD, AOD, and turnover intentions = 1 factor)	969.82	206	.12	.09	.76	.74	1.224	325.96(7)***
12. Three-factor model (MOD, AOD, and in-role performance = 1 factor)	778.61	206	.10	.09	.82	.80	1.251	173.29(7)***
13. Two-factor model (MOD, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and in-role performance = 1 factor)	1158.14	208	.13	.11	.71	.67	1.244	398.49(9)***
14. Two-factor model (AOD, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and in-role performance = 1 factor)	1222.26	208	.13	.10	.69	.65	1.240	443.27(9)***
15. One-factor model	1378.43	209	.14	.11	.64	.60	1.275	435.22(10)***

Note. $N = 271$. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SCF = scaling correction factor; $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}$ = strictly positive Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test; MOD = mechanistic organizational dehumanization. AOD = animalistic organizational dehumanization. The final model is indicated in bold.

*** $p < .001$.

Structural Model

We tested a structural equation model in which both forms of organizational dehumanization were linked to job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and in-role performance. This model was shown to fit the data well, $\chi^2(199)=372.31$; RMSEA=.06; SRMR=.06; CFI=.95; TLI=.94. As shown in Figure 2, results replicated the ones obtained in Study 2. On the one hand, animalistic organizational dehumanization had a negative effect on job satisfaction and no significant effect on turnover intentions when controlling for mechanistic organizational dehumanization. On the other hand, mechanistic organizational dehumanization had a negative effect on job satisfaction and a positive effect on turnover intentions when animalistic organizational dehumanization was controlled for. Regarding employees' in-role performance, results indicated that only the path between animalistic organizational dehumanization and in-role performance was significant when both forms of organizational dehumanization were included in the model². Overall, only H2a and H2c are supported.

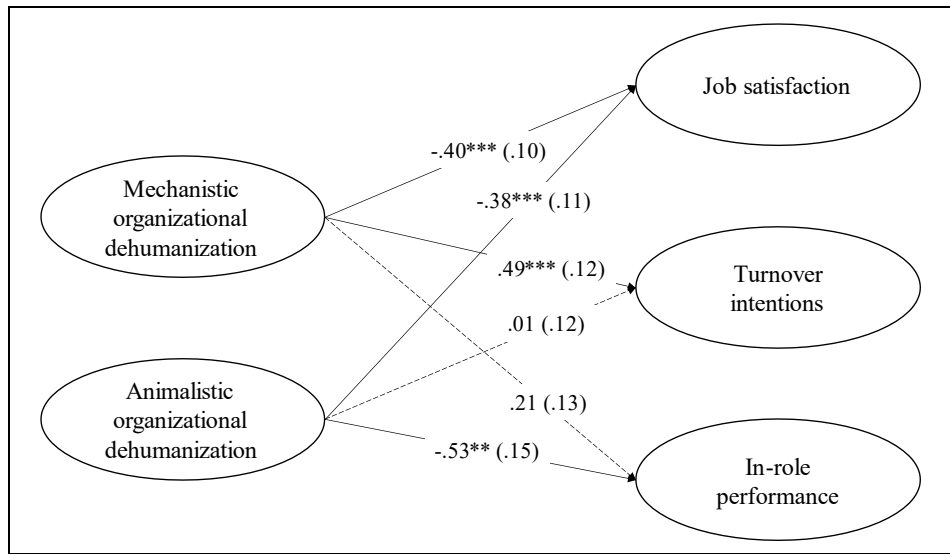


FIGURE 2

Standardized Coefficients for the Structural Equation Model of Study 3

Note. $N = 271$. Dotted arrows represent non-significant paths. Standard errors are indicated in brackets.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

DISCUSSION

Proposing to consider the animalistic type in addition to its mechanistic counterpart, the present research primarily aimed at examining whether these two forms of organizational dehumanization are empirically distinct. Additionally, this study investigated whether animalistic organizational dehumanization predicts employees' well-being (i.e., decreased job satisfaction), attitudes (i.e., increased turnover intentions), and behaviors (i.e., decreased in-role performance) beyond mechanistic organizational dehumanization. As such, this research explored the potential similarities and discrepancies between the nomological networks of both forms of organizational dehumanization.

First, Studies 1, 2 and 3 indicated that animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization are distinct constructs. In line with scholars' suggestions (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011; Christoff, 2014; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018), this observation provides empirical evidence that, although animalistic and mechanistic organizational dehumanization both embody the dark side of the employee-organization relationship, they correspond to different experiences

that may occur in organizational settings (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Christoff, 2014; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). More importantly, these findings highlight the relevance of extending Haslam's (2006) dual conceptualization of dehumanization to the organizational world. Yet, although future research is needed to confirm this pattern, it already appears from this first empirical investigation of animalistic organizational dehumanization that its prevalence seems to be lower than what is usually found for mechanistic organizational dehumanization (i.e., mean levels ranging from 3.07 to 4.14 on a 7-point Likert-type; Stinglhamber et al., 2022). This observation is consistent with scholars' assertion that, compared to animalistic organizational dehumanization, mechanistic organizational dehumanization is more likely to pervade employees' professional life (Bell & Khoury, 2011). As a matter of fact, being employed by an organization surely implies selling one's workforce, making it commonly accepted that employees are used as tools – in exchange for monetary compensation – to perform specific tasks required by the organization (Bell & Khoury, 2011).

