

In Press in *Journal of Vocational Behavior*

A Trickle-Out Model of Organizational Dehumanization and Displaced Aggression

Constantin Lagios¹, Simon Lloyd D. Restubog^{2,3,4}, Patrick Raymund James M. Garcia⁵,
Yaqing He², and Gaëtane Caesens¹

¹Psychological Sciences Research Institute, Université catholique de Louvain, Belgium

²School of Labor and Employment Relations, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign,
United States of America

³Department of Psychology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, United States of
America

⁴UQ Business School, The University of Queensland, Australia

⁵Department of Management, Macquarie University, Australia

Author Note

Constantin Lagios  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4956-0036>

Simon Lloyd D. Restubog  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1602-2530>

Patrick Raymund James M. Garcia  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1451-0752>

Yaqing He  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6177-7150>

Gaëtane Caesens  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6505-4523>

The authors wish to thank Nicolas Lagios for his assistance during the data management process. This study was funded by the “Fonds Spéciaux de la Recherche” of the Université catholique de Louvain. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Constantin Lagios, Psychological Sciences Research Institute, Place Cardinal Mercier, 10, L3.05.01, 1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium. E-mail: constantin.lagios@uclouvain.be

Abstract

In this paper, we integrate displaced aggression theory with organizational dehumanization research to examine the trickle-out effects of organizational dehumanization. Specifically, we argue that supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization will displace their aggression toward their subordinates by engaging in supervisor undermining behaviors. Undermined subordinates, in turn, will displace their own aggression toward their family members through family undermining behaviors, ultimately impairing the latter's relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support. Furthermore, these mediated relationships are exacerbated when supervisors' fear of retaliation from the organization is high. We tested the research model in two independent studies using multi-source data: (1) a four-wave investigation of 184 full-time employees along with their spouses and supervisors (Study 1) and (2) 175 supervisor-subordinate-family member triads (Study 2). Results of Study 1 suggested that supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization were associated with subordinates' perceptions of supervisor undermining. This, in turn, was associated with spouse-reported undermining behaviors and ultimately spouse-reported relationship satisfaction. In Study 2, we went one step further and showed that supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization were serially related to family outcomes (i.e., relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support) via subordinates' perceptions of supervisor undermining and family members' reports of family undermining. Further, high fear of retaliation strengthened these mediated relationships. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: organizational dehumanization, decent work, displaced aggression, trickle effects, fear of retaliation, social undermining, instrumental variable

Trickle-Out Model of Organizational Dehumanization and Displaced Aggression

Historically, the notion of organizational dehumanization has been associated with classical management theory (e.g., scientific management [Taylor, 1911], Fordism [Ford, 1922], bureaucracy [Weber, 1947/2012]), wherein efficiency and productivity were prioritized, often at the expense of workers who were seen as mere commodities. Recently, however, several scholars argued that dehumanization in organizations is not a plague of the past (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Brison et al., 2022). Indeed, with the rise of technologies and the capitalist interests and cost-cutting policies governing most modern organizations, employees “face a substantial risk of being brought closer to the status of instruments and further away from humanity” (Brison et al., 2022, p. 1), making organizational dehumanization more relevant than ever. In this regard, increased scholarly attention has been devoted to the construct of organizational dehumanization, defined as the employees’ perceptions that their organization treats them as tools or instruments used to attain organizational goals (Bell & Khoury, 2011). Organizational dehumanization is a form of mistreatment that undermines one’s human dignity (e.g., Blustein et al., 2019; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018) and consequently elicits counterproductive and destructive behaviors (e.g., knowledge hiding, time theft, organizational deviance; Muhammad & Sarwar, 2021; Sarwar et al., 2021; Stinglhamber et al., 2022).

While prior studies offered valuable insights regarding the detrimental consequences of organizational dehumanization (see Brison et al., 2022 for an overview), there have been at least two key limitations with this line of work. First, most studies have exclusively examined how organizational dehumanization influences work-related outcomes, thereby overlooking the interconnections that exist between work and family domains (Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lavner & Clark, 2010). This is an important oversight since research on employment relationships suggests that mistreatment experienced at work

can spillover and negatively influence home outcomes and family relationships (Thompson et al., 2017). Second, prior work has solely examined the consequences of organizational dehumanization with regards to the focal employee who feels dehumanized by their organization. However, several scholars (Brison et al., 2022; Demoulin, Maurage, & Stinglhamber, 2021) recently suggested that organizational dehumanization may trigger displaced aggression behaviors and thus trickle to affect other individuals, both within (e.g., subordinates) and outside (e.g., family) the organization. A better understanding of the trickle effects engendered by organizational dehumanization warrants empirical attention for several reasons. At a conceptual level, it allows us to more accurately examine whether the experience of organizational dehumanization influences other members of one's social network. That is, does organizational dehumanization influence other parties involved in the social network beyond the direct effect of the source toward the primary recipient? At a practical level, it provides organizations with useful information in developing policies and practices that can prevent the negative flow of consequences arising from organizational dehumanization.

To address these limitations, we integrated displaced aggression theory (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985) with organizational dehumanization research to examine its trickle-out effects, defined as indirect social influence phenomena by which a source influences a transmitter who subsequently influences a recipient outside the organization (Wo et al., 2019). Specifically, we posit that supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization will displace their aggression toward their subordinates by engaging in supervisor undermining behaviors. In turn, undermined subordinates will displace their own aggression toward their family members¹ through family undermining behaviors, thereby negatively influencing the latter's relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional

¹ For clarity purposes, the generic term "family member" will be used throughout the rest of the article to refer to the subordinate's family member.

support. Furthermore, these mediated relationships will be stronger when supervisors' fear of retaliation from the organization is high. Figure 1 depicts the theoretical model.

Our work contributes to the literature in several important ways. First, prior scholarship on organizational dehumanization has utilized motivational (i.e., self-determination theory; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022) and resource-based (i.e., conservation of resources theory; Nguyen, Besson, & Stinglhamber, 2022) perspectives to explain its negative effects on employees. With our focus on the effects of organizational dehumanization beyond the focal actor (in this case, the supervisor), we present a displaced aggression perspective as a generative theoretical explanation that adds depth to understanding why and how organizational dehumanization affects relational others inside and outside the workplace. Doing so is particularly needed given that, as with any new research topic, the theoretical foundations of organizational dehumanization are still limited (Brison et al., 2022; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022; Stinglhamber et al., 2021).

Second, by examining how subordinates' displaced aggression (i.e., their family undermining behaviors) affects the family members' relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support, we extend previous work on displaced aggression. Indeed, while there is evidence to suggest that employees displace their aggression toward their family members through family undermining behaviors (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Restubog et al., 2011; Sanz-Vergel et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2012), family undermining has often been treated as a resulting outcome, raising questions as to how subordinates' displaced aggression directly affects family members *per se*.

Third, we identify an important boundary condition within a displaced aggression framework in the context of organizational dehumanization. While prior studies have examined trickle-out effects (e.g., Bordia et al., 2010; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Restubog et al., 2011), the boundary conditions have predominantly focused on person

factors (i.e., hostile attribution bias [Hoobler & Brass, 2006] and gender [Restubog et al., 2011]), leaving the role of contextual factors unclear. In line with this, Wo et al. (2019) strongly encouraged an empirical investigation of the contextual factors moderating trickle-out effects. In this research, we examine fear of retaliation as a boundary condition because it allows us to empirically test one of the core tenets of displaced aggression, namely that individuals are more prone to displace their aggression toward innocent others when they fear retaliation from the original harm-doer (Dollard et al., 1939; Miller, 1941). Indeed, although most studies invoked fear of retaliation as the main reason as to why employees displace their aggression toward their subordinates (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Rafferty et al., 2010; Tepper et al., 2006; Wo et al., 2015), these studies failed to empirically account for and test for its effects, making them underspecified. Given this, the specific role of fear of retaliation in the displaced aggression process remains underexplored. A better understanding of the contextual factors affecting how supervisors react to organizational dehumanization is an important step to prevent this form of mistreatment from trickling out and impacting subordinates and family members.

Lastly, with our focus on organizational dehumanization, we extend research on workplace mistreatment and trickle-out effects which has been limited in that it only examined interpersonal forms of mistreatment (e.g., abusive supervision [Restubog et al., 2011], interactional injustice [Hoobler & Hu, 2013]). As noted by Nguyen, Besson, and Stinglhamber (2022), “unlike other kinds of [workplace] mistreatment, organizational dehumanization does not emerge from interpersonal interactions but [from] the quality of the relationship between the focal employee and the organization as a whole. Although it is an intangible entity, employees tend to personify their organization and attribute anthropomorphic characteristics [or human-like attributes] such as benevolent or malevolent intentions to it” (p. 181). Thus, organizational dehumanization differs from other forms of

workplace mistreatment since it results from global perceptions regarding the extent to which an abstract entity (e.g., the organization) denies one's human attributes and treats one as a tool or instrument (Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2021). By documenting the trickle-out effects of organizational dehumanization, our research shows that mistreatment that stems from the organization (as opposed to individuals) can also indirectly influence the family domain. Doing so is also consistent with the multi-foci perspective (e.g., Lavelle et al., 2007) which highlights the need to distinguish between the differential sources of mistreatment (interpersonal vs. organizational).

We test our hypothesized predictions in two independent, multi-source samples. In Study 1, we test a serial mediation model linking perceptions of organizational dehumanization (as reported by the supervisor) and relationship satisfaction (as reported by the subordinate's spouse) via perceptions of supervisor undermining behaviors (as reported by the subordinate) and spouse undermining behaviors (as reported by the subordinate's spouse) in a sample of supervisor-subordinate-spouse triads over four measurement periods, one month apart. We extend and replicate this theoretical model in Study 2 involving supervisor-subordinate-family member triads and also testing the moderating role of fear of retaliation. In the sections that follow, we delineate the key variables in our model and discuss the expected relationships among them.

Theory and Hypothesis Development

Originating from social psychology, dehumanization is broadly defined as a psychological process consisting of denying one's human characteristics (Haslam, 2006; Väyrynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018). In his dual model of dehumanization, Haslam (2006) suggested that one's human characteristics can be denied in two distinct ways, which would give rise to two forms of dehumanization. On the one hand, animalistic dehumanization, which refers to the denial of individuals' human uniqueness characteristics (e.g., civility,

refinement), linking them to animals. On the other hand, mechanistic dehumanization arises when individuals are denied their human attributes (e.g., agency, interpersonal warmth), assimilating them to inert objects and machines. Although scholars acknowledged that both forms of dehumanization can be experienced at work, mechanistic dehumanization has been argued to be more prevalent (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011). Accordingly, organizational dehumanization has been conceptualized and operationalized based on employees' perceptions of mechanistic dehumanization (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017).

More precisely, organizational dehumanization refers to “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. 168). It is a negative experience which involves perceptions of being neglected, betrayed, and exploited as a means to an end (Bell & Khoury, 2011; Brison et al., 2022). As such, organizational dehumanization has been linked to a variety of deleterious outcomes for employees and organizations. Indeed, as it thwarts employees' fundamental psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022), organizational dehumanization has been shown to be related to poor well-being (e.g., increased emotional exhaustion) and more negative attitudes toward the organization (e.g., decreased affective commitment; Bell & Khoury, 2016; Caesens et al., 2017, 2019; Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022; Nguyen, Besson, & Stinglhamber, 2022; Nguyen, Cheung, & Stinglhamber, 2022; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2021). In addition, employees who experience organizational dehumanization have been found to engage in more negative work behaviors (e.g., increased knowledge hiding, time theft, and organizational deviance; Muhammad & Sarwar, 2021; Sarwar et al., 2021; Stinglhamber et al., 2022). In sum, existing empirical work on organizational dehumanization has mainly focused on examining the detrimental effects of organizational dehumanization for the focal employees themselves.

