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The Influence of Organizational Personality and Social Identity Consciousness on Organizational Attraction: A Humanness Perspective

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The Influence of Organizational Personality and Social Identity Consciousness on
Organizational Attraction: A Humanness Perspective

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B.A., Wake Forest University, 2012

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The Influence of Organizational Personality and Social Identity Consciousness on
Organizational Attraction: A Humanness Perspective

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	viii
Abstract	1
Introduction	2
Study 1	5
Organizational Personality Inferences	5
Humanness Personality Theory	8
Incorporating Humanness Personality into Organizational Personality Taxonomy	9
Phase 1: Item Generation and Reduction	10
Participants and Procedure of Phase 1	11
Results of Phase 1	11
Phase 2: Initial Evaluation of Factor Structure	12
Participants and Procedure of Phase 2	12
Results of Phase 2	12
Phase 3: Within-Companies Differences	13
Phase 4: Experimental Validation	14
Participants and Procedure of Phase 4	15
Results of Phase 4	15
Study 1 Discussion	15
Study 2	16

Symbolic Inferences and Person-Organization Fit	16
Social Identity Concerns	17
Humanness Personality Taxonomy and Social Identity Concerns	18
Method	20
Participants and Procedure.....	20
Analyses	21
Study 2 Results and Discussion	22
General Discussion	25
Theoretical and Practical Implications.....	27
Limitations and Future Research	28
Conclusions.....	30
References	31
Tables	40
Figures.....	51
Appendix.....	61

List of Tables

Table 1	40
Table 2	41
Table 3	42
Table 4	43
Table 5	44
Table 6	45
Table 7	46
Table 8	47
Table 9	48
Table 10	49
Table 11	50

List of Figures

Figure 1	51
Figure 2	52
Figure 3	53
Figure 4	54
Figure 5	55
Figure 6	56
Figure 7	57
Figure 8	58
Figure 9	59
Figure 10	60

Abstract

Organizational affiliations serve a social identity function for employees because others will typically infer information about them based on their place of employment. To the extent that job seekers are concerned about these inferences, they will attempt to maintain a positive social identity by joining organizations they believe are viewed as favorable by the public. Research has examined whether social identity needs interact with organizational personality perceptions (i.e., a type of symbolic inferences) but with some inconsistent findings. I argue that the existing organizational personality taxonomy may suffer from bandwidth correspondence issues that may be attenuating large interaction effects. In the first study of this investigation, I conceptualize an alternative taxonomy as well as develop a scale of organizational personality perceptions grounded in humanness theory (Haslam, Bain, Douge, Lee, & Bastian, 2005) that better reflects job seekers' identity needs relevant to organizational attraction. In the second study, I examine whether social identity concerns moderate the relations between humanness personality perceptions and recruitment outcomes. Results showed strong psychometric properties and construct validity of the humanness organizational personality measure. Additionally, social identity concerns predicted participants' job choice behaviors and interacted with humanness personality perceptions to influence recruitment outcomes. The findings suggest that given one's social identity concerns, perceptions of an organization's personality in humanness traits matter for important recruitment attitudes and behaviors.

Introduction

Companies that are able to hire more qualified job seekers experience increased productivity, efficiency and financial profitability (Hatch & Dyer, 2004). The resurging economic conditions, however, are creating a “war for talent” among organizations such that it is becoming increasingly difficult for organizations to attract and recruit qualified job seekers (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2011). Employee recruitment is a “two-way street” wherein the organization not only attempts to recruit job seekers, but job seekers also form impressions of recruiting organizations and ultimately decide whether to accept the job offer. As such, understanding the decision-making processes from the job seekers’ perspectives is crucial to improving recruitment efforts (Hausknecht, Day & Thomas, 2004; Tom, 1971). Indeed, only organizations that survive job seekers’ initial screenings make up the final job choice set (Stevens, 2013).

The relations between applicant perceptions of organizational characteristics and job choice outcomes have received a substantial amount of attention in recruitment research (e.g., Highhouse, Thornbury, & Little, 2007; Slaughter & Greguras, 2009). During the initial stages of recruitment, job seekers make general impressions about organizations based on their exposure to information from sources such as media, advertising, and even word-of-mouth from organizational and non-organizational agents (Lievens, 2007; Lievens & Highhouse, 2003; Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, & Mohr, 2004). After watching a commercial, for example, one may perceive a specific company as “reliable” and “trustworthy.” In fact, perception of a positive organizational image is one of the strongest predictors of organizational attraction, job pursuit intentions, and job acceptance intentions (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Turban, 2001).

In order to better understand the process of how organizational information contribute to the formation of organizational images, Lievens and Highhouse (2003) extended the instrumental-symbolic attribute theory from marketing research to recruitment research (Keller, 1993). Similar to how purchasing a product may fulfill a functional need as well as allow the consumer to express certain personal characteristics (Keller, 1993; Lievens & Highhouse, 2003), organizations can fulfill job seekers' instrumental (e.g., pay, benefits, and location) and symbolic (e.g., values, mission, and personality) needs (Lievens, 2007; Van Hove & Saks, 2011). In particular, when instrumental (i.e., tangible) information about recruiting organizations is limited during the initial stages of recruitment, job seekers evaluate an organization based on their exposure to its symbolic (i.e., expressive) information (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003).

To understand how symbolic information is linked to recruitment outcomes, Highhouse et al.'s (2007) theory of symbolic attraction (see Figure 1) argues that job seekers make inferences or general impressions about an organization based on its symbolic information (e.g., ranking on Best Places to Work List) that in turn influence their organizational attraction. The symbolic inferences presented in the model have been found to be especially salient and crucial during the initial stages of recruitment (Slaughter & Greguras, 2009; Von Walter, Wentzel, & Tomczak, 2012). Additionally, symbolic information predicted attraction perceptions more so for potential job seekers than for actual job seekers and employees, suggesting that symbolic information is important for turning *potential* job seekers into *actual* job seekers (Lievens, 2007).

Although various symbolic dimensions/cues have been identified (see, Highhouse et al., 2007; Tsai & Yang, 2010), organizational personality perceptions – personality characteristics associated with an organization as perceived by outsiders, or social reputation of an organization (Slaughter et al., 2004) – are particularly relevant in recruitment research. How job seekers infer

organizational personality traits directly influences their attraction to an organization as a place of employment (Slaughter et al., 2004). Consequently, researchers have developed organizational personality taxonomies in order to study influence of organizational personality perceptions on recruitment outcomes (Schreurs, Druart, Proost, & De Witte, 2009; Slaughter et al., 2004). Subsequently, organizational personality inferences have been examined in conjunction with other recruitment theories in order to predict and explain why people may be differentially attracted to various companies. For instance, Highhouse et al. (2007) argue that social identity concerns – one's preoccupation with the symbolic implications of his or her employer – moderates the personality perception-attraction relation. Specifically, job seekers are attracted to symbolic information that contributes to establishing favorable forms of social identities, which in turn increases one's self-esteem (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In short, people desire to maintain a positive social identity by joining organizations they believe the public views as favorable (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994).

However, studies examining the interactive effects between social identity concerns and organizational personality perceptions have produced inconsistent results (DeArmond & Crawford, 2011). As such, Carter and Highhouse (2014) argue that the symbolic attraction process is still not well understood in terms of how symbolic inferences interact with social identity motives to influence attraction perceptions, and call for more research on this model. In order to better explain the motives behind why people with different self-presentation needs are differentially attracted to companies, we need to first index people's symbolic inferences of organizations in a manner that is relevant to social identity needs and organizational attraction. I argue that the inconsistent results may stem from a measure correspondence issue of the existing taxonomies such that there is a mismatch in the specificity of the predictors (i.e., bandwidth;

Hough & Ones, 2001) as well as in the theoretical domains. Although existing organizational personality taxonomies are useful tools for understanding how job seekers perceive a company's various personality facets, examining interactive relations between characteristics of the company and the individual may require an alternative taxonomy.

The present investigation addresses the correspondence issue by proposing an alternative organizational personality taxonomy structured in a manner that reflects applicant motives shown to influence recruitment outcomes as well as a new scale to measure these traits; the scale is subsequently used to test the model proposed by Highhouse et al. (2007). In Study 1, I develop an alternative organizational personality taxonomy which re-conceptualizes personality based on a humanness perspective (Haslam, Bain, Douge, Lee, & Bastian, 2005). I then create a new organizational personality scale, and evaluate the scale's initial psychometric properties and demonstrate construct validity using an experimental validation. In Study 2, I use the new scale to measure people's organizational personality inferences of hypothetical organizations and to examine the moderating role of social identity concerns between personality perceptions and recruitment attitudes and behaviors.

Study 1

Organizational Personality Inferences

Similar to how people perceive others to have personalities, people also perceive organizations as having different personality traits (Haslam, Loughnan, Kashima, & Bain, 2008; Risavy et al., 2009; Slaughter et al., 2004). For example, Disney has been described as pleasant, friendly, and honest, whereas Nike as creative, interesting, and unique (Slaughter et al., 2004; p. 92). However, researchers argued that the structure of organizational personality should differ from the structure of human personality, and have thus developed models with traits applicable

to organizations (Slaughter et al., 2004). In order to better understand the influence of organizational personalities on job choice outcomes, Slaughter and colleagues (2004) categorized organizational personality traits in five factors: Boy Scout (e.g. pleasant, friendly), Innovativeness (e.g. unique, creative), Dominance (e.g. successful, prestigious), Style (e.g. hip, trendy), and Thrift (e.g. low budget, low class). The taxonomy has been used to differentiate among various types of organizations as well as predict variance in job choice outcomes beyond instrumental job attributes such as pay, benefits, or advancement opportunities (e.g., Lievens, 2007).