Second, results of Studies 2 and 3 highlighted a negative relationship between both forms of organizational dehumanization and job satisfaction. In doing so, these findings provide evidence that both forms of organizational dehumanization are equally detrimental to employees' well-being. Therefore, they corroborate scholars' assertion that both mechanistic and animalistic dehumanization are harmful phenomena that are likely to indistinctively impair targets' well-being (Demoulin et al., 2021). Moreover, these results are consistent with prior research indicating that mechanistic organizational dehumanization has a damaging influence on employees' job satisfaction (e.g., Caesens et al., 2017, 2019; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022; Taskin et al., 2019). Overall, these findings suggest that being dehumanized by one's organization has a strong damaging influence on employees' well-being, no matter what tenets of humanness they are being denied.

Third, Studies 2 and 3 revealed that, when the two forms of organizational dehumanization were considered together, mechanistic organizational dehumanization was

positively associated with employees' turnover intentions while animalistic organizational dehumanization, unexpectedly, was not. As alluded to before, mechanistic organizational dehumanization is somehow part of the employment relationship whereas animalistic organizational dehumanization is not (Bell & Khoury, 2011). Hence, we would have expected animalistic organizational dehumanization to be even more strongly related to employees' turnover intentions. This surprising finding can, however, be understood in light of prior research. Unlike employees who are primarily targeted by animalistic organizational dehumanization, employees for whom the mechanistic form of dehumanization is more salient tend to feel as highly interchangeable resources (Bell & Khoury, 2011). As stated by scholars, this feeling goes hand in hand with employees' perceptions that their organization might replace them at any time to make greater profits (Caesens et al., 2017). Due to the salience of interchangeability fostered by mechanistic organizational dehumanization, it may thus be that employees prefer quitting themselves rather than waiting for the organization to lay them off. This reasoning is consistent with prior research showing that voluntary turnover is a commonly used strategy to escape the fear of losing one's job (e.g., Lebert & Voorpostel, 2016). Indeed, the threat of job loss is often experienced as a "shock", resulting in employees leaving their current position and looking for a new job to cope with this stressor (Lee et al., 1999; Mauno et al., 2014). According to the exit-voice-loyalty-neglect model of employees' responses to adverse work circumstances (Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988), turnover intentions fall into the "exit" category (Rusbult et al., 1988). This model proposes a typology of employees' responses to potential discontentment with their work life (Rusbult et al., 1988). This typology includes four responses that are exit (i.e., leaving the unsatisfactory situation), voice (i.e., actively attempting to discuss and solve the unsatisfactory situation), loyalty (i.e., passively waiting for the unsatisfactory situation to improve), and neglect (i.e., allowing the unsatisfactory situation to worsen) (Rusbult et al., 1988). Interestingly, meta-analytic findings revealed that employees'

perceptions that they might lose their job strongly related to “exit” strategies (i.e., turnover intentions; Sverke et al., 2002).

Lastly, Study 3 provided evidence that, when both forms of dehumanization were considered together, animalistic organizational dehumanization negatively related to employees’ in-role performance, in contrast to mechanistic organizational dehumanization which was not. These findings can be understood in light of prior work on organizational dehumanization (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011). Indeed, since providing workforce in exchange for a salary is commonly accepted (Bell & Khoury, 2011), employees are likely to appraise mechanistic organizational dehumanization as tolerable to a certain extent (Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2021). Conversely, there is no obvious rationale for employees to appraise animalistic organizational dehumanization as acceptable. Put differently, as compared to mechanistic organizational dehumanization, employees experiencing animalistic organizational dehumanization might be more likely to feel that moral norms have been violated by the organization with respect to how the latter treats employees. In line with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), it may thus be that animalistic organizational dehumanization leads to a greater tendency to reciprocate this negative treatment by engaging in undesirable work behaviors (i.e., decreased in-role performance). In light of the exit-voice-loyalty-neglect model (Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988), these findings provide evidence that employees facing animalistic organizational dehumanization are more prompt to adopt a “neglect” type of strategy in response to this negative organizational treatment. Corroborating this interpretation, meta-analytic findings indicated that characteristics that are inherent to mechanistic organizational dehumanization (i.e., fear of losing one’s job) were unrelated to “neglect” strategies (i.e., performance; Sverke et al., 2002).