Yet, recently, several scholars have proposed that dehumanization could have trickle effects and engender displaced aggression behaviors that trigger a chain of undesirable consequences that go beyond the individual who is the direct victim of dehumanization. For instance, Demoulin, Muraige, and Stangor (2021) noted that dehumanizing treatment emanating from a powerful perpetrator who cannot be fought against could “give rise to trickle down effects [...] or displaced aggression behaviors” (p. 270), so that victims may act aggressively toward individuals other than the perpetrators of dehumanization (e.g., subordinates, clients, patients). Similarly, Brison et al. (2022) suggested that the detrimental consequences of organizational dehumanization could trickle and “expand beyond the organization itself and involve specific organizational stakeholders (e.g., supervisors, colleagues, customers) [...] or even external targets (e.g., family, friends)” (p. 28) when direct retaliation is too costly. Indeed, employees are embedded in a variety of social networks in which they influence one another (Bordia et al., 2010; Stollberger et al., 2019; Wo et al., 2019) so that an employee’s perceptions of organizational dehumanization can affect other individuals, both within (e.g., subordinates) and outside (e.g., family) the organization.

Displaced aggression theory is embedded within the broader frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939). According to the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939) and its later refinements (e.g., Berkowitz, 1989), frustrating and aversive events elicit negative affect that triggers individuals to display aggression. Although aggression is frequently directed toward the perceived source of frustration (i.e., the aggressor), there exist instances in which doing so is not conceivable. Dollard et al. (1939) and Miller (1941) listed several conditions under which aggression toward the source of frustration will be restrained, rather than expressed: (a) the source of frustration is unavailable (e.g., not physically present), (b) the source of frustration is intangible (e.g., bad weather), and (c) retaliation or punishment is feared from the source of frustration. In these situations, victims are unlikely to directly

confront their aggressor and will instead redirect their aggression toward substitute, less powerful targets (Dollard et al., 1939), a phenomenon called displaced aggression (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985).

Research on the implications of dehumanization provides useful insights for understanding why supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization may displace their aggression toward their subordinates. When supervisors feel dehumanized by their organization, they experience a wide range of negative emotional reactions, including anger, sadness, contempt, frustration, and hostility (Bastian & Haslam, 2011; Demoulin, Nguyen et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2017). These negative emotions trigger supervisors to display aggression and fight back toward the harm-doer (i.e., the organization), which could be achieved by engaging in organizational retaliatory behaviors (Skarlicki & Folger, 2004). However, it should be noted that engaging in retaliatory behaviors directed toward the organization may result in unwanted consequences (O’Leary-Kelly & Griffin, 2004; Skarlicki & Folger, 2004). For this reason, supervisors may instead vent their aggression toward their subordinates – who are easier and less powerful targets (Wo et al., 2019) – by engaging in supervisor undermining behaviors, defined as behaviors intended to hinder the subordinate’s ability to establish positive relationships, achieve work-related success, and maintain a favorable reputation (Duffy et al., 2002). In comparison to other forms of workplace mistreatment, supervisor undermining is considered a subtle low-intensity form of aggression whose consequences are often not immediately obvious, “making it easier for perpetrators to go unpunished” (Lee et al., 2016, p. 915). Undermining subordinates thus becomes a convenient means for supervisors to express their frustrations from their experience of organizational dehumanization given that they have power over their subordinates, and in most cases expect them to be obedient and unquestioning.

We further hypothesize that undermined subordinates are less likely to retaliate against their supervisor and will instead direct their aggression toward their family members who they perceive to be less threatening (Restubog et al., 2011). Indeed, as supervisors hold power and control valuable resources (Bies & Tripp, 1998), retaliation could lead to lost rewards or punishment (Aquino et al., 2006; Tepper et al., 2009). Subordinates may thus redirect their aggression toward their family members who are less threatening than their supervisors by engaging in family undermining behaviors, defined as non-violent yet aggressive behaviors (Restubog et al., 2011) that express negative affect (e.g., dislike), convey criticism or negative evaluations, and impair the interlocutor's sense of self-worth (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Vinokur & van Ryn, 1993). Overall, we propose a trickle-out model in which supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization will displace their aggression toward their subordinates who will, in turn, displace their own aggression toward their family members. Thus, we predict that:

Hypothesis 1: The indirect relationship between supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization and family members' perceptions of family undermining is mediated by subordinates' perceptions of supervisor undermining.

We further extend the proposed relationships by considering the consequences of family undermining for the victims themselves. Specifically, we argue that subordinates' displaced aggression, that is their family undermining behaviors, will be negatively related to the family members' (a) relationship satisfaction and (b) perceptions of emotional support.

Family undermining, relationship satisfaction, and perceptions of emotional support are conceptually and empirically distinct. Family undermining refers to insidious behaviors aimed at harming a family member (Vinokur & van Ryn, 1993). Relationship satisfaction captures one's subjective global evaluation about the quality of one's relationship (Norton, 1983). Perceptions of emotional support refer to one's perceptions of being valued and cared

for (Vaux et al., 1987). Vinokur et al. (1996) provided empirical support for the distinctiveness of these three constructs (see also Vinokur and van Ryn, 1993 and Westman et al., 2004).

By definition, relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support are outcomes of social activities (e.g., Caplan, 1974) in that they are shaped by the interactions held with others. When subordinates engage in undermining behaviors toward their family, they send signals of anger and make devaluing or belittling criticisms (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Vinokur & van Ryn, 1993). These destructive behaviors diminish the family members' sense of self-worth and often result in conflictual interactions (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Westman & Vinokur, 1998), which may arguably make family members less satisfied with their relationship with the subordinate and decrease their perceptions of being valued and cared for. Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that conflictual interactions and denigrative behaviors from a partner can have a detrimental impact on the other partner's relationship satisfaction (Westman et al., 2004; Yoon & Lawrence, 2013) and perceptions of social support (Beach et al., 1996; Pierce et al., 1990). Based on these theoretical and empirical considerations, we predict that:

Hypothesis 2: The indirect relationships between subordinates' perceptions of supervisor undermining and family members' (a) relationship satisfaction and (b) perceptions of emotional support are mediated by family members' perceptions of family undermining.

In an effort to better understand the boundary conditions of the trickle-out effects of organizational dehumanization, we now turn our attention to factors that potentially exacerbate these relationships. Specifically, we focus on supervisors' fear of retaliation from their organization, which depicts the extent to which aggressive behaviors toward the organization are thought to lead to punishment or other unwanted consequences (Fox & Spector, 1999). As stated above, a core tenet of displaced aggression theory is that individuals

are particularly likely to displace their aggression toward less powerful targets when they fear retaliation or punishment from the source of frustration (Dollard et al., 1939; Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Miller, 1941). Applied to our research, this means that in situations of high fear of retaliation, supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization should be even more inclined to displace their aggression toward their subordinates, as harming back the organization is perceived to be too costly.

From an empirical standpoint, Fitz's (1976) research provides support for our proposed interaction effect. Experimentally manipulating fear of retaliation, Fitz (1976) investigated whether participants angered by a provocateur would more severely display aggression toward the provocateur or toward an individual other than the provocateur (i.e., displaced aggression). Consistent with displaced aggression theory, results indicated that non-fearful-angered participants attacked the provocateur more severely, while fearful-angered participants attacked the individual other than the provocateur more severely. In sum, both theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that displaced aggression is exacerbated in situations of high fear of retaliation. Integrating these arguments with Hypotheses 1 and 2, we propose that:

Hypothesis 3: The indirect relationships between supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization and family members' (a) relationship satisfaction and (b) perceptions of emotional support through subordinates' perceptions of supervisor undermining and family members' perception family undermining is moderated by fear of retaliation, such that the indirect relationships are stronger under conditions of high fear of retaliation.

Overview of Studies

To test our hypotheses, we conducted two multi-source studies involving supervisor-subordinate-family member triads. Specifically, Study 1 adopted a four-wave design and

assessed how supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization affect subordinates' spouses' relationship satisfaction through supervisor undermining and family undermining serially linked (Hypotheses 1 and 2a). Study 2 was a cross-sectional study that extended Study 1 in three important ways. First, given that Study 1 was conducted in a collectivist culture (i.e., the Philippines), we sought to replicate our findings (Hypotheses 1 and 2a) in an individualist culture (i.e., Belgium) to ascertain whether our results also hold in a different cultural context. Second, we used different operationalizations/measures based on the same conceptualization of family undermining and relationship satisfaction. In doing so, we establish constructive replication aimed at strengthening the internal validity, thus providing greater confidence in our findings (Lykken, 1968). Relatedly, Study 1 only collected data from spouses (to assess family undermining). We expanded this narrow scope by assessing family undermining from multiple significant others (e.g., children, live-in family members or relatives), in addition to spouses. Finally, Study 2 tested the full model by examining emotional support (as reported by a family member) as an additional outcome variable (Hypothesis 2b) and fear of retaliation as a boundary condition (Hypotheses 3a and 3b).

Study 1

Participants and Procedure

We distributed 325 survey kits to full-time employees who were enrolled in part-time postgraduate studies in various academic programs in tertiary institutions in the Philippines. This survey kit contained a letter explaining the goals of our research and ensured confidentiality and voluntary participation. It also contained a self-report survey assessing demographic characteristics and personality measures (i.e., trait anger) along with a brief survey (assessing organizational dehumanization) that the focal employees were requested to pass onto their immediate supervisor. We obtained 240 supervisor surveys (73.85% response rate) and 271 self-reported surveys (83.38% response rate). At Time 2, one month after Time

1 data collection, we disseminated a second survey (assessing supervisor undermining) to the participants who completed the Time 1 survey. We retrieved 235 self-reported surveys (86.72% response rate). At Time 3, one month after Time 2 data collection, we requested our participants to pass on a brief survey (assessing spouse undermining) to their spouse. We retrieved 211 spouse surveys (89.78% response rate). Finally, at Time 4, one month after Time 3 data collection, we once again asked participants to pass on a brief survey (assessing relationship satisfaction) to their spouses. We obtained data from 184 spouses (87.20% response rate).

After removing those surveys with missing unique identity codes, a large number of missing responses (80% of the questions were left unanswered), blank surveys, we were able to match 184 supervisor-subordinate-spouse triads over the four measurement periods. All completed surveys were placed in a sealed envelope that were directly sent to the research team. Surveys from the different participants were matched using an individually-generated unique identity code. All participants (supervisors, subordinates, and their spouses) received a PHP500 gift voucher (equivalent to USD10) as a token of appreciation for participating in the study. The demographic characteristics of the sample are displayed in Table 1.

Measures

The survey was administered in English. All items were assessed using 7-point Likert agreement scales, except if otherwise indicated.

Organizational dehumanization (reported by the supervisors; $\alpha = .93$, $\omega = .92$) was measured using a five-item short scale validated by Lagios and Caesens (2022). An example item is “My organization treats me as if I were an object”. To provide further evidence that this shortened scale was equivalent to the full scale, we administered the full scale to an independent sample composed of 430 British employees. Bivariate correlations indicated that the shortened and full versions were highly correlated ($r = .98$, $p < .001$). In their validation

study, Lagios and Caesens (2022) reported reliability indices ranging from .90 to .96. Regarding construct validity, this short scale of organizational dehumanization has been shown to be negatively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment (Lagios & Caesens, 2022).

Supervisor undermining (reported by the subordinates; $\alpha = .97$, $\omega = .98$) was assessed with Duffy et al.'s (2002) 13-item scale. An example item is "Over the past month of work, how often has your supervisor intentionally belittled you or your ideas?". Subordinates indicated their responses on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*everyday*). Duffy et al. (2002) reported a reliability coefficient of .92. In terms of construct validity, this measure has been shown to be negatively related to organizational commitment and positively related to counterproductive behaviors (Duffy et al., 2002).

Family undermining (reported by the spouses; $\alpha = .83$, $\omega = .83$) was measured with Restubog et al.'s (2011) five-item scale. An example item is "My spouse acts in an unpleasant or angry manner toward me". Spouses indicated their responses on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*I cannot remember her/him using this behavior with me*) to 7 (*S/he always uses this behavior toward me*). Previous research suggests reliability coefficients ranging from .82 to .90 (Kiewitz et al., 2012; Restubog et al., 2011). Construct validity evidence also suggests that spouse undermining is positively related to abusive supervision and psychological distress (Restubog et al., 2011; Kiewitz et al., 2012).