Although this taxonomy has been directly linked to job choice outcomes and is particularly useful for understanding the nuanced differences of personality perceptions among organizations (Kausel & Slaughter, 2011; Slaughter et al., 2004), studies that have attempted to examine more complex relations (e.g., moderations) have been less successful. For example, a study that examined the moderating role of social identity concerns on relations between organizational personality inferences and attraction failed to find interactive effects for most of the personality factors (DeArmond & Crawford, 2011). DeArmond and Crawford (2011) speculate that organizational personality factors may be too narrow and conceptually distinct from applicant individual differences (e.g., social identity concerns) to discover meaningful interactive effects. Indeed, researchers who have examined moderators of the organizational personality-attraction relations such as applicant personality (Schreurs, et al., 2009; Slaughter & Greguras, 2009), social identity motives (DeArmond & Crawford, 2011), environmental sensitivity (Tsai & Yang, 2010), and global openness (Phillips, Gully, McCarthy, Castellano, & Kim, 2014) have found weak or nonsignificant interactive effects.

There are two potential reasons for the inconsistent links found with Slaughter et al.'s (2004) personality taxonomy. First, Slaughter et al. (2004) used an inductive approach to examine the underlying "personality" of organizations, thus it is possible that narrow, and more nuanced factors fail to overlap with broader individual differences variables to influence job choice outcomes. According to Hinkin (1998), a classification scheme developed using theoretical means may increase criterion-related validity and improve interpretations of factors. This is not to say that Slaughter et al.'s (2004) taxonomy is insufficient, but perhaps when examining interactive effects, aligning predictors and moderators based on theory can explain more variance in job choice outcomes. Second, researchers argue that broad (specific) measures provide better prediction when the criteria are broad (specific) (e.g., Hough & Oswald, 2008; Ozer & Reise, 1994). Hough and Furnham (2003) note that researchers should use a construct-oriented approach to match predictors to criterion in order to obtain good criterion-related validities. Considering the personality-job performance relations (see Hogan & Holland, 2003), personality is more predictive of work performance when the predictor and criterion are specified at similar breadth (Campbell, 1990; Hough, 1992).

When attempting to use Slaughter's taxonomy factors to predict broad criteria, the level of specificity among the predictors may not match the same level of abstraction as the criterion, and thus attenuate the predictive validity of personality perceptions. Since organizational attraction is a broad measure that examines attraction to the organization in *general* instead of under *specific* conditions, a five-factor organizational personality structure may be too narrow to predict organizational attraction. It stands to reason that job seekers do not necessarily perceive and process the nuanced distinctions among narrow organizational factors, especially early in the recruitment process. The nuanced distinctions among organizational personality facets may not

impact people's attraction perceptions; consequently relations are diminished when the bandwidth of predictors and criteria are mismatched (Erez & Judge, 2001). As such, expanding the breadth of organizational personality factors may be better suited for understanding broad and initial perceptions of organizations and may result in more meaningful relations among personality perceptions and organizational attraction. In the following section, I conceptualize a higher-order and theoretically driven organizational personality taxonomy as an alternative to Slaughter's taxonomy.

Humanness Personality Theory

The theory of humanness personality posits that people perceive themselves and others with respect to human-like characteristics (Demoulin et al., 2004; Haslam et al., 2005). Originally, this concept was used to study how people justify violent behaviors such as genocides and massacres by denying human-like traits to outgroup members (Kelman, 1973; Opatow, 1990; Schwartz & Struch, 1989). Later, it was studied as an aspect of social perception and intergroup relations when research showed that people also make humanness distinctions in more subtle and ordinary situations (Demoulin et al., 2004). Specifically, in addition to conceptualizing attributes as only pertaining to humans, Haslam and colleagues (2005) theorized that traits can be Human Nature (HN)—traits that are fundamentally human that connect us to one another, or Human Unique (HU)—traits that are exclusively human (p. 938).

Humanness traits are distinguishable based on the HN and HU categories such that HN traits exhibit perceptions of warmth, emotionality, openness, and desire whereas HU traits exhibit perceptions of refinement, rationality, language, and civility (Haslam et al., 2008). Examples of HN traits include friendly, emotional, curious, imaginative, passionate, sociable,

and trusting; Examples of HU traits include broadminded, analytical, talkative, polite, conservative, and organized (Haslam, 2006; Haslam et al., 2005).

Additionally, HN traits are perceived to be high in prevalence, universal across cultures, deep-rooted within the person, and emerging early in development whereas HU traits are perceived to be low in prevalence, less universal, and emerging later in development (Haslam, et al., 2005). Unlike HN traits, which are innate and primitive, HU traits are developed through socialization and learning (Haslam et al., 2005). In other words, HN traits are associated with “heart” whereas HU traits are associated “brain.”

Incorporating Humanness Personality into Organizational Personality Taxonomy

I argue that the humanness dichotomy can be incorporated into the organizational personality taxonomy because it maps onto existing dichotomies relevant for recruitment. For instance, Hogan’s (1983) socioanalytic theory describes two main types of motivation patterns at work: 1) getting along (e.g., interpersonal skills, collaboration) and 2) getting ahead (e.g., productivity, outcome-driven, effortful). Similarly, HN traits characterize being connected with others whereas HU traits characterize being cognitively and achievement oriented. Additionally, Carter and Highhouse (2014) note that socioanalytic dimensions underlie people’s social identity motives in the job seeking process and directly influence applicant attraction to organizations. In other words, job seekers perceive organizational affiliation as a way to express their self-identities (Highhouse et al., 2007); this highlights the utility of measuring organizational personality because the inferences are directly related to job seekers’ identity motives. Given these overlaps, the HN/HU framework underlying the proposed taxonomy may be able to explain more complex and nuanced processes behind job choice behaviors.

Based on the theoretical foundations of humanness theory outlined above, I define Human Nature (HN) organizational personality as perceptions of organizational attributes rooted in collaborative, authentic, and early-emerging nature of humanness, and Human Unique (HU) organizational personality as perceptions of organizational attributes rooted in civilized, logical, and late-emerging nature of humanness. The new taxonomy will be useful such that traits in this taxonomy will be aligned with social identity needs at a more appropriate level of specificity as well as theoretical domain to identify interactive relationships among relevant recruitment outcomes. Before this taxonomy can be used to study employee recruitment, a measure of organizational personality according to this new taxonomy is needed. Study 1 includes four phases to introduce this new taxonomy and measure: 1) initial item generation and scale reduction, 2) evaluation of factor structure and psychometric properties, 3) evaluation of the scale's ability to capture differences between organizations, and 4) experimental validation of the scale. A valid measure of organizational personality inferences scale should be sensitive to experimental manipulations of humanness personality traits; showing that scale scores vary as a function of experimental manipulations allows for the strongest claims of construct validity (Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & Heerden, 2004; Guion, 2002; Slaughter et al., 2004).

Phase 1: Item Generation and Reduction

No research to date has created a measure of humanness personality traits, thus I generated an initial set of items (i.e., traits) using the construct definitions of organizational personality perceptions based on the extent to which they represent aspects of either HN or HU (see Appendix A). Hinkin (1998) notes the advantage of using a deductive approach to scale development ensures content validity in the final scale, which should make the scale more useful as it maps on to variables of interest more readily. This resulted in 40 initial traits with equal

numbers in both categories to be tested on Sample 1 in order to obtain initial factor structure and factor loadings for further scale refinement. After developing the initial items based on the existing research and definition regarding the two categories, I tested these items in order to trim the scale to contain a reasonable number of items before moving on to Phase 2.

Participants and Procedure of Phase 1

Sample 1: Participants were 164 undergraduates with a mean age of 19.02 years ($SD = 1.48$), mostly female (67.5%), and Caucasian (80.7%), who were enrolled in an introductory psychology course at a large northeastern university and participated to fulfill course credits. Participants rated four companies (Disney, Goldman Sachs, BP Oil, Google) on all 40 traits through an online survey. The companies were chosen based on student familiarity as well as their variation of public image according to Forbes Magazine (Smith, 2012). The scale was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale from *not at all descriptive* (1) to *extremely descriptive* (5).

Results of Phase 1

I conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses (maximum likelihood with oblimin rotation) following the initial item reduction steps outlined in Hinkin (1998). First, I eliminated items with inter-item correlations less than .40 (Kim & Mueller, 1978). In order to achieve a parsimonious and simple factor structure, I eliminated any items that had loadings of less than .40 on any factors and those that had cross-loadings of greater than .40 or twice as strong on another factor (Hinkin, 1998). The main purpose of Phase 1 was to reduce the number of items to a reasonable set of items that could be used for further evaluation of the scale. The elimination process was repeated until 20 items remained that clearly loaded onto one of two factors; the items are presented in Table 1.

Phase 2: Initial Evaluation of Factor Structure

Initially, the factor structure was examined using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to test the hypothesized two-factor solution (e.g., HN and HU). A factor structure produced from an EFA may not fit a measurement model with assumptions of unidimensionality (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988), thus the two-factor solution was confirmed using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Internal consistencies of items were also examined.