Limitations and Future Research

The findings presented in this research should be interpreted in light of several limitations. First, all our constructs were measured with self-reported measures, which means that common method variance and social desirability may have influenced the results. To lessen this concern, we followed Podsakoff et al.'s (2012) recommendations and adopted several methodological and statistical strategies, such as guaranteeing participants the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses and computing a Harman's single-factor test that fitted the data very poorly (Tables 4 [Study 2] and 6 [Study 3]). Future research could nonetheless strengthen our findings by using more objective measures (e.g., supervisor ratings), especially for outcomes such as in-role performance.

Second, Studies 2 and 3 were based on cross-sectional data, which impedes us from drawing causal conclusions regarding the links between our variables of interest. As such, it could be possible that the effect of animalistic organizational dehumanization on in-role performance that we observed actually goes in the opposite direction. Indeed, one could argue that employees' level of in-role performance influences the extent to which they perceive that their organization sees them as lacking intelligence and competence. To gain a more robust understanding of the relationship between mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization and their outcomes, future work could use experimental manipulations and/or longitudinal designs with repeated measures (e.g., cross-lagged panel design) that would allow causal conclusions to be established.

Third, our samples were quite homogeneous in their characteristics. Even though our hypotheses were examined – and our results replicated – across three different samples, it remains that respondents came from Western countries (Belgium and the U.K.), were educated, held comparable work contracts, and worked in similar industries. As such, besides replicating and extending our findings to other cultural contexts (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2021), future research could focus on specific occupations that have been less investigated in the organizational dehumanization literature. For instance, are employees working on assembly lines or with robots

more likely to experience mechanistic – relative to animalistic – organizational dehumanization?

In contrast, are cleaning employees or garbage collectors more prone to feel dehumanized by their organization in an animalistic – rather than a mechanistic – way?

Lastly, we only focused on the consequences of mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization – and demonstrated that they have different implications for employees' well-being, attitudes, and behaviors. Yet, as these two forms of dehumanization involve the denial of different human characteristics (i.e., human nature vs. uniquely human characteristics), they are likely to be predicted by distinct variables. While numerous predictors of mechanistic organizational dehumanization have already been examined (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017, 2019; Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022; Sainz & Baldissarri, 2021; Stinglhamber et al., 2021; Taskin et al., 2019), we know very little about the factors giving rise to animalistic organizational dehumanization. Interestingly, Valtorta et al. (2019) recently demonstrated that employees who are thought to use deceptive or immoral methods in their work are perceived to be more animal-like and primitive. Building on this, an interesting avenue for future work would be to investigate how organizational pressures for dishonesty (e.g., encouraging employees to lie to customers; Scott, 2003) influence employees' perceptions of animalistic organizational dehumanization. In the same vein, discriminatory organizational practices targeting organizational minorities (e.g., women, employees with disabilities) could also give rise to animalistic organizational dehumanization as they reflect a vertical comparison that may induce feelings of inferiority for the victims (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Overall, having a better understanding of the specific factors predicting each type of organizational dehumanization would allow researchers to better seize their specificities.

Practical Implications

The present research also carries important practical implications for managers and organizations. Indeed, in both studies, we showed that mechanistic and animalistic organizational dehumanization were related to deleterious outcomes. On the one hand, and consistent with prior

work on mechanistic organizational dehumanization (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2016; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2022; Sainz & Baldissarri, 2021), our research indicated that employees who feel treated as mere tools or instruments by their organization are less satisfied with their job and more inclined to want to quit. To avoid these adverse consequences, several organizational and interpersonal strategies could be implemented, such as providing employees with supportive organizational practices (e.g., training programs; Caesens et al., 2017), enforcing effective organizational rules (Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022), and encouraging good interpersonal relationships between employees and supervisors (e.g., Caesens et al., 2019; Stinglhamber et al., 2021). On the other hand, our findings showed that animalistic organizational dehumanization is negatively related to job satisfaction and in-role performance. Although research on animalistic organizational dehumanization is still at its early stages, research suggests that it can be reduced by implementing practices in which employees' competence, maturity and rationality are acknowledged and valorized (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). Concretely, this could be achieved by involving employees in the organization's strategy process and by taking into account their feedback and suggestions regarding work-related issues (Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018).

Conclusion

Overall, our research provided first evidence that the mechanistic and animalistic forms of organizational dehumanization are empirically distinct and entail different consequences in terms of employees' well-being, attitudes, and behaviors. Future research is needed to further identify the nomological network of each form of organizational dehumanization.

NOTE/NOTES

1. All the measurement scales and the databases are available at https://osf.io/8kg9v/?view_only=8fdb7e99432949889ffc03cca56e4864.
2. The raw correlation between mechanistic organizational dehumanization and in-role performance was nevertheless significant and negative (Table 5).

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