Relationship satisfaction (reported by the spouses) was measured with a single-item scale (i.e., "In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?") developed and validated by Fülöp et al. (2022). In order to further demonstrate the psychometric properties of the single-item scale, we collected data from an independent sample of 154 employee-spouse dyads. We assessed employees' trait anger (Spielberger, 1996) and negative affect (Watson et al., 1988) and their focal spouses' relationship satisfaction (Fülöp et al., 2022) at

Time 1. At Time 2, four months after Time 1, we measured again the focal spouses' relationship satisfaction. Zero-order correlations suggested that employee-reported trait anger ($r_{\text{with T1 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction}} = -.27, p < .01$; $r_{\text{with T2 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction}} = -.17, p < .05$) and negative affect ($r_{\text{with T1 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction}} = -.27, p < .01$; $r_{\text{with T2 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction}} = -.20, p < .05$) were negatively associated to both Time 1 and Time 2 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction, suggesting convergent validity. Test-retest reliability of the single item relationship satisfaction measure was acceptable ($r = .71, p < .01$). Regarding construct validity, this measure was shown to be negatively related to anxiety (Ou et al., 2022) and self-esteem (Gonzalez Avilés et al., 2022).

Control variables. Several control variables were considered to rule out alternative explanations. First, we controlled for subordinates' trait anger, consistent with prior work suggesting that employees high in trait anger are more prone to (1) perceive aggressive behaviors from others (e.g., supervisor undermining; Reknes et al., 2021) and (2) behave aggressively toward others (e.g., spouse undermining; Restubog et al., 2011; Spielberger, 1996). Trait anger was measured with Spielberger's (1996) four-item scale ($\alpha = .92, \omega = .92$). A sample item is "I am quick tempered".

Second, we controlled for demographic variables that may influence the extent to which supervisors and subordinates may displace their aggression. Gender was controlled because masculine gender stereotypes emphasize aggressive behaviors (Kark & Eagly, 2010) and men may thus be more inclined to engage in undermining behaviors. Age was also controlled in the analyses because older people tend to better regulate their emotions (Gross et al., 1997) and may thus displace their aggression to a lesser extent than do younger people. Organizational tenure was controlled because it is associated with workplace aggression (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). In the same vein, we controlled for spouses' gender and

age because these variables may influence how subordinates interact with their spouses and their spouses' relationship satisfaction (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Ferguson, 2011).

Results

Table 2 displays the means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and zero-order correlations between the variables. Correlations between the variables are consistent with the hypotheses. Following Becker et al.'s (2016) recommendations, we examined the empirical relationships between our control and dependent variables. Next, we ran our analyses with and without the control variables that correlated with the dependent variables included in the model. While the inclusion of the control variables did not change the interpretation of the results, some standardized coefficients differed by more than .10. We thus report below the results with the control variables and present in online supplements (see Figures S1) the results without the control variables (Becker et al., 2016).

Measurement Model

Given the relatively modest sample size, we created item parcels in order to improve the ratio of N relative to the number of parameters to be modeled (Little et al., 2002). More specifically, using the item-to-construct balance technique (Little et al., 2002), we created three parcels for organizational dehumanization, supervisor undermining, and spouse undermining. Using *Mplus* 8.8 (MLR estimator), we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to establish the distinctiveness of the study variables. Results showed that the hypothesized three-factor model² fitted the data well ($\chi^2(24) = 67.45$; SRMR = .04; CFI = .97; TLI = .95) and was superior to all more constrained models by using Satorra-Bentler (SB) scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001; see Table S1 in online supplements). All the items loaded significantly on their respective factor, with standardized loadings ranging from .87 to .99 for organizational dehumanization, from .95 to .97 for

² Relationship satisfaction was measured with a single item and was therefore not included in the CFAs.

supervisor undermining, and from .66 to .88 for spouse undermining. Based on these results, all constructs were treated as distinct in subsequent analyses.

Structural Model

We tested a structural model in which organizational dehumanization was related to relationship satisfaction through supervisor undermining and spouse undermining serially linked. Although this hypothesized model presented an acceptable fit with the data ($\chi^2 (85) = 267.72$; SRMR = .08; CFI = .92; TLI = .90), an alternative model adding a direct path between organizational dehumanization and relationship satisfaction was found to be superior based on the SB scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001; $\Delta\chi^2 (1) = 10.05$, SBc = 12.30, $p < .001$; see Table S2 in online supplements). This alternative model was consequently retained as the final model ($\chi^2 (84) = 257.67$; SRMR = .07; CFI = .92; TLI = .90).

As shown in Figure 2, Time 1 supervisor-reported organizational dehumanization was found to be positively related to Time 2 subordinate-reported supervisor undermining ($\gamma = .41, p < .001$). In turn, Time 2 subordinate-reported supervisor undermining had a positive relationship with Time 3 spouse-reported undermining ($\beta = .26, p = .006$) which had a subsequent negative relationship with Time 4 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -.39, p < .001$). Regarding the direct path, Time 1 supervisor-reported organizational dehumanization was negatively related to Time 4 spouse-reported relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -.21, p < .001$).

Latent mediation analyses with bootstrap (5,000 bootstrap samples; Cheung & Lau, 2008) were then performed to test the significance of the indirect effects. In line with Hypothesis 1, results indicated that the indirect effect of organizational dehumanization on spouse undermining through supervisor undermining was significant (indirect effect = .11; BC 95% CI = [.02; .22]). The results further provided support for Hypothesis 2a as the

indirect effect of supervisor undermining on relationship satisfaction through spouse undermining was significant as well (indirect effect = $-.09$; BC 95% CI = $[-.18; -.04]$)³. While we found preliminary support for the hypothesized model, we did not examine perceptions of emotional support and fear of retaliation. In Study 2, we sought to replicate and extend the theoretical model of Study 1 by testing the full research model.

Study 2

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected across a variety of organizations in Belgium using a snowball sampling technique. In line with previous research (e.g., Frieder et al., 2015; Harvey et al., 2007), undergraduate students following an introductory course in organizational psychology were invited to contact an employee (hereinafter referred to as the *subordinate*) who had both a direct supervisor and daily interactions with a partner/spouse, sibling, child over 18 years old (other than the student), or parent (hereinafter referred to as the *family member*). Students' participation was voluntary and students taking part in the research received an extra credit for the course. The contacted subordinate was then asked to (1) complete an online questionnaire, (2) invite their direct supervisor to complete an online questionnaire, and (3) invite a family member to complete an online questionnaire. Thus, data were obtained from three independent sources: (a) the subordinate, (b) the subordinate's supervisor, and (c) the subordinate's family member. Each questionnaire was accompanied by an introduction letter summarizing the purpose of the research, the instructions of completion, and the contact information of the first author. Respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and that their responses would be anonymous and kept confidential. Respondents were also required to indicate the identification number of the student who contacted the

³ The indirect effect of organizational dehumanization on relationship satisfaction through supervisor undermining and spouse undermining serially linked was also significant (indirect effect = $-.04$; BC 95% CI = $[-.08; -.01]$).

subordinate – the student’s identification number consists of a random code provided by the University and that is used for administrative purposes. The identification number was used to match the subordinate, supervisor, and family member’s questionnaire.

A total of 336 subordinates, 326 supervisors, and 319 family members completed their respective questionnaire. Using the student’s identification number, 306 matched questionnaires (i.e., 306 triads composed of the subordinate, the supervisor, and the family member) were obtained. After removing the triads ($N = 131$) for which at least one respondent failed to correctly answer at least one attentional check question (e.g., “Please tick strongly agree for this statement”), we obtained a final sample of 175 triads⁴. Table 3 displays the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Measures

As our sample consisted of French-speaking participants, all our items were presented in French. To ensure semantic equivalence, we followed the back-translation procedure recommended by Brislin (1970). Specifically, the items were first translated from English to French, and then translated back to English. Unless otherwise indicated, all items were assessed using 7-point Likert agreement scales.

Organizational dehumanization (reported by the supervisors; $\alpha = .91 = \omega = .91$) and supervisor undermining (reported by the subordinates; $\alpha = .87, \omega = .88$) were measured with the same scales as the ones used Study 1. The only difference was that organizational

⁴ Independent-sample t tests were performed to compare the characteristics of the participants who failed to correctly answer at least one attentional check question (i.e., Incorrect) with the characteristics of the participants who correctly answered the attentional check questions (i.e., Correct). Results indicated that the supervisors did not significantly differ in their levels of organizational dehumanization perceptions ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 2.61$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 1.40$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 2.77$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 1.26$; $t(304) = -1.02$, $p = .309$); the subordinates did not significantly differ in their levels of supervisor undermining perceptions ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 1.19$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 0.39$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 1.16$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 0.39$; $t(304) = 0.55$, $p = .585$); the family members did not significantly differ in their levels of family undermining perceptions ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 2.42$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 1.28$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 2.65$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 1.38$; $t(304) = -1.50$, $p = .134$), relationship satisfaction ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 6.23$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 0.85$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 6.13$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 1.17$; $t(303.80) = 0.86$, $p = .391$), and emotional support perceptions ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 3.95$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 0.78$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 4.05$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 0.76$; $t(304) = -1.12$, $p = .263$). The only difference was that the supervisors who failed to correctly answer to at least one attentional check question reported lower levels of fear of retaliation than did the supervisors who correctly answered to the attentional check questions ($M_{\text{Incorrect}} = 2.64$; $SD_{\text{Incorrect}} = 1.46$, $M_{\text{Correct}} = 3.01$; $SD_{\text{Correct}} = 1.50$; $t(284.28) = -2.18$, $p = .030$).

dehumanization was assessed with the full 11-item scale of Caesens et al. (2017) while supervisor undermining was assessed with the shortened 7-item scale of Duffy et al. (2002; 1 = *never* and 6 = *everyday*). Previous research using these scales demonstrated good reliability coefficients, ranging from .93 to .96 for organizational dehumanization (Caesens et al., 2017; Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022) and from .81 to .98 for supervisor undermining (Ng & Feldman, 2013; Lee et al., 2016). In terms of construct validity, the 11-item scale of organizational dehumanization has been shown to be negatively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment (Caesens et al., 2017; Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022), and the 7-item scale of supervisor undermining positively related to resource depletion (Lee et al., 2016).

Fear of retaliation (reported by the supervisors; $\alpha = .82$, $\omega = .81$) was assessed with the three-item scale of Fox and Spector (1999). An example item is “I would not do something against my organization because it would get back to me in some way”. Previous research reported good reliability coefficients, ranging from .88 to .93 (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012; Spector & Fox, 1999). Supporting construct validity, low levels of fear of retaliation were shown to be positively related to deviant behaviors (Fox & Spector, 1999).

Family undermining (reported by the family members; $\alpha = .90$, $\omega = .90$) was assessed using Hoobler and Brass’ (2006) five-item scale. An example item is “This person tends to take out their work frustrations on me”. Previous research demonstrated high reliability coefficients, ranging from .91 to .95 (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Meier & Cho, 2018; Thompson et al., 2020). Supporting construct validity, family undermining has been shown to be positively related to negative affect (Meier & Cho, 2018) and abusive supervision (Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

Relationship satisfaction (reported by the family members; $\alpha = .95$, $\omega = .95$) was measured with the five items of Norton (1983). An example item is “My relationship with this person makes me happy”. To make the scale relevant for all family members, two items were

slightly modified by replacing the term “marriage” to “relationship” (e.g., Ilies et al., 2011; Sumer & Knight, 2001). Previous research using this measure reported high reliability coefficients ($\alpha = .96$ [Ilies et al., 2011] and $\alpha = .97$ [Sumer & Knight, 2001]). Supporting construct validity, relationship satisfaction has been shown to be negatively related to negative affect (Ilies et al., 2011) and positively related to life satisfaction (Sumer & Knight, 2001).

Perceptions of emotional support (reported by the family members; $\alpha = .92$, $\omega = .92$)

was assessed with Vaux et al.'s 10-item scale (1987). An example item is “How likely is this person to comfort you when you are upset?” Family members indicated their responses on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*extremely unlikely*) to 5 (*extremely likely*). Prior work reported reliability values ranging from .82 to .89 (Vaux et al., 1987). Supporting construct validity, emotional support was shown to be positively related to financial support and advice/guidance (Vaux et al., 1987).

Control variables. As in Study 1, we considered several control variables to rule out alternative explanations. First, we controlled for supervisors' perceptions of procedural justice because prior work on trickle effects demonstrated that procedural justice influences the way supervisors treat their subordinates (Garcia et al., 2014; Tepper et al., 2006). Procedural justice was assessed using Colquitt's (2001) seven-item measure ($\alpha = .77$, $\omega = .77$). A sample item is “The procedures are applied consistently”.