Participants and Procedure of Phase 2

Sample 2 ($N = 703$) was randomly split into two separate samples for the purpose of EFA (Sample 2a) and CFA (Sample 2b). Participants were 351_{sample 2a} (352_{sample 2b}) undergraduates with a mean age of 18.66_{sample 2a} (18.61_{sample 2b}) years ($SD_{\text{sample 2a}} = 2.23$; $SD_{\text{sample 2b}} = 1.23$), mostly female (59.5%_{sample 2a}; 59.6%_{sample 2b}) and Caucasian (73%_{sample 2a}; 74%_{sample 2b}) who were enrolled in an introductory psychology course at a large northeastern university and participated in a mass testing at the beginning of the semester. The participants rated the company BP Oil on the items shown in Table 1 on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *not at all descriptive* (1) to *extremely descriptive* (5). BP Oil was chosen as the company to rate based on students' familiarity with the company.

Results of Phase 2

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Using sample 2a, a 2-factor solution was extracted using maximum likelihood with an oblimin rotation and confirmed by the scree plot (Cattell, 1966; Kaiser 1960), as well as parallel analysis (Figure 2) which showed two factors fitting the data best (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006). The standardized factor loadings are presented in Table 1. Two factors identified accounted for 67.68% of the overall variance, which is above the desired level of 60% (Hinkin,

1998). Given that the percent variance accounted for was above the desired level, all of the items were retained at this stage. Upon examining the items within each of the two factors, factor 1 includes items that characterize the extent to which an organization can be dependable and possess traits used to connect humans to other each, whereas factor 2 includes items that characterize the extent to which an organization is competent and possess traits generally attributed to humans. Each factor showed acceptable reliability (factor 1: $\alpha = .97$; factor 2: $\alpha = .92$), and the factors correlated moderately at $r = .54$.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Using sample 2b, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the lavaan package in R (Rosseel, 2012) to verify the two-factor structure by specifying the items to load onto their appropriate factors; the factors correlated at $\Phi = .68$. I also constrained the model to fit one- and three-factor structures. As shown in Table 2, the fit indices suggest that the hypothesized two-factor structure fit the data best. Furthermore, all of the items loaded significantly onto their respective factors.

Phase 3: Within-Companies Differences

For the humanness personality scale to be useful, it should be able to detect within-company differences between HN and HU perceptions. With the retained items from Phase 2, scale scores were computed by averaging the items in Sample 1 to evaluate whether people perceived within-company differences based on the HN and HU dichotomy. Participants were asked to rate each trait on its general desirability for a company; the mean desirability ratings for each factor were not significantly different from each other, $t(165) = 1.53$, n.s., indicating that respondents did not perceive one personality dimension to be more or less attractive than the other. Repeated measures t-tests were conducted to compare HN and HU ratings for each of the

four companies (Disney, Goldman-Sachs, BP Oil, Google). Results presented in Table 3 show that people perceived companies to differ on HN and HU. Specifically, Disney was perceived to be significantly more HN than HU, whereas Goldman-Sachs, BP Oil, and Google were perceived to be significantly more HU than HN. Results of Phase 3 not only demonstrate that organizational personality can be indexed within this new taxonomy, but also that organizations differ with respect to HU and HN trait inferences.

Phase 4: Experimental Validation

Although these initial phases show support for the structure, reliability, and provide initial validity of the scale, I offer stronger evidence of the construct validity of the measure in the form of an experimental manipulation of the construct. This experimental approach provides strong evidence of the causal relation between the construct and scale scores (Borsboom et al., 2004; Guion, 2002). This was done by writing two mission statements meant to score high on HN and HU traits, respectively, and one meant to score high on both HN and HU traits (Appendix B). Missions statements were written, rather than collected from existing organizations, to ensure the control over construct manipulation. Moreover, no trait terms from the new scale were used in the mission statements. Therefore, I expect significant within-companies difference between HN and HU factors for Missions 1 and 2, but no difference for Mission 3.

***Hypothesis 1:** Mission 1 will be rated higher on HN compared to HU.*

***Hypothesis 2:** Mission 2 will be rated higher on HU compared to HN.*

***Hypothesis 3:** Mission 3 will have similar ratings on HN and HU.*

Participants and Procedure of Phase 4

Sample 3: Participants were 232 undergraduates with a mean age of 18.84 ($SD = 1.11$), mostly female (68%) and Caucasian (70.5%) enrolled in an introductory psychology course at a large northeastern university who participated to fulfill course credits. Hypothetical mission statements similar in length and general content were created to reflect high level of HN (Mission 1), HU (Mission 2), and both (Mission 3) (see Appendix B). Participants were randomly assigned to read one of three mission statements and asked to indicate the extent to which the HN/HU traits are descriptive of the company. They also rated how attractive the organization seemed based on the mission statement using a five-item organizational attraction scale.

Results of Phase 4

Descriptive statistics and mean comparisons across HN and HU scales for each mission statements can be found in Table 4. Results support all three hypotheses: respondents rated the mission statements in the expected directions intended such that Mission 1 was rated higher on HN than HU, Mission 2 was rated higher on HU than HN, and no significant differences for Mission 3. Additionally, the attraction perceptions among the three mission statements did not differ significantly. In other words, attractiveness and organizational personality are not confounded with this taxonomy or the scale.

Study 1 Discussion

In sum, the results of Study 1 show that HN/HU trait inferences can extend to organizational personality, that these organizational trait inferences can be reliably and validly measured, and that real and hypothetical organizations can differ on their HN/HU traits. Organizational personality taxonomies are useful to the extent that they can be employed to

differentiate among organizations as well as predict and explain job choice outcomes. Thus I explore more complex relations between organizational personality inferences and job pursuit intention in Study 2. Specifically, Study 2 attempts to better understand applicant motivation behind organizational attraction and specifically addresses the extent to which applicant social-identity concerns interact with organizational personality inferences to recruitment outcomes.

Study 2

Study 1 offered a new taxonomy of organizational personality, based on the humanness personality theory, and developed a corresponding measure. The purpose of Study 2 was to test the interactive effects between social identity concerns and symbolic inferences on attraction as outlined in Highhouse et al.'s (2007) theory of symbolic attraction. This study heeds the call by recruitment researchers (e.g., Rynes, 1991; Chapman et al., 2005) to examine actual job decisions in which job seekers have to forego other potential opportunities that more realistically mirror the job choice process. In addition, previous research suggests that fit perceptions (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006) and pursuit intentions (Chapman et al., 2005) are informative of job choice outcomes and should be better studied in recruitment research.

Symbolic Inferences and Person-Organization Fit

As mentioned previously, Lievens and Highhouse (2003) introduced the instrumental-symbolic attribute distinction such that an organization can fulfill job seekers' instrumental as well as their symbolic needs. Although it is known that symbolic attributes of organizations can influence applicant attraction (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003), it is less understood why some job seekers are attracted to some types of organizations whereas others are not. Job seekers make inferences of a recruiting organization based on its symbolic attributes often due to the lack of knowledge of the working conditions during the initial stages of recruitment (Cable & Turban,

2003). In short, organizational images signal to job seekers what it might be like to work at that organization (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Therefore, it is important to examine how characteristics of the job seekers as well as organizational image combine to impact job seekers' attraction perceptions. As Kristof (1996) suggests, attraction is a function of characteristics of both the applicant and the organization such that job seekers are attracted to organizations to the extent that they perceive a strong match between themselves and the organization.

Social Identity Concerns

Working for an organization is an integral part of one's life, and organizational symbolic characteristics can contribute a great deal to one's self-identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). According to social identity theory, people establish social identity and enhance self-esteem by classifying themselves into different social groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Because an organization is an important type of social groups, employees also attempt to define and present themselves in a favorable way based on organizational affiliation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social identity theory posits that people improve their self-presentations by affiliating with organizations with socially favorable characteristics (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Highhouse et al., 2007).

To better understand self-presentation goals that underlie organizational attraction, Highhouse and colleagues (2007) conceptualized social identity concerns as two specific needs: the need to impress--*social adjustment concern (SA)*, and the need to express--*value expression concern (VE)*. These needs help people communicate to others the ways they would like to be perceived, similar to impression management concerns. The distinction between social adjustment and value expression can be linked to Jones and Pittman's (1982) distinction between self-promotion and exemplification; whereas those high on social adjustment want others to

respect them, those high on value expression want others to think of them as wholesome (Highhouse et al., 2007). Job seekers are attracted to either “impressive” or “expressive” symbolic attributes of organizations depending on what they perceive is socially favorable (Highhouse et al., 2007). Whereas research has found that some individuals prefer prestigious and powerful organizations (Carter & Highhouse, 2014) and others prefer honorable and trustworthy organizations (Montgomery & Ramus, 2003), researchers have yet to find ample support showing that social identity concerns functions as an individual differences moderator between symbolic attributes and organizational attraction (Carter & Highhouse, 2014; DeArmond & Crawford, 2011). This indicates a need to better understand the types of organizational image that would appeal to job seekers’ social identity needs and result in more attraction perceptions—I argue that humanness organizational personality is one such image.