Second, similar to Study 1, we controlled for supervisors and subordinates' gender and age. The time supervisors and subordinates had been working together, the number of employees a supervisor is responsible for, and the weekly number of hours supervisors and subordinates interacted were controlled for as these variables have been found to affect supervisors and subordinates' interpersonal interactions at work (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Similarly, we controlled for several variables that may influence how

subordinates interact with family members and the relationship outcomes, that is the family member's gender, age, tenure of relationship with the subordinate, and the weekly number of hours of interaction with the subordinate (e.g., Ferguson et al., 2011; Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

Lastly, given that the data were collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, which has been shown to detrimentally affect employees' work experience (Lagios, Lagios et al., 2022), we measured the extent to which the COVID-19 pandemic impacted supervisors and subordinates' work (i.e., "Please indicate the extent to which the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted your work" [1 = *not at all* and 7 = *extremely*]), the supervisors and subordinates' level of depression due to the COVID-19 pandemic (i.e., "Please indicate how depressed you feel because of the COVID-19 pandemic" [1 = *not at all* and 7 = *extremely*]), and whether the subordinates and family members were confined together.

Results

Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and zero-order correlations between the variables are displayed in Table 4. Correlations between the variables are consistent with the hypotheses. Similar to Study 1, we treated our control variable by relying on Becker et al.'s (2016) recommendations. Here again, although the inclusion of the control variables did not change the interpretation of the findings, some standardized coefficients presented a difference larger than .10. Therefore, we present below the results with the control variables and report in online supplements (see Figures S2) the results without the control variables (Becker et al., 2016).

Measurement Model

Due to the large number of parameters to be modeled relative to the modest sample size, we created three parcels for organizational dehumanization and perceptions of emotional support, using the same strategy as in Study 1 (i.e., item-to-construct balance technique; Little

et al., 2002)⁵. Doing so also allowed us to have the same number of indicators for the independent (i.e., organizational dehumanization) and moderating (i.e., fear of retaliation) variables at stake in Hypotheses 3a and 3b, and to thereby examine their interactive effect on supervisor undermining, family undermining, and the relationship outcomes (Marsh et al., 2004). Results of CFAs (*Mplus* 8.8; MLR estimator) indicated that the hypothesized six-factor model displayed a very good fit with the data ($\chi^2(284) = 449.55$; SRMR = .06; CFI = .94; TLI = .93) and was superior to all more constrained models based on the SB scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001; see Table S3 in online supplements). All the items loaded significantly on their respective factor, with standardized loadings ranging from .83 to .93 for organizational dehumanization, from .73 to .80 for fear of retaliation, from .60 to .87 for supervisor undermining, from .69 to .86 for family undermining, from .84 to .92 for relationship satisfaction, and from .85 to .93 for perceptions of emotional support. Overall, the constructs were treated as distinct in the following analyses.

Structural Model

We tested a structural model in which organizational dehumanization, fear of retaliation, and their interactive effect were related to relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support through supervisor undermining and family undermining serially linked. Following Aguinis and Gottfredson (2010) and Marsh et al.'s (2004) recommendations, the indicators of organizational dehumanization and fear of retaliation were mean-centered prior to computing the latent interaction term. Based on the measurement model, the indicators of the latent interaction term were created by multiplying the highest-loading indicator of organizational dehumanization with the highest-loading indicator of fear of retaliation (Marsh et al., 2004). This procedure was repeated for each subsequent pair of indicators. The

⁵ We did not create parcels for fear of retaliation (three items), supervisor undermining (seven items), family undermining (five items), and relationship satisfaction (five items) because they were measured by a relatively small number of items.

hypothesized model fitted the data well ($\chi^2 (395) = 607.29$; SRMR = .06; CFI = .93; TLI = .93) and was then compared to alternative models adding direct paths by using the SB scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001; see Table S4 in online supplements for a description of the alternative models). As none of the alternative models displayed a significantly better fit with the data than did the hypothesized model (see Table S4 in online supplements), the latter was retained as the final model for parsimony purposes.

As depicted in Figure 3, the results indicated that organizational dehumanization was positively related to supervisor undermining ($\gamma = .22, p = .005$) while fear of retaliation had no significant effect on supervisor undermining ($\gamma = -.11, p = .110$). In turn, supervisor undermining was found to be positively associated with family undermining ($\beta = .19, p = .010$), which was subsequently negatively related to relationship satisfaction ($\beta = -.43, p < .001$) and perceptions of emotional support ($\beta = -.43, p < .001$).

Latent mediation analyses with bootstrap (5,000 bootstrap samples; Cheung & Lau, 2008) were then performed to test the significance of the indirect effects. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, the indirect effect of organizational dehumanization on family undermining through supervisor undermining was shown to be significant (indirect effect = .04; BC 95% CI = [.001; .107]). The results also indicated that the indirect effects of supervisor undermining on relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support through family undermining were significant (indirect effect for relationship satisfaction = -.08; BC 95% CI = [-.17; -.02] and indirect effect for perceptions of emotional support = -.08; BC 95% CI = [-.17; -.02]), thereby supporting Hypothesis 2a and 2b.⁶

We examined Hypothesis 3 in two inter-linked steps. First, we examined the interactive effect of organizational dehumanization and fear of retaliation. Results showed

⁶ The indirect effects of organizational dehumanization on relationship satisfaction through supervisor undermining and family undermining serially linked were also significant (indirect effect for relationship satisfaction = -.02; BC 95% CI = [-.053; -.001] and indirect effect for perceptions of emotional support = -.02; BC 95% CI = [-.053; -.001]).

that it was positively related to supervisor undermining ($\gamma = .27, p = .005$). Additionally, the simple slopes tests (Aiken & West, 1991) showed that the relationship between organizational dehumanization and supervisor undermining was significant at 1 *SD* above ($B = .10, t(170) = 3.69, p < .001$) but not 1 *SD* below ($B = .03, t(170) = 0.85, p = .395$) the mean of fear of retaliation. The simple slopes tests furthermore indicated that the slopes were significantly different from each other ($t(170) = 2.66, p = .009$). As illustrated in Figure 4, the relationship between organizational dehumanization and supervisor undermining was stronger when fear of retaliation was high.

Next, we examined whether the interactive effect of organizational dehumanization and fear of retaliation on the relationship outcomes (i.e., relationship satisfaction and perceptions of emotional support) was serially transmitted via supervisor undermining and family undermining (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). To do this, we conducted a series of latent moderated serial mediation analyses with bootstrap (5,000 bootstrap samples; Cheung & Lau, 2017). The results showed that the indirect effects of organizational dehumanization on the relationship outcomes via the two mediators were significant at high (indirect effect for relationship satisfaction = $-.04$; BC 95% CI = $[-.13; -.01]$ and indirect effect for perceptions of emotional support = $-.03$; BC 95% CI = $[-.09; -.01]$) but not at low levels of fear of retaliation (indirect effect for relationship satisfaction = $.03$; BC 95% CI = $[-.003; .107]$ and indirect effect for perceptions of emotional support = $.02$; BC 95% CI = $[-.002; .075]$). Importantly, the indices of moderated serial mediation were significant for both family-related outcomes (index for relationship satisfaction = $-.04$; BC 95% CI = $[-.109; -.003]$; index for perceptions of emotional support = $-.03$; BC 95% CI = $[-.074; -.002]$). Overall, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to empirically examine the trickle-out effects of organizational dehumanization. Consistent with the displaced aggression perspective, our results showed that (1) supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization can trickle to influence relational others within (i.e., subordinates) and outside (i.e., subordinates' family members) the organization and (2) supervisors' fear of retaliation from the organization exacerbates these relationships.

In doing so, we make several important contributions to the literature. First, prior work on organizational dehumanization has mainly focused on examining employees in isolation from one another, investigating how organizational dehumanization relates to their *own* well-being and work-related attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Bell & Khoury, 2011; Caesens et al., 2017, 2019; Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022; Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022; Nguyen, Besson, & Stinglhamber, 2022; Nguyen, Cheung, & Stinglhamber, 2022; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2022; Stinglhamber et al., 2021). We extend this line of work by acknowledging that employees are part of a larger social network in which they influence one another (Bordia et al., 2010; Stollberger et al., 2019; Wo et al., 2019). We showed across two studies that supervisors' perceptions of organizational dehumanization can flow down the organizational hierarchy to affect their subordinates, and then cross the organizational boundary to affect the subordinates' family members. Specifically, consistent with displaced aggression theory (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985), our findings suggest that supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization displace their aggression toward their subordinates through supervisor undermining behaviors, especially when retaliation against the organization could lead to organizational sanctions (O'Leary-Kelly & Griffin, 2004; Skarlicki & Folger, 2004). Our results further indicate that undermined subordinates tend to react similarly. As directly confronting their undermining supervisor may result in sanctions

or resource losses (Aquino et al., 2006; Tepper et al., 2009), subordinates displace their own aggression toward their family members via family undermining behaviors.

Overall, in line with Brison et al. (2022) and Demoulin, Maurage, and Stinglhamber's (2021) theoretical propositions, our research suggests that organizational dehumanization sets in motion a chain of displaced aggression behaviors in which both supervisors and subordinates display hostile behaviors toward innocent targets. The consequences of organizational dehumanization are thus more insidious than previously thought as they were shown to indirectly affect more distal targets that are outside the organization. Moreover, in doing so, we show that mistreatment emanating from the organization also has the ability to trickle-out to affect family outcomes.

Second, by integrating displaced aggression perspective with the organizational dehumanization literature, we offer a new theoretical foundation for explaining the deleterious consequences of organizational dehumanization. This is of critical importance as research on organizational dehumanization strongly needs additional theoretical frameworks to grow as a field. Empirical work on organizational dehumanization has indeed relied on a very limited number of theoretical perspectives (i.e., self-determination theory [Lagios, Caesens et al., 2022], conservation of resources theory [Nguyen, Besson, & Stinglhamber, 2022], and social exchange theory [Stinglhamber et al., 2022]), which fail to explain how organizational dehumanization influences relational others inside and outside the organization. In contrast, with our focus on displaced aggression, our research provides first evidence of the relational consequences of organizational dehumanization, that is increased undermining behaviors toward subordinates and family members.

A third contribution of this research is that it expands how scholars might think about employees' displaced aggression. Prior work on displaced aggression has been limited in that it solely examined the situations that lead employees to displace their aggression toward their

family, such as facing an abusive supervisor (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Restubog et al., 2011), experiencing interpersonal conflicts at work (Sanz-Vergel et al., 2015), or perceiving work-family conflict (Wu et al., 2012). In the present research, we extend this body of research by focusing on the “second half of the equation”, that is, the consequences of employees’ displaced aggression for the targets. More specifically, the results of both studies showed that when subordinates displace their aggression toward their family because they were unable to confront their supervisors, family members are less satisfied with the relationship they hold with the subordinate and perceive that they are less valued and cared for. By highlighting the predictors (i.e., supervisor undermining) and consequences (i.e., poorer relationship outcomes) of subordinates’ displaced aggression (i.e., family undermining), we offer a more complete picture of the displaced aggression process.

Lastly, our research sheds light on the boundary conditions of the trickle-out effects of organizational dehumanization. Although social interactionist models of human behavior suggest that aggression is contingent on both person and contextual factors (Baron, 2005; Martinko et al., 2002), research on trickle-out effects has to date solely examined person moderators (i.e., hostile attribution bias [Hoobler & Brass, 2006] and gender [Restubog et al., 2011]). Responding to the recent call from Wo et al. (2019), we complement the existing literature by documenting the moderating role of a contextual variable, that is supervisors’ fear of retaliation. Informed by displaced aggression theory, we demonstrated that in situations of high fear of retaliation, supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization are more likely to displace their aggression toward their subordinates and, consequently, to engage in more supervisor undermining behaviors. These findings also elaborate on the role of fear of retaliation in the displaced aggression process. While our results, along with prior work (e.g., Dollard, 1939; Fitz, 1976; Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Miller, 1941; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985), suggest that fear of retaliation from the original harm-doer makes displaced

aggression more likely to occur, Mitchell and Ambrose (2012) found opposite effects. Specifically, Mitchell and Ambrose (2012) showed that in situations of high fear of retaliation from the supervisor, employees facing an abusive supervisor were *less* likely to displace their aggression toward their coworkers. The authors explained these results through a learned inhibition process (e.g., Bandura, 1973) suggesting that employees may have learned not to displace their aggression toward their peers (i.e., their coworkers). Mitchell and Ambrose (2012) however noted that it is important to consider the target of one's displaced aggression and acknowledged that a different pattern of results may arise when considering other targets, such as one's subordinates. Collectively, these results suggest that fear of relation can either motivate or hamper employees' displaced aggression, depending on who the target is.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Our research presents several limitations that point to promising avenues for future research. First, even though we collected multi-source data and relied on a strong theoretical framework, our results remain correlational in nature. In particular, in contrast to Study 1 which adopted a four-wave design, Study 2 was based on cross-sectional data and the results may have been affected by common method variance (Spector, 2019). To lessen this concern, and to address the endogeneity bias that may arise due to the cross-sectional nature of Study 2, we re-estimated our mediation effects using an instrumental variable approach (Cooper et al., 2020; Wooldridge, 2010). This method, which is widely used in economics, allows us to tackle endogeneity (e.g., due to omitted variables) and obtain causal estimates. To do this, we used Lewbel's (2012) identification strategy and constructed a set of instruments from our control variables (see Lagios and Méon, 2021 and Lagios et al., 2022 for an illustration of this method). Results indicated that all indirect effects were significant (see Table S5 in online supplements), which provides additional evidence for the validity of our findings. Future

research could further strengthen our results by adopting longitudinal designs with repeated measures (i.e., cross-lagged panel design).

Second, although our findings are consistent with the well-established displaced aggression theory, other theoretical perspectives may also be relevant. For instance, consistent with the self-regulation perspective (Baumeister et al., 1998), employees who experience organizational dehumanization or are undermined by their supervisor may engage in undermining behaviors toward others because they lack the resources needed to regulate their aggressive impulses and/or conform with desirable social interactions norms (e.g., Barber et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2015). Similarly, in line with the social learning perspective (Bandura, 1973), employees who feel dehumanized by their organization or undermined by their supervisor may (un)consciously model and imitate these aggressive behaviors and, consequently, undermine others (e.g., Garcia et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2012). That being said, the significant moderation effect of fear of retaliation lessens these concerns and bolsters our confidence in that displaced aggression explains why supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization engage in undermining behaviors toward their subordinates. Indeed, by explicitly measuring fear of retaliation, we employed a moderation-of-process design which allowed us to test a theoretically-relevant moderator (i.e., fear of retaliation) to gain insights into the existence of a particular mechanism or process that is not easily observable or measurable (i.e., displaced aggression; Spencer et al., 2005; Vancouver & Carlson, 2015). Moreover, given that anger plays a central role in displaced aggression, future work could measure anger as an underlying mechanism between organizational dehumanization and supervisor undermining, and between supervisor undermining and family, to provide further evidence that displaced aggression is indeed at stake (e.g., Wo et al., 2015).

Third, we were unable to empirically test the possibility that supervisors who experience organizational dehumanization may lash out against their organization when they

do not fear retaliation from their organization. In line with this, Stinglhamber et al. (2022) recently showed that organizational dehumanization is positively related to counterproductive work behaviors through thoughts of revenge. Thus, future research could replicate and extend our model by also measuring supervisors' deviant behaviors directed toward the organization. In doing so, it would be worthwhile to control for supervisors' trait aggression and/or include implicit measures of aggression (e.g., Wiita et al., 2020).

Fourth, although we conceptualized and operationalized organizational dehumanization as an individual-level perception, organizational dehumanization could also exist at the climate level. That is, employees within the same organization could have similar levels of organizational dehumanization, reflecting a dehumanizing organizational climate (e.g., Nguyen, Besson, & Stinglhamber, 2022). Thus, an interesting avenue for future work would be to use multilevel modeling to examine whether shared perceptions of organizational dehumanization influence individuals' work-related attitudes and behaviors.

Fifth, as we did not measure subordinates' fear of retaliation, we were unable to test its moderating role in the supervisor undermining-family undermining relationship. Future research could replicate our results by examining fear of retaliation as a second-stage moderator. That is, testing whether subordinates who fear retaliation from their supervisor are more inclined to displace their aggression toward their family. In addition to fear of retaliation, other factors may influence the extent to which mistreated employees displace their aggression toward others. With regard to contextual factors, future work can explore whether the target's behavior fuels one's aggression displacement. Indeed, displaced aggression research suggests that the target may behave in a way that triggers one to displace one's aggression (Miller et al., 2003; Pedersen et al., 2008). Specifically, "an initial provocation and a subsequent [minor or trivial] triggering event can interact to augment aggressive responding", such that "these two events can synergistically combine to produce a

level of [displaced] aggression that exceeds that predicted by the additive combination of the independent effects of the initial and triggering provocations” (Pedersen et al., 2008, p. 1383). Future studies could build on this notion of *triggered* displaced aggression (Miller et al., 2003) to investigate the extent to which minor provocations (i.e., triggers) from the subordinates (e.g., work delays) or the family members (e.g., dishes not done) exacerbate employees’ displaced aggression. As for person moderators, Denson et al. (2006) noted that “there is good reason to believe that personality differences exist in the tendency to engage in displaced aggression” (p. 1032). They introduced the concept of *trait* displaced aggression, a personality variable that depicts a general tendency to inhibit aggression toward the original harm-doer and instead displace it toward innocent others. Therefore, supervisors (or subordinates) who experience organizational dehumanization (or supervisor undermining) and who are high (relative to low) in trait displaced aggression may be more inclined to displace their aggression toward their subordinates (or family members) through hostile behaviors.

Lastly, besides trickling out to affect family members, organizational dehumanization could trickle out to influence other parties, such as the organization’s customers or clients. In the same vein, organizational dehumanization could trickle in other directions too: trickle downwards (from managers to supervisors to subordinates) or trickle horizontally (across coworkers of the same hierarchical level; Wo et al., 2019). A promising area of future work would therefore be to explore the other types of trickle effects triggered by organizational dehumanization.

Practical Implications

Our research also carries implications for managerial practice. First, our findings showed that the way supervisors feel treated by their organization has important implications for others, both at and off work. Yet, because trickle effects are insidious phenomena that occur indirectly, “managers and employees often are unaware of when and how they take

place, who the original source of the effects was, or who the eventual recipient of the effects might be” (Wo et al., 2019, p. 2265). Thus, helping supervisors realize that their behaviors may have direct and indirect consequences for others appears to be a necessary first step to lessen the harmful trickle effects triggered by organizational dehumanization. Simultaneously, organizations could take advantage of trickle effects and promote the flow of positive practices that would benefit them. Supporting this, Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) showed that supervisors’ perceptions of organizational support trickled down to enhance subordinates’ in-role and extra-role performance. Similarly, Tepper and Taylor (2003) demonstrated that supervisors’ perceptions of procedural justice trickled down to increase subordinates’ organizational citizenship behaviors.

Second, as our results suggested, supervisors who feel dehumanized by their organization displace their aggression toward their subordinates, particularly when they fear retaliation from the organization. To avoid, or at least minimize, these negative behaviors, organizations should decrease organizational dehumanization. This could be achieved by implementing effective organizational rules (Lagios, Nguyen et al., 2022) or setting up practices that convey to supervisors that their well-being is cared for and their contributions valued (e.g., training programs promoting personal growth; Caesens et al., 2017). In a similar vein, organizations may create an environment in which employees would not be punished for speaking up or raising sensitive issues (Morrison et al., 2011).

Third, as organizational dehumanization is a form of dignity violation (Värynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018), a way to lessen the displaced aggression behaviors triggered by organizational dehumanization would be to make work more decent. Notably, this could be achieved by giving employees the opportunity to engage in leisurely activities and rest outside work, or by providing them with safe working conditions (physically and emotionally),

healthcare access, and adequate compensation (Blustein et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2016, 2017; England et al., 2020).

Lastly, our work has implications to the career and vocational behavior literature as it provides evidence that mistreatment at work has a pernicious influence on work and family life. The study responds to calls for research examining the work and career lives of people who do not have a high degree of volition and opportunity due to oppression that originates from organizational and social structures (Blustein et al., 2019). We hope that the research presented here highlights the consequences of organizational dehumanization outside organizational boundaries and call for continued research on this topic.

References

- Aguinis, H., & Gottfredson, R. K. (2010). Best-practice recommendations for estimating interaction effects using moderated multiple regression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(6), 776-786. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.686>
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 653-668. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.653>
- 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. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.191>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2013). The Spillover-Crossover model. In J. Grzywacs & E. Demerouti (Eds.), *New frontiers in work and family research* (pp. 54-70). Hove Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.
- Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Barber, L. K., Taylor, S. G., Burton, J. P., & Bailey, S. F. (2017). A self-regulatory perspective of work-to-home undermining spillover/crossover: Examining the roles of sleep and exercise. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(5), 753–763. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000196>
- Baron, R. A. (2005). Workplace aggression and violence: Insights from basic research. In R. W. Griffin & A. M. O’Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 23- 61). New York: Jossey-Bass.

- Bastian, B., & Haslam, N. (2011). Experiencing dehumanization: Cognitive and emotional effects of everyday dehumanization. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 33(4), 295-303. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01973533.2011.614132>
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Muraven, M., & Tice, D. M. (1998). Ego depletion: Is the active self a limited resource? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(5), 1252-1265. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.5.1252>
- Beach, S. R. H., Fincham, F. D., Katz J., & Bradbury, T. N. (1996) Social Support in marriage. In G. R. Pierce, B. R. Sarason, & I. G. Sarason (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Support and the Family* (pp. 43-65). Boston, MA: Springer.
- Becker, T. E., Atinc, G., Breauh, J. A., Carlson, K. D., Edwards, J. R., & Spector, P. E. (2016). Statistical control in correlational studies: 10 essential recommendations for organizational researchers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(2), 157-167. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2053>
- Bell, C. M., & Khoury, C. (2011). Organizational de/humanization, deindividuation, anomie, and in/justice. In S. Gilliland, D. Steiner, & D. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on organizational justice and ethics* (pp.167-197). Information Age Publishing.
- Bell, C.M., & Khoury, C. (2016). Organizational powerlessness, dehumanization, and gendered effects of procedural justice. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 31(2), 570-585. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-09-2014-0267>
- Berkowitz, L. (1989). Frustration-aggression hypothesis: Examination and reformulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106(1), 59-73. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.106.1.59>
- Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1998). Revenge in organization: The good, the bad, and the ugly. In R. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Non-violent dysfunctional behavior* (pp. 49-67). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

- Blustein, D. L., Kenny, M. E., Di Fabio, A., & Guichard, J. (2019). Expanding the impact of the psychology of working: Engaging psychology in the struggle for decent work and human rights. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 27(1), 3-28.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072718774002>
- Bordia, P., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, S., & Tang, R. L. (2010). Breach begets breach: Trickle-down effects of psychological contract breach on customer service. *Journal of Management*, 36(6), 1578-1607. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310378366>
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185-216. <https://doi.org/10.1177/135910457000100301>
- Brison, N., Stinglhamber, F., & Caesens, G. (2022). Organizational dehumanization. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Psychology*. Oxford University Press.
- Caesens, G., Nguyen, N., & Stinglhamber, F. (2019). Abusive supervision and organizational dehumanization. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 34(5), 709-728.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9592-3>
- 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. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2017.1319817>
- Caplan, G. (1974). *Support systems and community mental health*. New-York: Behavioral Publications.
- Cheung, G. W., & Lau, R. S. (2017). Accuracy of parameter estimates and confidence intervals in moderated mediation models: A comparison of regression and latent moderated structural equations. *Organizational Research Methods*, 20(4), 746-769.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428115595869>
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation

of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 386-400.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386>

Cooper, B., Eva, N., Fazlelahi, F. Z., Newman, A., Lee, A., & Obschonka, M. (2020).

Addressing common method variance and endogeneity in vocational behavior research:

A review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Vocational*

Behavior, 121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103472>

Demoulin, S., Maurage, P., & Stinglhamber, F. (2021). Exploring metadehumanization and self-dehumanization from a target perspective. In *The Routledge handbook of dehumanization* (pp. 260-274). Routledge.