Humanness Personality Taxonomy and Social Identity Concerns

In order to enhance their social status and gain social approval, job seekers will seek out organizations with characteristics that fulfill their identity needs and improve their social identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Study 2 examines whether distinctions of organizations based on humanness personality interact with social identity concerns in predicting job choice outcomes. Loughnan and Haslam (2007) found that people implicitly judged occupation and social groups differently based on humanness dimensions—they perceived artists as high on HN traits by being more imaginative and spirited, and businesspeople as higher on HU traits by being more rational and self-controlled. As HN and HU dimensions are distinct and elicit different social perceptions that influence the establishment of social identities (Haslam et al., 2005), job seekers should be more attracted to the organization with characteristics that will improve their social images to others (Highhouse et al., 2007).

On the one hand, perceptions of HN trigger notions of emotionality, interpersonal warmth, and cooperation (Haslam et al., 2008; Loughnan & Haslam, 2007), and organizations that are more HN should be friendly, responsible, and cooperative. People concerned with value expression want to project perceptions of wholesomeness (Highhouse et al., 2007), and they may be more attracted to HN traits because they want to elicit social approval by appearing cooperative and honorable. Given perceptions of similarity, Piasentin and Chapman (2006) note that perceptions of person-organization fit should increase. Job seekers who report higher ratings of attraction to a certain organization also report higher ratings of intentions to apply to that organization (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Highhouse & Hoffman, 2001). If the humanness distinction in organizational personality indeed influences applicant perceptions, then the same pattern of effects should also manifest in behavioral intentions. Thus, I hypothesize that:

***Hypothesis 1:** Value expression (VE) will moderate the relations between Human Nature (HN) personality inferences and job choice outcomes such that people high on VE who perceive an organization as high HN will have higher: a) subjective fit perceptions, b) attraction, c) pursuit intentions.*

On the other hand, perceptions of HU trigger notions of cognition, moral sensibility, and sophistication (Haslam et al., 2008; Loughnan & Haslam, 2007), and organizations perceived to be high on HU factor should be competent and rational. Given that people concerned with social adjustment want to project perceptions of status and success (Highhouse et al., 2007), they may be more attracted to HU traits because they want to appear impressive and prestigious. Thus, I hypothesize that:

***Hypothesis 2:** Social adjustment (SA) will moderate the relations between Human Unique (HU) personality inferences and job choice outcomes such that people high on SA who*

perceive an organization as high HU will have higher: a) subjective fit perceptions, b) attraction, c) pursuit intentions.

Further, Fishbein & Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (1975) posits that attraction attitudes lead to behavioral intentions (e.g., pursuit intentions) that consequently feed into actual behaviors. If social identity concerns indeed drive one's preference for companies based on humanness personality perceptions, then individuals evaluating multiple companies should choose the company that will best fulfill their social identity concerns and forgo other options. Thus I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: *People high on value expression concerns (VE) will be more likely to choose to pursue employment with a Human Nature (HN) company.*

Hypothesis 4: *People high on social adjustment concerns (SA) will be more likely to choose to pursue employment with a Human Unique (HU) company.*

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were 304 individuals recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) with a mean age of 35.53 years ($SD = 11.36$), mostly female (53.8%), Caucasian (78.7%), had a Bachelor's degree (70.1%), employed full-time (87.2%), and were seeking a job within the next 6 months (32.1%). They received \$1 as compensation for participating in the MTurk HIT.

Mission statements created in the experimental validation phase were used in this within subjects design such that participants were shown all three mission statements for Company A (HN), Company B (HU), and Company C (HN/HU) in randomized order. Afterwards, they were asked to pick one company out of the three for which they would choose to work. Participants

were then asked to rate each company in turn on the following measures (unless otherwise noted, all ratings were made on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Humanness Organizational Personality Perceptions. The scale developed in Study 1 was used to measure people's perceptions of human nature and human unique organizational personality (Table 1 for items).

Subjective Perceptions of Fit. The extent to which job seekers perceive a good fit with the organization was assessed with a five-item scale (Judge & Cable, 1997). An example item is "Do you perceive a good fit with this company?"

Organizational Attraction and Pursuit Intentions. Organizational attraction was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003) with five-item subscales of general attractiveness and intentions to pursue. Sample items include "For me, this company would be a good place to work" and "I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer."

Social Identity Concerns. Social identity concerns were measured using the 10-item scale developed by Highhouse, Thornbury, and Little (2007). The scale consists of two five-item sub-scales: social-adjustment concern -- "Working for an impressive company would make me seem impressive to others"; value-expression concern -- "I would not work for a company with a bad image."

Analyses

One-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to test for differences in humanness ratings and outcomes among the three different companies. The sphericity assumption was tested using the Mauchly's test and were significant for all outcomes. Therefore, I used the Huynh-Feldt ($\epsilon > .75$) correction to correct for the degrees of freedom.

Post-hoc tests with Bonferroni correction were conducted to examine specific comparisons between companies.

In order to test the joint effects of both the person (e.g., social identity concerns) and the environment (e.g., Humanness personality perceptions), polynomial regression was used to examine the combined relations between the two, and response surface methodology was used to analyze three-dimensional surfaces to examine more nuanced effects on outcomes (Edwards, 2007; Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggstad, 2010). Steps outlined in Shanock et al. (2010) were followed such that predictors, interaction terms, and quadratic terms were entered into a series of hierarchical regressions separated by companies; response surfaces were created and tested using Shanock et al.'s (2010) utility.

Finally, I conducted a multinomial logistic regression to examine whether social identity concerns predict choice of employing company. The analyses were run twice with HN Company and HN/HU Company as the reference categories, respectively. If the odds ratio is greater than 1, then people are more likely to choose the category of interest over the reference; if the odds ratio is less than 1, then people are less likely to choose the category of interest over the reference (Field, 2009).

Study 2 Results and Discussion

Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations, and alphas for the study variables. The alphas are acceptable and range between .71 to .97. In general, participants had higher Value Expression (VE) concerns ($M = 4.00$) compared to Social Adjustment (SA) concerns ($M = 3.06$). Additionally, people varied more on SA concerns ($SD = .87$) than VE concerns ($SD = .60$) meaning that the distribution of SA concerns was more dispersed compared to the distribution of VE concerns. In terms of attraction outcomes, participants were generally most attracted,

perceived a better fit with, and more likely to pursue Company A (HN), followed by Company C (HN/HU), and finally Company B (HU). Table 6 provides the intercorrelations among the study variables. Table 7 provides the results for Mauchly's tests and ANOVAs. Results (Table 7) suggest that different mission statements resulted in significant differences on all of the recruitment outcome variables (i.e., attraction, fit, pursuit intentions).

Repeated measures t-tests were conducted to examine within-companies differences on humanness ratings (Table 8); results showed that HN and HU ratings differed significantly for each of the three companies in the direction expected and demonstrated in Phase 4 of Study 1 (Figure 3). Between companies differences on recruitment outcome variables are also presented in Figure 4.

These results replicated the findings shown in Phase 4 of Study 1, which suggests that ratings of humanness personality perceptions of the mission statements are consistent. As a manipulation check, I tested whether HN and HU ratings of Company C, which included both HN and HU descriptions, would be significantly higher than the humanness ratings of the missing information in Company A and B. Paired-samples t-tests showed that Company C's HN ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .83$) ratings are significantly higher than Company A's HU ($M = 3.17$, $SD = .77$) ratings, $t(303) = 4.84$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = .32$; Company C's HU ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .75$) ratings are significantly higher than Company B's HN ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .81$) ratings, $t(303) = 16.39$, $p < .001$, Cohens' $d = 1.10$. Figure 4 shows between-companies differences on fit perceptions, attraction, and pursuit intentions. On average, people perceived lowest fit and reported lowest attraction and pursuit intentions for Company B (HU). People did not differ significantly on fit perceptions and attractions between Company A (HN) and Company C (HN/HU). The results suggest that people will view companies with HN attributes as having better fit and more

attractive regardless of whether they include HU attributes. Research has shown that when HN traits are absent in humans, people perceive a lacking of emotionality and warmth that is mechanistic or machine-like, in contrast, when HU traits are absent in people, people perceive a lacking of civility and higher cognition that is primitive or animalistic (Haslam, 2006).

Therefore, it is possible that people perceive the absence of HN and HU organizational attributes differently. For instance, the presence of HN attributes may also signal the presence of HU attributes even if HU attributes are not explicitly stated (i.e., Companies able to emphasize employee connectedness and social responsibility must be profitable as well).

Polynomial regression demonstrated that value expression and HN ratings interacted significantly to impact fit perceptions with Company A (Table 9). The significant interactions were plotted with 3-D response surfaces, and Figures 4-6 reveal the nature of person and organization's combined effects on outcome such that high HN ratings resulted in high attraction and pursuit intentions regardless of one's standing on value expression. It is interesting to note that fit perceptions were extremely low if one was high on value expression but did not perceive Company A to be high on Human Nature (Figure 5). However, value expression and HN ratings did not interact significantly to impact attraction perceptions and pursuit intentions (Figure 6 & 7). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. Social adjustment and HU ratings interacted significantly to impact fit perceptions, attraction, and pursuit intentions (Table 9), thus Hypothesis 2 was fully supported. Figures 8 to 10 reveal that those highest on social adjustment perceived higher fit, were more attracted, and were more likely to pursue job opportunities at Company B if they perceived the mission statement to be high on HU.