Demoulin, S., Nguyen, N., Chevallereau, T., Fontesse, S., Bastart, J., Stinglhamber, F., & Maurage, P. (2021). Examining the role of fundamental psychological needs in the development of metadehumanization: A multi-population approach. *The British Journal of Social Psychology*, 60(1), 196-221. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjso.12380>

Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., & Miller, N. (2006). The displaced aggression questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(6), 1032–1051. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.6.1032>

Dollard, J., Doob, L., Miller, N., Mowrer, O., & Sears, R. (1939). *Frustration and aggression*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(2), 331-351. <https://doi.org/10.5465/3069350>

Duffy, R. D., Allan, B. A., England, J. W., Blustein, D. L., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P., Ferreira, J., & Santos, E. J. R. (2017). The development and initial validation of the Decent Work Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 64(2), 206–221. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000191>

Duffy, R. D., Blustein, D. L., Diemer, M. A., & Autin, K. L. (2016). The Psychology of

- Working Theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 63(2), 127-148.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000140>
- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 178-199. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2000.2791609>
- England, J. W., Duffy, R. D., Gensmer, N. P., Kim, H. J., Buyukgoze-Kavas, A., & Larson-Konar, D. M. (2020). Women attaining decent work: The important role of workplace climate in Psychology of Working Theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 67(2), 251–264. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000411>
- Ferguson, M. (2012). You cannot leave it at the office: Spillover and crossover of coworker incivility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(4), 571-588.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.774>
- Fitz, D. (1976). A renewed look at Miller's conflict theory of aggression displacement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 33(6), 725-732.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.33.6.725>
- Ford, H. (1922). *My Life and Work*. New York: Garden City Publishing Company.
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(6), 915-931. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1379\(199911\)20:6<915::AID-JOB918>3.0.CO;2-6](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199911)20:6<915::AID-JOB918>3.0.CO;2-6)
- Frieder, R. E., Hochwarter, W. A., & DeOrtentiis, P. S. (2015). Attenuating the negative effects of abusive supervision: The role of proactive voice behavior and resource management ability. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(5), 821-837.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.06.00>

- Fülöp, F., Bóthe, B., Gál, É., Cachia, J. Y. A., Demetrovics, Z., & Orosz, G. (2022). A two-study validation of a single-item measure of relationship satisfaction: RAS-1. *Current Psychology*, 41, 2109-2121. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-020-00727-y>
- Garcia, P. R. J. M., Restubog, S. L. D., Kiewitz, C., Scott, K. L., & Tang, R. L. (2014). Roots run deep: Investigating psychological mechanisms between history of family aggression and abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(5), 883-897. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036463>
- Gonzalez Avilés, T., Borschel, E., Pusch, S., & Neyer, F. J. (2022). Not all flowers bloom in April: Self-esteem development surrounding the first romantic relationship during adolescence and emerging adulthood. *European Journal of Personality*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/08902070221124723>
- Gross, J. J., Carstensen, L. L., Pasupathi, M., Tsai, J., Gottestam, K., & Hsu, A. Y. C. (1997). Emotion and aging: Experience, expression, and control. *Psychology & Aging*, 12(4), 590-599.
- Harvey, P., Stoner, J., Hochwarter, W., & Kacmar, C. (2007). Coping with abusive supervision: The neutralizing effects of ingratiation and positive affect on negative employee outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 264-280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.008>
- Haslam, N. (2006). Dehumanization: An integrative review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10(3), 252-264. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1003_4
- Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 1125-1133. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1125>
- Hoobler, J. M., & Hu, J. (2013). A model of injustice, abusive supervision, and negative affect. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 256-269.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.11.005>

Ilies, R., Keeney, J., & Scott, B. A. (2011). Work–family interpersonal capitalization: Sharing positive work events at home. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 114(2), 115-126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.10.008>

Kark, R., & Eagly, A. H. (2010). Gender and leadership: Negotiating the labyrinth. In J. C. Chrisler & D. R. McCreary (Eds.), *Handbook of gender research in psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 443-468).

Kiewitz, C., Restubog, S. L. D., Zagenczyk, T. J., Scott, K. D., Garcia, P. R. J. M., & Tang, R. L. (2012). Sins of the parents: Self-control as a buffer between supervisors' previous experience of family undermining and subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervision. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 869-882. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.05.005>

Lagios, C., & Caesens, G. (2022). Organizational Dehumanization: Its Nomological Network and Measurement. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2022, (1).

<https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2022.16420symposium>

Lagios, C., Caesens, G., Nguyen, N., & Stinglhamber, F. (2022). Explaining the negative consequences of organizational dehumanization: The mediating role of psychological need thwarting. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 21(2), 86-93.

<https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000286>

Lagios, C., Lagios, N., Stinglhamber, F., & Caesens, G. (2022). Predictors and Consequences of Work Alienation in Times of Crisis: Evidence from Two Longitudinal Studies During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Current Psychology*. Advance online publication.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-03372-9>

Lagios, C., Nguyen, N., Stinglhamber, F., & Caesens, G. (2022). Dysfunctional rules in organizations: The mediating role of organizational dehumanization in the relationship

- between red tape and employees' outcomes. *European Management Journal*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2022.06.002>
- Lagios, N., & Méon, P. G. (2021). *Experts, Information, Reviews, and Coordination: Evidence on How Literary Prizes Affect Sales*. CEBRIG Working Paper N°21-011. <https://ideas.repec.org/p/sol/wpaper/2013-328423.html>
- Lagios, N., Méon, P. G., & Tojerow, I. (2022). *Is Demonstrating against the Far Right Worth It? Evidence from French Presidential Elections*. IZA DP No. 15589. <https://docs.iza.org/dp15589.pdf>
- Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 841-866. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307307635>
- Lavner, J. A., & Clark, M. A. (2017). Workload and marital satisfaction over time: Testing lagged spillover and crossover effects during the newlywed years. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 101, 67-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.05.002>
- Lee, K., Kim, E., Bhawe, D. P., & Duffy, M. K. (2016). Why victims of undermining at work become perpetrators of undermining: An integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(6), 915-924. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000092>
- Lewbel, A. (2012). Using heteroscedasticity to identify and estimate mismeasured and endogenous regressor models. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*, 30(1), 67-80. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07350015.2012.643126>
- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 9(2), 151-173. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_1

- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1187-1212. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0400>
- Liu, Y., Wang, M., Chang, C.-H., Shi, J., Zhou, L., & Shao, R. (2015). Work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and displaced aggression toward others: The moderating roles of workplace interpersonal conflict and perceived managerial family support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(3), 793-808. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038387>
- Lykken, D. T. (1968). Statistical significance in psychological research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 70(3, Pt.1), 151-159. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0026141>
- Marcus-Newhall, A., Pedersen, W. C., Carlson, M., & Miller, N. 2000. Displaced aggression is alive and well: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(4), 670-689. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.78.4.670>
- Marsh, H. W., Wen, Z., & Hau, K. T. (2004). Structural equation models of latent interactions: Evaluation of alternative estimation strategies and indicator construction. *Psychological Methods*, 9, 275-300. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.9.3.275>
- Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10, 36-50. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00192>
- Meier, L. L., & Cho, E. (2019). Work stressors and partner social undermining: Comparing negative affect and psychological detachment as mechanisms. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 24(3), 359-372. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000120>
- Miller, N. E. (1941). The frustration-aggression hypothesis. *Psychological Review*, 48(4), 337-342. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0055861>

- Miller, N., Pedersen, W. C., Earleywine, M., & Pollock, V. E. (2003). A theoretical model of triggered displaced aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 7(1), 75-97. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0701_5
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2012). Employees' behavioral reactions to supervisor aggression: An examination of individual and situational factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1148-1170. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029452>
- Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: A cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(1), 183-191. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020744>
- Muhammad, L., & Sarwar, A. (2021). When and why organizational dehumanization leads to deviant work behaviors in hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 99, 103044. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103044>
- Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2013). Age and innovation-related behavior: The joint moderating effects of supervisor undermining and proactive personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(5), 583-606. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1802>
- Nguyen, N., & Stinglhamber, F. (2021). Emotional labor and core self-evaluations as mediators between organizational dehumanization and job satisfaction. *Current Psychology*, 40(2), 831-839. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9988-2>
- Nguyen, N., Besson, T., & Stinglhamber, F. (2022). Emotional labor: The role of organizational dehumanization. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 27(2), 179-194. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000289>
- Nguyen, N., Cheung, F., & Stinglhamber, F. (2022). Emotional labor: A two-wave longitudinal person-centered approach. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 29(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1037/str0000232>
- Norton, R. (1983). Measuring marital quality: A critical look at the dependent variable.

- Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 45(1), 141-151. <https://doi.org/10.2307/351302>
- O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., & Griffin, R. (2004). Dark side issues: Concluding observations and directions for future research. In R. W. Griffin & A. M. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 462-486). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ou, J., Yun, H., Zhang, K., Du, Y., He, Y., & Wang, Y. (2022). Prepandemic relationship satisfaction is related to postpandemic COVID-19 anxiety: A four-wave study in China. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02654075221091993>
- Pedersen, W. C., Bushman, B. J., Vasquez, E. A., & Miller, N. (2008). Kicking the (barking) dog effect: The moderating role of target attributes on triggered displaced aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 34(10), 1382-1395. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167208321268>
- Pierce, G. R., Sarason, B. R., & Sarason, I. G. (1990). Integrating social support perspectives: Working models, personal relationships, and situational factors. In S. Duck (Ed.), *Personal relationships and social support* (pp. 30-65). London: Sage.
- Rafferty, A. E., Restubog, S. L. D., & Jimmieson, N. L. (2010). Losing sleep: Examining the cascading effects of supervisors' experience of injustice on subordinates' psychological health. *Work & Stress*, 24(1), 36-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678371003715135>
- Reknes, I., Notelaers, G., Iliescu, D., & Einarsen, S. V. (2021). The influence of target personality in the development of workplace bullying. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 26(4), 291-303. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000272>
- Restubog, S. L. D., Scott, K. L., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2011). When distress hits home: The role of contextual factors and psychological distress in predicting employees' responses to abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(4), 713-729. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021593>

- Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(6), 658-672. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256963>
- Sanz-Vergel, A. I., Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., & Nielsen, K. (2015). The thin line between work and home: The spillover and crossover of daily conflicts. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 88(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12075>
- Sarwar, A., Khan, J., Muhammad, L., Mubarak, N., & Jaafar, M. (2021). Relationship between organisational dehumanization and nurses' deviant behaviours: A moderated mediation model. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 29(5), 1036-1045. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13241>
- Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. M. (2001). A scaled difference chi-square test statistic for moment structure analysis. *Psychometrika*, 66(4), 507-514. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02296192>
- Shanock, L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 689-695. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.689>
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (2004). Broadening our understanding of organizational retaliatory behavior. In R. W. Griffin & A. M. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 373-402). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Spector, P. E. (2019). Do not cross me: Optimizing the use of cross-sectional designs. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 34(2), 125-137. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-09613-8>
- Spencer, S. J., Zanna, M. P., & Fong, G. T. (2005). Establishing a causal chain: Why experiments are often more effective than mediational analyses in examining

- psychological processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89(6), 845-851. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.89.6.845>
- Spielberger, C. D. (1996). *State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory: Professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Stinglhamber F., Caesens G., Chalmagne B., Demoulin S., & Maurage P. (2021). Leader-member exchange and organizational dehumanization: The role of supervisor's organizational embodiment. *European Management Journal*, 39(6), 745-754. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2021.01.006>
- Stinglhamber, F., Nguyen, N., Ohana, M., Lagios, C., Demoulin, S., & Maurage, P. (2022). For whom and why organizational dehumanization is linked to deviant behaviours. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12409>
- Stollberger, J., Las Heras, M., Rofcanin, Y., & Bosch, M. J. (2019). Serving followers and family? A trickle-down model of how servant leadership shapes employee work performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 112, 158-171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.02.003>
- Sumer, H. C., & Knight, P. A. (2001). How do people with different attachment styles balance work and family? A personality perspective on work-family linkage. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(4), 653-663. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.4.653>
- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *Scientific Management*. New York: Harper
- Tedeschi, J. T., & Norman, N. M. (1985). A social psychological interpretation of displaced aggression. *Advances in Group Processes*, 2, 29-56.
- Tepper, B. J., & Taylor, E. C. (2003). Relationships among supervisors' and subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46, 97-105. <https://doi.org/10.5465/30040679>

- Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 109(2), 156-167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2009.03.004>
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. S. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(1), 101-123. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2006.00725.x>
- Thompson, M. J., Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Vogel, R. M. (2020). The cost of being ignored: Emotional exhaustion in the work and family domains. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(2), 186-195. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000433>
- Thompson, M., Carlson, D. S., & Hoobler, J. (2017). Spillover and crossover of workplace aggression. In N. A. Bowling & M. S. Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and theory on workplace aggression* (pp.186-220). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vancouver, J. B., & Carlson, B. W. (2015). All things in moderation, including tests of mediation (at least some of the time). *Organizational Research Methods*, 18(1), 70-91. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114553059>
- Vaux, A., Riedel, S., & Stewart, D. (1987). Modes of social support: The social support behaviors (SS-B) scale. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15(2), 209-232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00919279>
- Väyrynen, T., & Laari-Salmela, S. (2018). Men, mammals, or machines? Dehumanization embedded in organizational practices. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 147(1), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2947-z>
- Vinokur, A. D., & van Ryn, M. (1993). Social support and undermining in close relationships: Their independent effects on the mental health of unemployed persons. *Journal of*

Personality and Social Psychology, 65(2), 350-359. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.65.2.350>

Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H., & Caplan, R. D. (1996). Hard times and hurtful partners: How financial strain affects depression and relationship satisfaction of unemployed persons and their spouses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 166-179. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.1.166>

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063>

Weber, M. (2012). *The theory of social and economic organization*. (A.M. Henderson & T. Parsons, Trans.). New York, NY: The Free Press. (Original work published 1947).

Westman, M., Vinokur, A. D., Hamilton, V. L., & Roziner, I. (2004). Crossover of Marital Dissatisfaction During Military Downsizing Among Russian Army Officers and Their Spouses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 769-779. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.769>

Wiita, N. E., Meyer, R. D., Kelly, E. D., & Collins, B. J. (2020). Not aggressive or just faking it? Examining faking and faking detection on the conditional reasoning test of aggression. *Organizational Research Methods*, 23(1), 96-123. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428117703685>

Wo, D. X., Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2015). What drives trickle-down effects? A test of multiple mediation processes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(6), 1848-1868. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0670>

Wo, D. X., Schminke, M., & Ambrose, M. L. (2019). Trickle-down, trickle-out, trickle-up, trickle-in, and trickle-around effects: An integrative perspective on indirect social

influence phenomena. *Journal of Management*, 45(6), 2263-2292.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318812951>

Wooldridge, J. M. (2010). *Econometric analysis of cross section and panel data*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wu, L.-Z., Kwan, H. K., Liu, J., & Resick, C. J. (2012). Work-to-family spillover effects of abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(7), 714-731.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683941211259539>

Yoon, J. E., & Lawrence, E. (2013). Psychological victimization as a risk factor for the developmental course of marriage. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 27(1), 53-64.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031137>

Zhang, H., Chan, D. K.-S., Xia, S., Tian, Y., & Zhu, J. (2017). Cognitive, emotional, and motivational consequences of dehumanization. *Social Cognition*, 35(1), 18-39.

<https://doi.org/10.1521/soco.2017.35.1.18>

Table 1
Participants' Demographic Characteristics for Study 1

	Subordinate		Supervisor		Spouse	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>
Age			31.97 (5.54)		28.32 (5.28)	
20 years old or under		-				
21 to 25 years old		-				
26 to 30 years old		-				
31 to 35 years old		39 (21.2%)				
36 to 40 years old		84 (45.7%)				
41 to 45 years old		43 (23.4%)				
46 to 50 years old		18 (9.8%)				
Over 50 years old		-				
Gender						
Male		105 (57.1%)		101 (54.9%)		79 (42.9%)
Female		79 (42.9%)		83 (45.1%)		105 (57.1%)
Industry ^a						
Accounting and finance		40 (21.7%)		40 (21.7%)		
Human resources		30 (16.3%)		30 (16.3%)		
Customer service		23 (12.5%)		23 (12.5%)		
General management		23 (12.5%)		23 (12.5%)		
Manufacturing and production		19 (10.3%)		19 (10.3%)		
Organizational tenure						
Less than 1 year		-		-		
1 to 5 years		70 (38%)		13 (7.1%)		
6 to 10 years		88 (47.8%)		111 (60.3%)		
11 to 15 years		24 (13%)		54 (29.3%)		
16 to 20 years		2 (1.1%)		6 (3.3%)		
21 to 25 years		-		-		
26 to 30 years		-		-		
Over 30 years		-		-		

Note. *N* = 184. Only the five most frequent industries are displayed. ^a = measured by the subordinate.

Table 2*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Variables for Study 1*

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1. Gender (sup)	-												
2. Age (sup)	-.04	-											
3. Organizational tenure (sup)	-.05	.40***	-										
4. Gender (sub)	.12	.05	.04	-									
5. Age (sub)	.04	.30***	.23***	.00	-								
6. Organizational tenure (sub)	.06	.18**	.14	.06	.70***	-							
7. T1 Trait anger (sub)	-.11	.12	.02	.02	-.15**	-.06	(.92/.92)						
8. Gender (spouse)	-.12	-.05	-.04	-1.00***	.00	-.06	-.02	-					
9. Age (spouse)	.04	.20**	.19**	.32***	.74***	.53***	-.11	-.32***	-				
10. T1 Organizational dehumanization (sup)	-.20**	.14	.05	-.17**	-.15**	-.09	.27***	.17**	-.10	(.93/.92)			
11. T2 Supervisor undermining (sub)	-.13	.26***	.14	-.05	-.04	.07	.51***	.05	-.01	.51***	(.97/.98)		
12. T3 Spouse undermining (spouse)	-.14	.12	-.05	-.14	.07	.18**	.33***	.14	.06	.15**	.32***	(.83/.83)	
13. T4 Relationship satisfaction (spouse)	.09	-.23**	-.04	.04	.13	.03	-.31***	-.04	.03	-.26***	-.35***	-.40***	-
Means	-	5.22	3.29	-	31.97	2.77	3.53	-	28.18	3.11	2.84	2.42	1.51
SD	-	.89	.64	-	5.54	.71	1.48	-	5.61	1.14	1.63	1.05	1.64

Note. $N = 184$. Reliability alpha values are on the diagonal. Gender was coded 0 for *male* and 1 for *female*. Supervisors' age was coded 1 for 20 years old or under, 2 for 21 to 25 years old, 3 for 26 to 30 years old, 4 for 31 to 35 years old, 5 for 36 to 40 years old, 6 for 41 to 45 years old, 7 for 46 to 50 years old, and 8 for over 50 years old. Supervisors and subordinates' organizational tenure was coded 1 for less than 1 year, 2 for 1 to 5 years, 3 for 6 to 10 years, 4 for 11 to 15 years, 5 for 16 to 20 years, 6 for 21 to 25 years, 7 for 26 to 30 years, and 8 for over 30 years. Sup = measured by the supervisor. Sub = measured by the subordinate. Spouse = measured by the spouse.

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

Table 3*Participants' Demographic Characteristics for Study 2*

	Subordinate		Supervisor		Family member	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>
Age	44.53 (10.81)		47.97 (9.20)		43.44 (14.34)	
Gender						
Male		71 (40.6%)		120 (68.6%)		82 (46.9%)
Female		104 (59.4%)		55 (31.4%)		93 (53.1%)
Other		-		-		-
Education						
Primary school		1 (0.6%)		1 (0.6%)		1 (0.6%)
High school		47 (26.9%)		22 (12.6%)		53 (36%)
Bachelor's degree		70 (40%)		45 (25.7%)		56 (32%)
Master's degree		50 (28.6%)		92 (52.6%)		48 (27.4%)
PhD		3 (1.7%)		12 (6.9%)		4 (2.3%)
Other		4 (2.3%)		3 (1.7%)		3 (1.7%)
Organizational size ^a						
1-9 employees		22 (12.6%)		22 (12.6%)		
10-49 employees		37 (21.1%)		37 (21.1%)		
50-249 employees		23 (13.1%)		23 (13.1%)		
250-499 employees		21 (12%)		21 (12%)		
500-999 employees		14 (8%)		14 (8%)		
1,000-1,999 employees		11 (6.3%)		11 (6.3%)		
2000-4,999 employees		18 (10.3%)		18 (10.3%)		
5,000-9,999 employees		8 (4.6%)		8 (4.6%)		
More than 10,000 employees		21 (12%)		21 (12%)		
Time						
Full-time		131 (74.9%)		157 (89.7%)		
Part-time		35 (20%)		14 (8%)		
Other		9 (5.1%)		4 (2.3%)		
Contract						
Permanent		159 (90.9%)		150 (85.7%)		
Fixed term		11 (6.2%)		2 (1.2%)		
Other		5 (2.9%)		23 (13.1%)		
Organizational sector ^a						
Private sector		116 (66.3%)		116 (66.3%)		
Public sector		59 (33.7%)		59 (33.7%)		
Industry ^a						
Health and social care		22 (12.6%)		22 (12.6%)		
Public administration		18 (10.3%)		18 (10.3%)		
Teaching and education		17 (9.7%)		17 (9.7%)		
Accountancy, banking, finance		16 (9.1%)		16 (9.1%)		
Retail and sales		16 (9.1%)		16 (9.1%)		
Organizational tenure (years)	13.46 (10.29)		15.93 (10.01)			
Supervisor-subordinate tenure of relationship ^a	6.64 (6.96)		6.64 (6.96)			
Supervisor-subordinate number of hours of interaction per week ^a	10.57 (11.22)		10.57 (11.22)			
Number of days of homeworking per week	2.01 (2.12)		2.22 (2.26)			
Number of supervised subordinates			34.62 (64.45)			
Tenure in a supervisory role (years)			12.63 (9.43)			
Family member status						
Partner or spouse						115 (65.7%)
Sibling						10 (5.7%)
Child (over 18 years old)						28 (16%)
Parent						22 (12.6%)
Employment status						
Working						123 (70.3%)
Not working						52 (29.7%)
Subordinate-family member tenure of relationship (years) ^b	19.38 (11.15)				19.38 (11.15)	
Subordinate-family member number of hours of interaction per week ^b	36.63 (30.20)				36.63 (30.20)	
Subordinate and family member living together ^b						
Yes		137 (78.3%)				137 (78.3%)
No		38 (21.7%)				38 (21.7%)
Subordinate and family member being confined together due to the COVID-19 pandemic ^b						
Yes		83 (47.4%)				83 (47.4%)
No		92 (52.6%)				92 (52.6%)

Note. *N* = 175. Only the five most frequent industries are displayed. ^a = measured by the supervisor; ^b = measured by the family member.

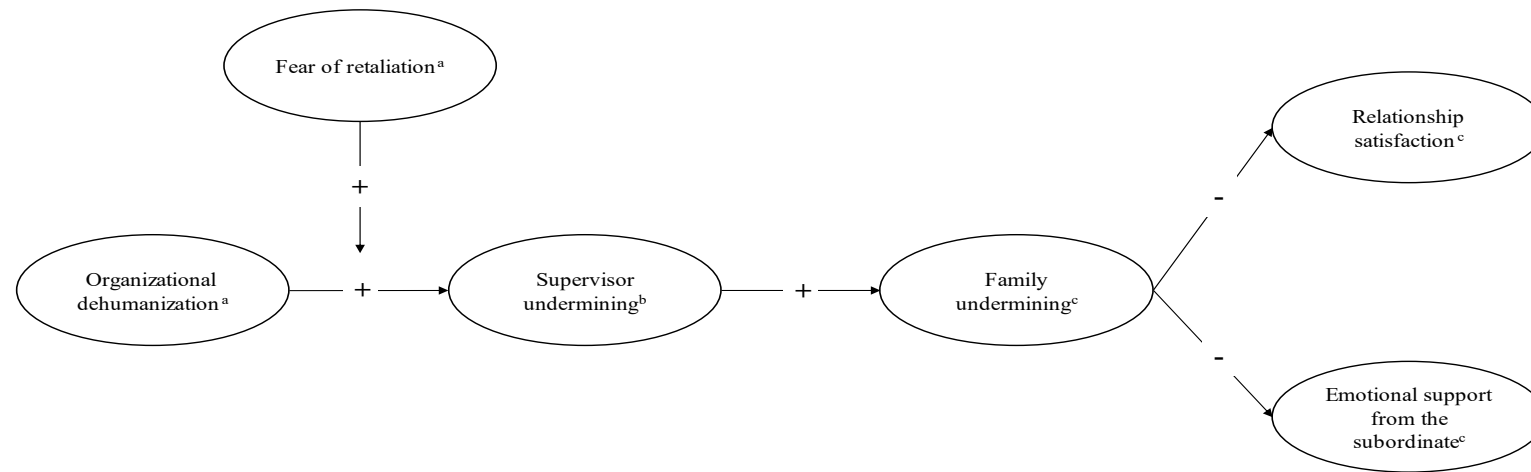
Table 4
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Variables for Study 2