Multinomial logistic regression was first conducted with HN Company as the reference category, then with HN/HU Company. When HN Company was used as the reference category,

people high on SA were more likely to choose employment with HU Company over HN Company (odds ratio = 1.87), and people high on VE were more likely to choose employment with HN Company over HU Company (odds ratio = .34) (Table 11). Thus, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were both supported. When HN/HU Company was used as the reference category, people high on VE were less likely to choose HU Company over HN/HU Company (odds ratio = .52). Additionally, one's social identity concerns did not significantly predict whether they would choose employment with HN/HU Company over HN Company. The results suggest that people high on VE prefer companies with HN descriptions whereas people high on SA prefer companies with only HU descriptions.

General Discussion

An applicant typically considers a large number of organizations at the start of the search process but may not have enough instrumental information to differentiate among them (Lievens, 2007; Slaughter & Greguras, 2009). Symbolic inferences are important in the initial stages of recruitment because they allow job seekers to differentiate among organizations with similar employment opportunities. Additionally, symbolic information enables job seekers to consider organizations in more abstract terms that feed into their fit perceptions (Von Walter et al., 2012). In order to understand why certain people are more attracted to certain organizations, researchers have attempted to examine organizational personality inferences (i.e., type of symbolic inferences) and social identity concerns but have not found conclusive results. In order to understand more complex and interactive relations between applicant perceptions and job choice outcomes, I developed a two-factor taxonomy to measure organizational personality grounded in humanness theory. Since the two facets of humanness personality map similarly onto variables

known to predict important job choice outcomes (e.g., social identity motives), it stands to reason that the scale would provide more utility in predicting and explaining job choice outcomes.

In Study 1, I developed a two-factor scale to measure organizational humanness personality perceptions and demonstrated its psychometric soundness. Specifically, people perceived companies to differ on each factor, and companies manipulated to reflect higher levels of HN and HU resulted in higher observed ratings of HN and HU providing experimental evidence of construct validity (i.e., the measure is sensitive to causal changes in the attributes; Borsboom et al., 2004).

Study 2 showed that humanness personality perceptions interacted with social identity concerns to influence job choice outcomes including actual job choices. In comparison to prior research (DeArmond & Crawford, 2011), which failed to find significant interactions between dominant personality perceptions and SA concerns, this study demonstrated consistent interactive effects between HU inferences and SA concerns across outcomes, suggesting that humanness personality perceptions are indeed conceptualized at the appropriate level of specificity and theoretical domain. Results also showed that perceptions of fit of HN Company do not fluctuate across levels of VE. The lack of interactive effects between HN inferences and VE concerns could potentially be explained by the robust finding of “self-humanizing”—people consistently rate themselves higher on HN dimensions (Haslam & Bain, 2007); when translated into an organizational context, people may perceive organizations with HN traits to be similar to them, thus perceiving higher fit.

Some strengths of this study are the utilization of within-subjects design and job choice decision. First, job seekers seldom evaluate recruiting organizations in isolation, thus by exposing participants to three different companies and allowing comparison, the current study

allows companies to be compared among each other, more realistically mirroring the job choice process. Second, this study alleviates a common criticism against recruitment studies which is the use of only organizational attraction ratings, as they are relatively “costless” and fail to capture the comprehensive job choice decision-making process (Slaughter & Greguras, 2009). This study examines job choice decisions in addition to attitudinal recruitment outcomes (e.g., attraction) and highlights the opportunity cost of job choice such that choosing one company inevitably means forgoing the opportunity of selecting another. Taken together, using a within-subjects design and job choice decisions allows for a more in-depth and realistic examination of the job choice process.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The results of this study have theoretical implications for the recruitment and organizational image literature. Prior work has found that job seekers’ perceptions of organizational image, specifically organizational personality perceptions, greatly influence their attitudes and behaviors during the initial recruitment process (e.g., Slaughter & Greguras, 2009; Slaughter et al., 2004). By conceptualizing an alternative organizational personality taxonomy that is theoretically driven and of appropriate bandwidth correspondence, this research examines the initial attraction process in order to better understand job seekers’ motivation behind their attitudes and behaviors (Highhouse et al., 2007). By demonstrating that individual differences in social identity concerns predict one’s attraction and selection of recruiting organizations differentiated on humanness personality factors (i.e., Human Nature, Human Unique), I expand on the stream of work that purports to understand job seekers’ motivation behind organizational attraction and job choice decisions. Results of Study 2 suggests that social identity concerns indeed influence recruitment attitudes and behaviors such that job seekers are attracted to

organizations with humanness personality that allows them to express with social identity. In sum, conceptualizing organizational personality in humanness terms advances our understanding of job seeker motivation during recruitment as well as how organizational image can manifest that motivation in recruitment attitudes and behaviors.

Practically, the results of this research can inform organizations in terms of reputation management; for instance, if organizations wish to attract a variety of job seekers then portraying both types of humanness information will result in higher preferences. Additionally, PO fit is positively associated with organizational commitment and negatively associated with quit intentions (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Thus, if organizations wish to attract job seekers who will view them as better fitting, then organizations should portray themselves as clearly possessing one of two humanness personality. Specifically, organizations may leverage the fact that people with different social identity concerns differentially prefer either HN or HU companies and improve their recruitment strategies (e.g., emphasizing Human Nature aspects of the organization on the company website) to recruit applicants that may have a better fit with the organization. As the war for talent grows, the pressure builds on organizations to attract and retain good fitting applicants. By understanding the motivation behind applicants' attraction process, organizations can tailor recruitment strategies to target their intended applicant pool and consequently create a competitive advantage during the recruitment process.

Limitations and Future Research

This current research presents a number of limitations. First, samples of college students and MTurk workers may not necessarily represent the active job seekers. However, this investigation was interested in examining initial symbolic attraction, thus the samples used here are still informative because these individuals will likely become job seekers at some point.

Additionally, recent research has found temporal perceptions to influence job choice outcomes such that for job seekers who hold a distant time perspective, abstract information (e.g., symbolic information) exerts a stronger influence fit perceptions (von Walter et al., 2012). In short, examining symbolic attraction process with undergraduate students may be a more fruitful endeavor than with job seekers on the job market who are focused on instrumental attributes such as pay and work hours. Nevertheless, future research can follow actual job seekers (e.g., graduating seniors) and empirically test whether sample differences occur.

Two, hypothetical mission statements were used as cues for humanness personality inferences; these may not reflect realistic inferences as many other factors regarding the companies would play a role in the job choice process. However, since this is the first investigation on humanness personality perceptions on job choice, the initial goal is not to establish generalizability but to test the theorized effect in situations in which it may not naturally occur in order to establish internal validity (Highhouse, 2009; Zhu, Barnes-Farrell, & Dalal, 2015). Although the findings in Phase 3 suggest that real organizations (e.g., Goldman-Sach's) are perceived differently based on HN and HU characteristics, the types of company presents a boundary limitation such that, although participants may be familiar with the organizations, they may be more likely to be influenced by their negative reputations as well (Brooks, Highhouse, Russell, & Mohr, 2003). Future research should examine more organizations or code organizational mission statements on degrees of humanness personality attributes and examine job seekers' attitudes and choice behaviors toward those organizations. Further, future research can examine whether real job seekers choose places of employment that correspond to their social identity values, and if so, whether they are linked to beneficial organizational outcomes (e.g., higher job satisfaction and engagement, less turnover).

Another potential extension to this research is to examine negative traits under a HN/HU taxonomy. Haslam (2006) found that people perceived others described with negative HN traits as more forgivable (i.e., all humans make mistakes) compared to HU traits. Thus it would be interesting to examine whether people are more lenient to organizations perceived as negative but in HN terms. This could have practical implications such that organizations framed, as more HN or HU may be more likely to recover from a mistake or scandal because people view it as more forgivable.

Conclusions

The current investigation contributes to research in two main ways. First, the new humanness personality taxonomy presents an alternative taxonomy that may be better suited for examining broad organization criteria, according to the bandwidth correspondence argument. Second, aligning the predictors based on theory allows for a better theoretical understanding between organizational perception and attraction and the role of social identity concerns. Since the decision to pursue a job is related to the general impression the job seeker maintains of an organization's attractiveness (Highhouse et al., 2003; Rynes, 1991; Turban, 2001), an understanding of how job seekers' initial perception to humanness aspects of the organization influence organizational attraction provides a theoretical as well as practical contribution to the recruitment literature.

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Table 1

Study 1: Standardized Exploratory Factor Analysis factor loadings of Human Nature and Human Unique factors

	<i>HN</i>	<i>HU</i>
Cheerful	.82	
Friendly	.84	
Fun-loving	.92	
Helpful	.81	
Honest	.90	
Honorable	.93	
Humble	.93	
Lively	.78	
Reliable	.73	
Trustworthy	.90	
Warm	.95	
Ambitious		.73
Analytical		.71
Assertive		.71
Decisive		.57
Hardworking		.56
Intelligent		.63
Powerful		.74
Successful		.79
Systematic		.74

Note: HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 2

Study 1: Fit indices of measurement models

<i>Models</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>RMSEA</i> [90% CI]	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>SRMR</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>
1. 2-Factor model	536.63	169	.08 [.07-.09]	.95	.94	.06	16567.86	16803.54
2. 1-Factor model	1453.88	170	.15 [.14-.15]	.81	.79	.12	17483.10	17714.92
3. 3-Factor model	1021.88	167	.12 [.11-.13]	.88	.86	.11	17057.10	17300.51

Note: Model-data fit was assessed using Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1998), Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1999), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI; Bollen, 1989). Values below .08 for the RMSEA and SRMR, and values about .90 for the CFI and TLI are considered acceptable fit (Chen, Curran, Bollen, Kirby, & Paxton, 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Rigdon, 1996). Models with lower AIC and BIC are typically considered to be superior to those with higher AIC and BIC (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006).

Table 3

Study 1: Humanness personality means and standard deviations and within-company comparisons

	<i>HN</i>		<i>HU</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Disney	4.37	.55	4.23	.66	164	3.24**	.23
Goldman-Sachs	2.84	.93	4.09	.80	130	13.59***	1.44
BP Oil	2.19	.87	3.21	.88	158	15.05***	1.17
Google	4.14	.73	4.55	.52	165	10.54***	.65

Note: ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. *d* indicates Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1992). HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 4

Study 1: Descriptives and comparison results of humanness personality ratings by company mission statements

	<i>HN</i>		<i>HU</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>			
HN Mission	3.54	.79	3.06	.84	88	6.22***	.59
HU Mission	3.04	.70	3.82	.68	84	8.58***	1.13
HN/HU Mission	3.19	.93	3.18	.84	71	.09	.01

Note: *** $p < .001$. *d* indicates Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1992). HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 5

Study 2: Means, standard deviations, and scale alphas of study variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Scale Alpha</i>
Social Adjustment	3.06	.87	.86
Value Expression	4.00	.60	.71
Company A HN	3.91	.77	.94
Company A HU	3.17	.77	.92
Company B HN	2.69	.81	.93
Company B HU	4.03	.74	.93
Company C HN	3.43	.83	.94
Company C HU	3.55	.75	.93
Company A Attraction	4.00	.79	.90
Company B Attraction	3.13	1.03	.93
Company C Attraction	3.87	.79	.89
Company A Fit	3.95	.76	.94
Company B Fit	3.23	.91	.97
Company C Fit	3.79	.78	.95
Company A Intent	3.67	.99	.90
Company B Intent	2.69	1.15	.91
Company C Intent	3.51	.93	.90

Note: HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 6

Study 2: Bivariate correlations of study variables separated by companies

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. SA																
2. VE	.34**															
3. Comp A HN	.09	.29**														
4. Comp A HU	.28**	.26**	.45**													
5. Comp B HN	.29**	.17**	.03	.42**												
6. Comp B HU	.03	.23**	.54**	.17**	.19**											
7. Comp C HN	.23**	.22**	.35**	.32**	.32**	.34**										
8. Comp C HU	.17**	.18**	.40**	.42**	.31**	.40**	.46**									
9. Comp A Attraction	.05	.25**	.63**	.38**	-.06	.28**	.10	.21**								
10. Comp B Attraction	.26**	.07	-.11	.07	.62**	.12*	.10	.06	-.15*							
11. Comp C Attraction	.11	.16**	.23**	.04	.04	.28**	.64**	.37**	.12*	.10						
12. Comp A Fit	.05	.21**	.63**	.50**	-.09	.20**	.13*	.20**	.82**	-.21**	.02					
13. Comp B Fit	.28**	.04	-.13*	.09	.65**	.14*	.08	.09	-.19**	.86**	.01	-.21**				
14. Comp C Fit	.17**	.16**	.21**	.10	.09	.23**	.62**	.38**	.06	.09	.81**	.06	.07			
15. Comp A Intent	.10	.24**	.65**	.44**	-.048	.24**	.10	.20**	.90**	-.16**	.08	.82**	-.19**	.06		
16. Comp B Intent	.24**	.04	-.09	.08	.61**	.16**	.10	.05	-.16**	.92**	.08	-.19**	.85**	.09	-.15**	
17. Comp C Intent	.16**	.12*	.20**	.09	.08	.25**	.65**	.39**	.12	.10	.88**	.05	.03	.84**	.13*	.12*

Note: Company A is represented as Human Nature. Company B is represented as Human Unique. Company C is represented as a combination of Human Nature and Human Unique. Comp = Company; SA = Social Adjustment Concerns; VE = Value Expression Concerns. HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 7

Study 2: Repeated measures ANOVA results on between-companies differences

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mauchly's Test</i>		<i>ANOVA</i>		<i>Post-Hoc</i>
	$\chi^2(df)$	ϵ	df	<i>F</i> -value	
HN Ratings	16.23 (2)	.96	1.91, 579.41	233.75	All comparisons are significantly different.
HU Ratings	17.43 (2)	.95	1.91, 577.32	147.85	All comparisons are significantly different.
Fit	25.43 (2)	.93	1.86, 562.02	77.2	Company A & C comparisons are nonsignificant.
Attraction	31.04 (2)	.92	1.83, 553.27	87.69	Company A & C comparisons are nonsignificant.
Pursuit Intentions	21.04 (2)	.94	1.89, 569.21	66.11	All comparisons are significantly different.

Note: All Mauchly's Tests were significant at $p < .001$. Huynh-Feldt corrections were used as $\epsilon > .75$. All *F*-values were significant at $p < .001$. Post-Hoc Tests were conducted with Bonferroni correction. HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 8

Study 2: Within-Companies differences of humanness personality ratings for each company

<i>Humanness Ratings Comparisons</i>		<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>d</i>
Company A	HN - HU	15.99	<.001	.96
Company B	HN - HU	-23.66	<.001	1.73
Company C	HN - HU	-2.57	.01	.15

Note: d indicates Cohen's d (Cohen, 1992). HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 9

Study 2: Polynomial regression results by company on outcome variables

<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Unstandardized Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>R-square Change</i>
Fit (Company A)					
HN	.95	.07	13.17	<0.001	
VE	-.08	.08	-.97	.33	.40
HN squared	.15	.06	2.74	.01	
VE squared	-.27	.08	-3.32	<0.001	.04
HN x VE	.26	.10	2.47	.01	.01
Attraction (Company A)					
HN	.70	.06	11.90	<0.001	
VE	.05	.07	.68	.50	.40
HN squared	.08	.05	1.80	.07	.01
VE squared	-.09	.07	-1.29	.20	
HN x VE	.07	.09	.82	.41	.001
Pursuit Intentions (Company A)					
HN	.70	.06	12.67	<0.001	
VE	.01	.06	.23	.82	.43
HN squared	.08	.04	1.86	.06	.01
VE squared	-.11	.06	-1.72	.09	
HN x VE	.09	.08	1.10	.27	.002
Fit (Company B)					
HU	.14	.11	1.34	.18	
SA	.34	.07	4.73	.00	.10
HU squared	-.13	.08	-1.51	.13	
SA squared	.02	.07	.26	.80	.003
HU x SA	.22	.09	2.54	.01	.02
Attraction (Company B)					
HU	.11	.10	1.14	.26	
SA	.29	.07	4.38	<0.001	.08
HU squared	-.10	.08	-1.39	.17	
SA squared	-.03	.06	-.49	.62	.003
HU x SA	.21	.08	2.70	.01	.002
Pursuit Intentions (Company B)					
HU	.11	.08	1.35	.18	
SA	.23	.06	4.02	<0.001	.081
HU squared	-.13	.07	-1.96	.05	
SA squared	.01	.05	.14	.89	.004
HU x SA	.23	.05	4.45	<0.001	.04

Note: SA—Social Adjustment Concerns; VE—Value Expression Concerns; <0.001

HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

Table 10

Study 2: Surface response analyses results

	Company A						Company B					
	Fit		Attraction		Pursuit Intentions		Fit		Attraction		Pursuit Intentions	
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>
a ₁	.87***	.09	.75***	.08	.72***	.07	.48***	.11	.39**	.12	.34**	.10
a ₂	.13	.12	.06	.10	.06	.09	.11	.11	.07	.11	.11	.09
a ₃	1.03***	.13	.65***	.10	.69***	.09	-.20	.14	-.18	.12	-.12	.10
a ₄	-.38*	.16	-.08	.13	-.12	.13	-.33*	.16	-.34**	.12	-.36**	.11

Note: Surface area slopes and curves were tested for significant interactions. a₁: slope along x = y, a₂: curvature on x = y, a₃: Slope along x = -y, a₄: curvature on x = -y.

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

Table 11

Study 2: Multinomial logistic regression results

HN as the reference category					
Company Choice		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i> [95% Confidence Interval]
HU Company	Intercept	1.42	1.16	1.48	--
	SA	.52	.24	4.61	1.69* [1.05-2.72]
	VE	-1.08	.33	10.79	.34** [.18-.65]
HN/HU Company	Intercept	1.05	.9	1.36	--
	SA	.14	.16	.84	1.15 [.850-1.57]
	VE	-.42	.23	3.24	.66 [.42-1.04]
HN/HU as the reference category					
Company Choice		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i> [95% Confidence Interval]
HN Company	Intercept	-1.05	.9	1.36	--
	SA	-.14	.16	.84	.867 [.64-1.18]
	VE	.42	.23	3.24	1.52 [.96-2.40]
HU Company	Intercept	.36	1.14	.1	--
	SA	.38	.25	2.36	1.46 [.90-2.38]
	VE	-.66	.33	4.06	.52* [.27-.98]

Note: SA—Social Adjustment Concerns; VE—Value Expression Concerns; HN—Human Nature; HU—Human Unique.