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.
1. Gender (sup)	-																				
2. Age (sup)	-.23**	-																			
3. Supervisor-subordinate tenure of relationship (sup)	-.07	.35***	-																		
4. Number of subordinates (sup)	.04	.12	.05	-																	
5. Supervisor-subordinate number of hours of interaction per week (sup)	-.11	.01	.06	-.12	-																
6. COVID-19 work impact (sup)	.18*	-.05	-.15	.08	-.23**	-															
7. COVID-19 depression (sup)	.09	-.16*	-.11	-.10	-.07	.31**	-														
8. Procedural justice (sup)	-.16*	.20**	.03	.04	.08	-.08	-.11	(.77/.77)													
9. Gender (sub)	.23**	-.12	.07	-.07	-.10	.07	.19*	-.05	-												
10. Age (sub)	.06	.23**	.33***	.08	-.06	-.07	-.13	.00	.02	-											
11. COVID work impact (sub)	.23**	.06	.00	.15	-.22**	.42***	.15*	-.01	.03	-.03	-										
12. COVID depression (sub)	.16*	-.15	-.02	.02	-.03	.24**	.23**	.06	.02	-.15*	.34***	-									
13. Subordinate-family member tenure of relationship (fam)	.01	.18**	.07	.08	.13	-.02	-.06	.07	-.05	.35***	-.03	.03	-								
14. Subordinate-family member number of hours of interaction per week (fam)	.09	-.06	-.02	-.03	.02	.07	.09	.01	-.01	.01	-.03	-.03	-.16*	-							
15. Subordinate-family member being confined together (fam)	.00	-.11	-.09	-.19*	.25**	-.12	.07	.07	.08	-.14	-.19*	-.06	-.19*	-.08	-						
16. Organizational dehumanization (sup)	-.02	-.17**	-.09	-.05	.08	-.09	.17*	-.45***	.01	-.17*	-.07	.13	-.11	.05	.01	(.91/.91)					
17. Fear of retaliation (sup)	.07	-.07	-.01	-.04	.07	-.01	.08	-.28***	.01	-.02	-.08	.09	.15*	.01	-.01	.42***	(.81/.90)				
18. Supervisor undermining (sub)	.00	.05	.02	.00	.08	-.04	.00	-.06	.08	-.01	-.04	.06	-.09	.05	.17*	.24**	.09	(.87.88)			
19. Family undermining (fam)	.06	.13	.05	.10	.03	-.04	.05	-.04	.01	.03	-.06	.00	-.04	.02	-.02	.13	.07	.17*	(.90/.90)		
20. Relationship satisfaction (fam)	-.12	-.09	.04	-.02	.05	.04	-.07	-.01	.08	-.03	.06	.06	-.08	.07	-.06	.00	.06	-.07	-.40***	(.95/.95)	
21. Perceptions of emotional support (fam)	-.08	-.12	.03	-.10	.13	.05	-.15	.02	.06	-.01	-.06	-.05	-.10	.14	.01	-.09	-.03	-.03	-.39***	.75***	(.92/.92)
Means	-	47.97	6.64	34.62	10.57	4.90	3.26	5.31	-	45.53	4.39	3.39	19.38	36.63	-	2.76	3.01	1.16	2.65	6.13	4.05
SD	-	9.20	6.96	64.45	11.33	1.59	1.58	.86	-	10.81	1.74	1.58	11.14	30.20	-	1.26	1.50	.39	1.38	1.17	.76

Note. *N* = 175. Reliability alpha values are on the diagonal. Gender was coded 0 for *male* and 1 for *female*. Tenure of relationship is indicated in years. Subordinate and family member being confined together was coded 0 for *yes* and 1 for *no*. Sup = measured by the supervisor. Sub = measured by the subordinate. Fam = measured by the family member.

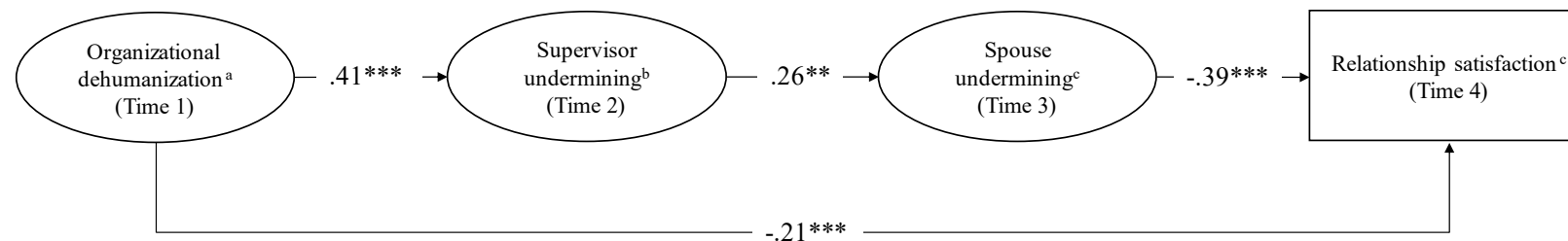
p* < .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001.

Figure 1
Theoretical Model



Note. ^a = measured by the supervisor; ^b = measured by the subordinate; ^c = measured by the family member.

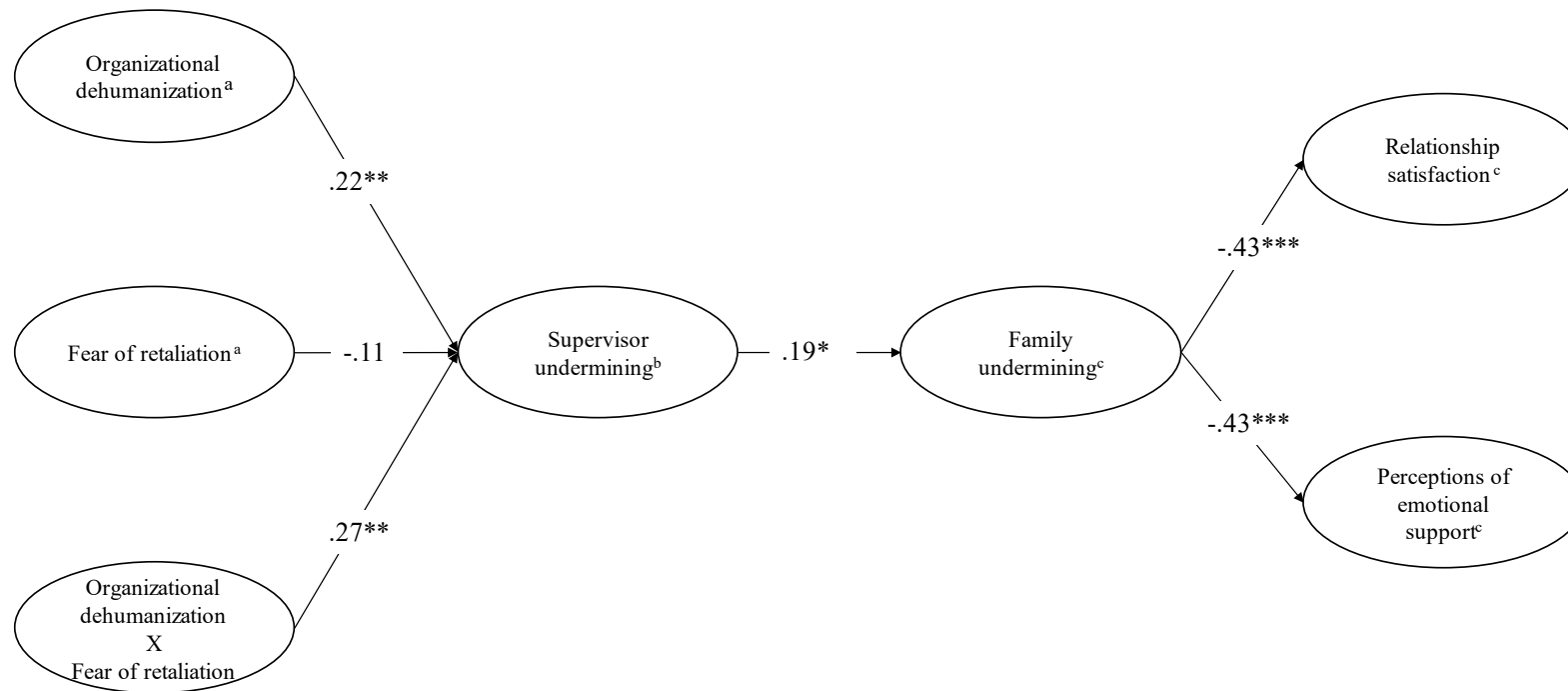
Figure 2
Standardized Coefficients for the Retained Structural Equation Model for Study 1



Note. $N = 184$. ^a = measured by the supervisor; ^b = measured by the subordinate; ^c = measured by the spouse. For clarity purposes, the control variables are not represented. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 3

Standardized Coefficients for the Retained Structural Equation Model for Study 2

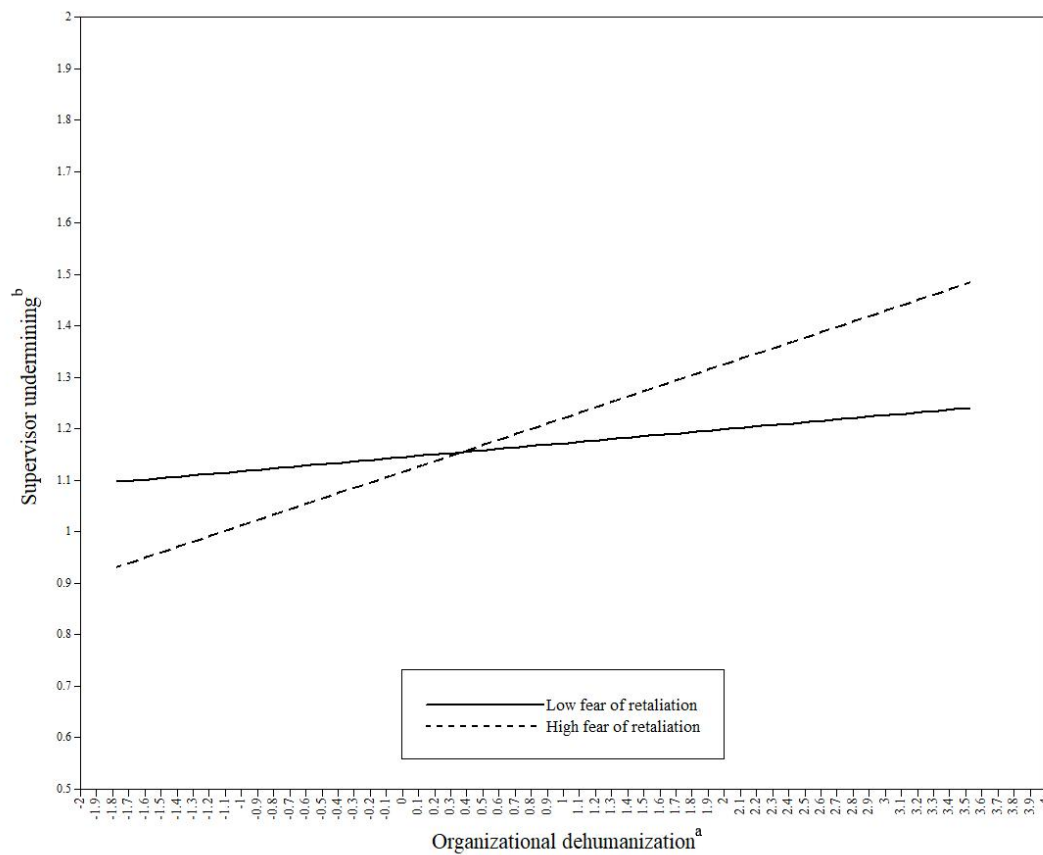


Note. $N = 175$. ^a = measured by the supervisor; ^b = measured by the subordinate; ^c = measured by the family member. For clarity purposes, the control variables are not represented.

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

Figure 4

Interactive Effect of Organizational Dehumanization and Fear of Retaliation on Supervisor Undermining (Study 2)



Note. $N = 175$. ^a = measured by the supervisor; ^b = measured by the subordinate.