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

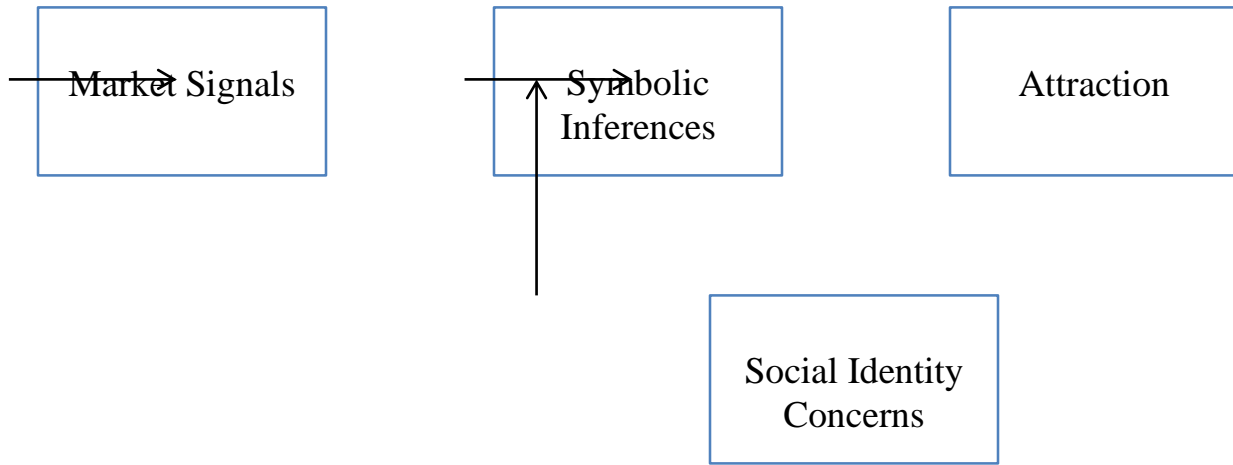


Figure 1: Model of Theory of Symbolic Attraction

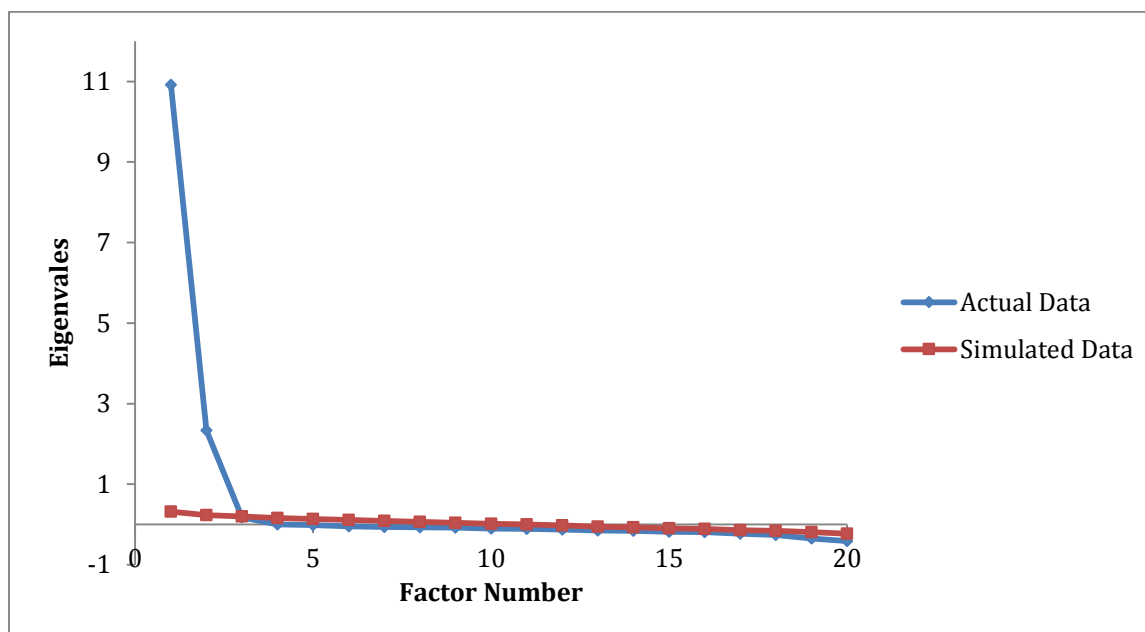


Figure 2: Parallel analysis scree plot with actual and simulated data

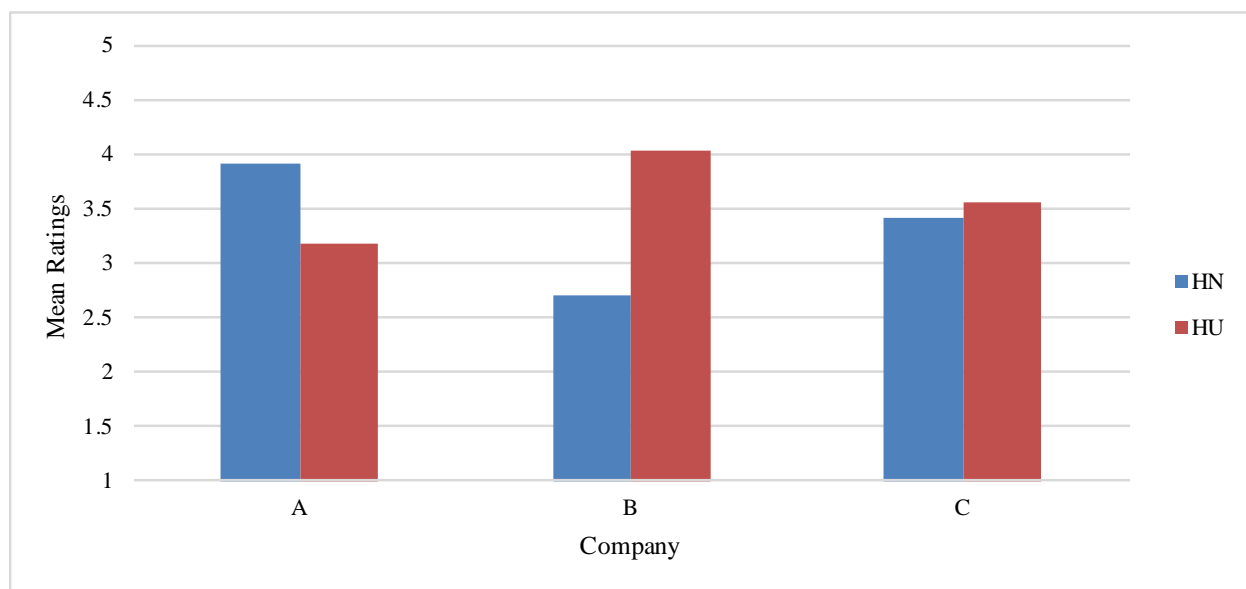


Figure 3: Between Companies and Within Companies differences on Human Nature (HN) and Human Unique (HU) ratings

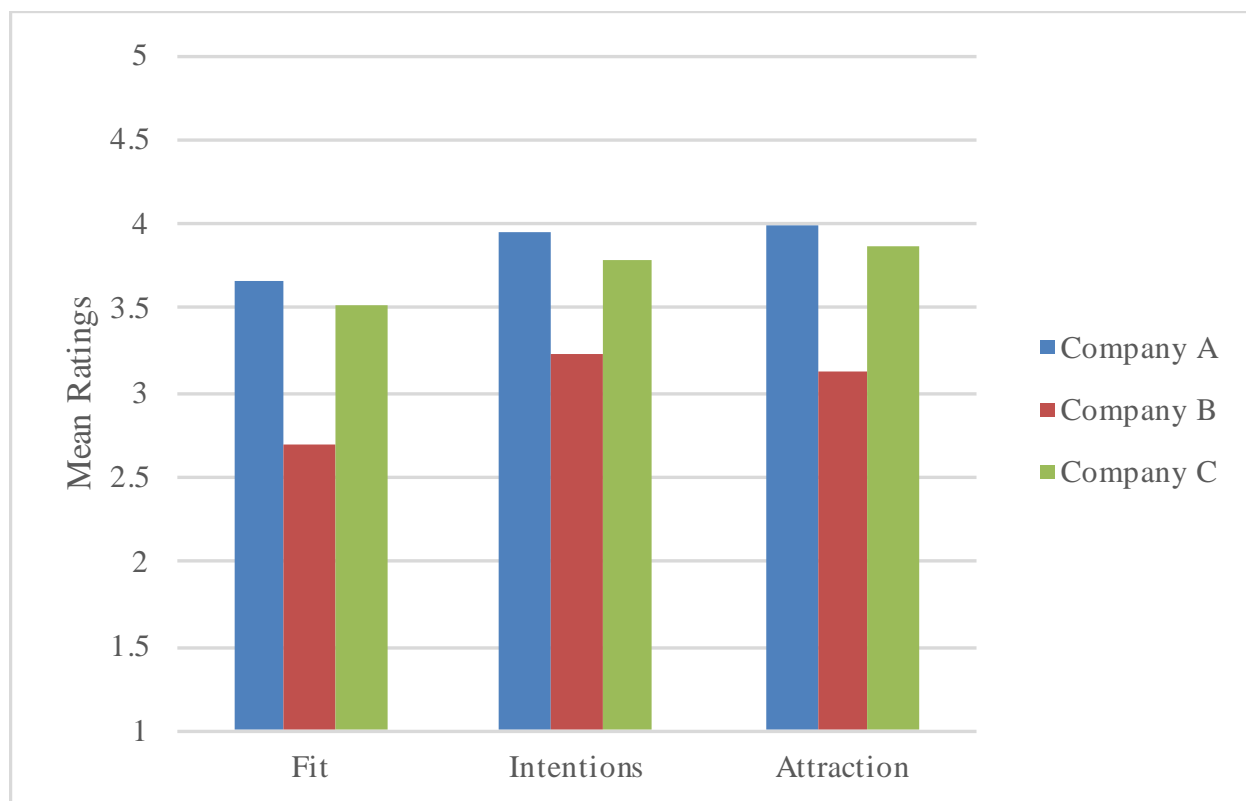


Figure 4: Between Companies differences on outcome variables

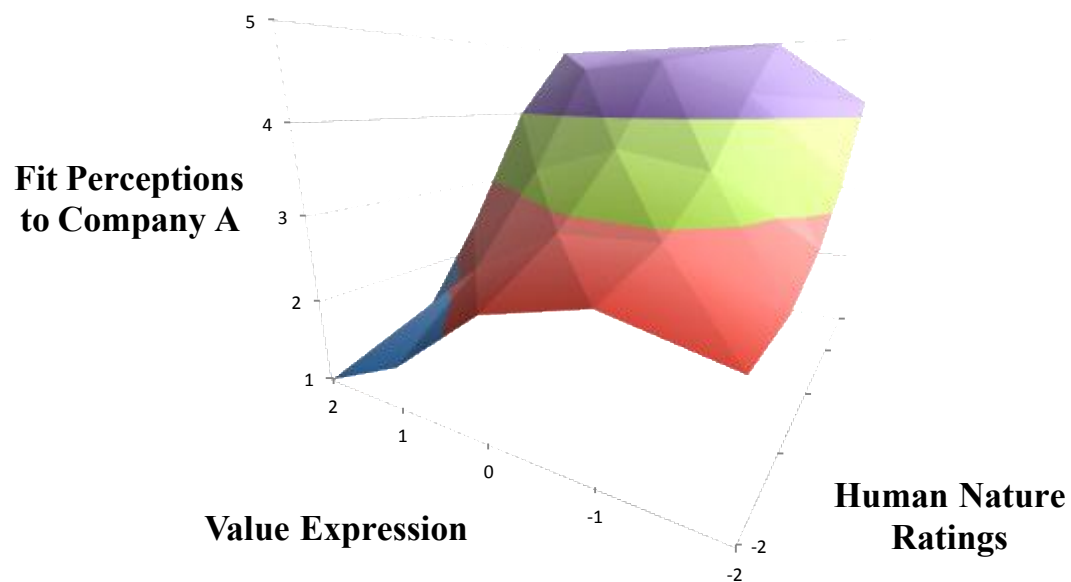


Figure 5: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between Value Expression concerns and Human Nature ratings for Company A fit perceptions.

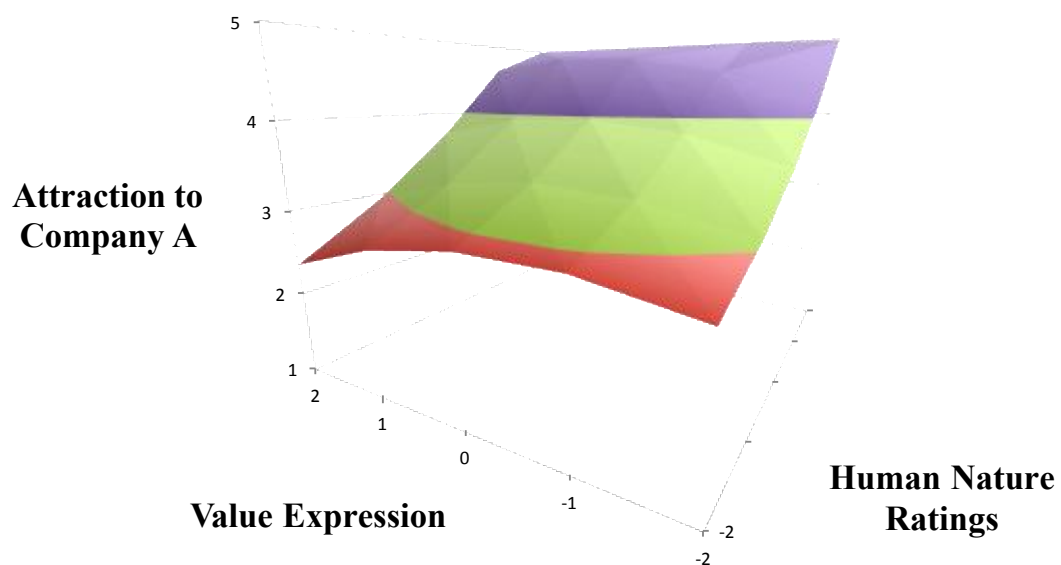


Figure 6: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between Value Expression concerns and Human Nature ratings for Company A attraction.

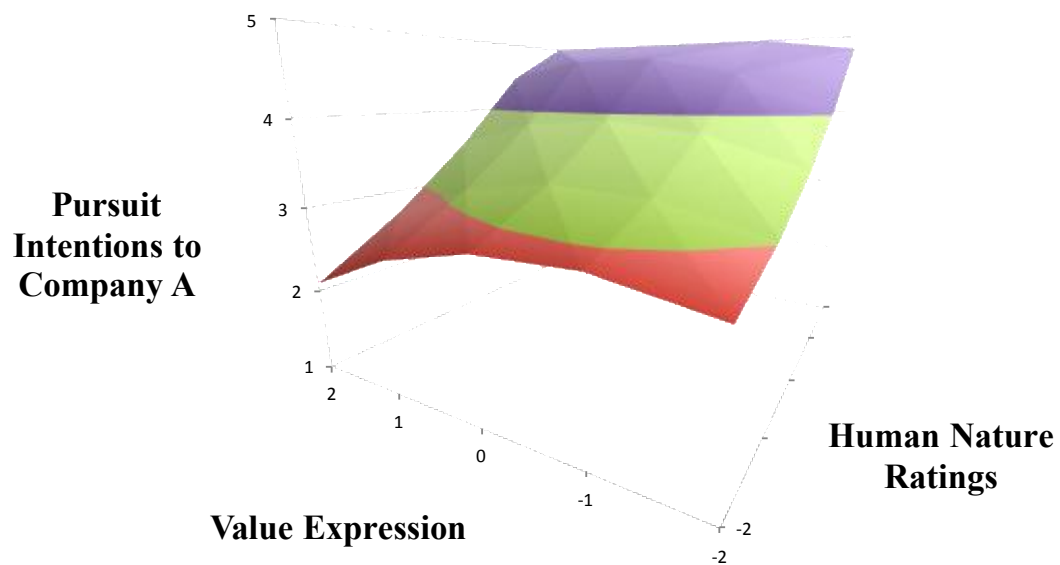


Figure 7: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between Value Expression concerns and Human Nature ratings for Company A pursuit intentions.

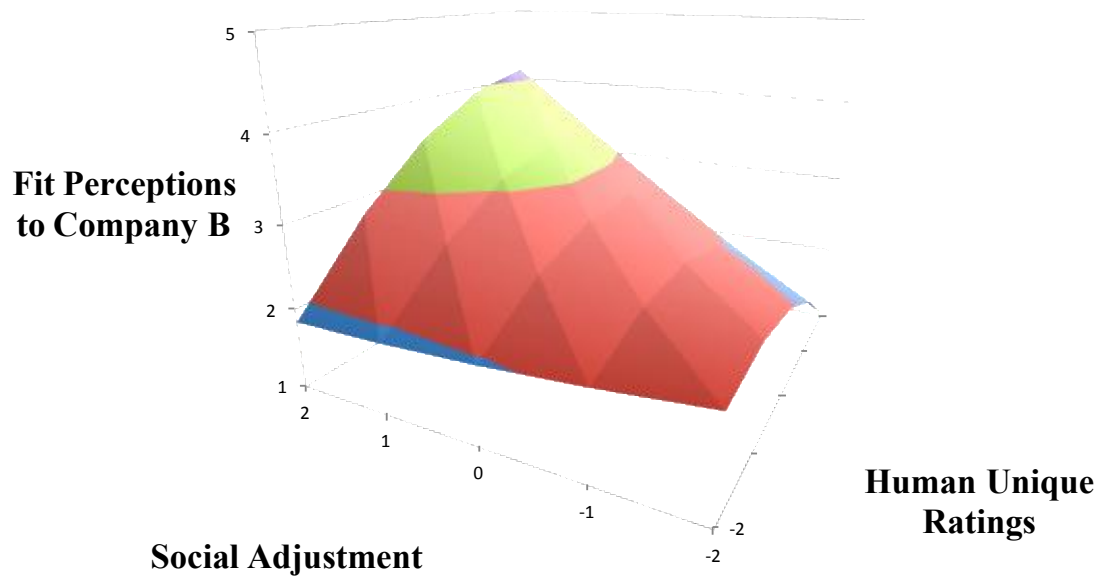


Figure 8: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between Social Adjustment concerns and Human Unique ratings for Company B fit perceptions.

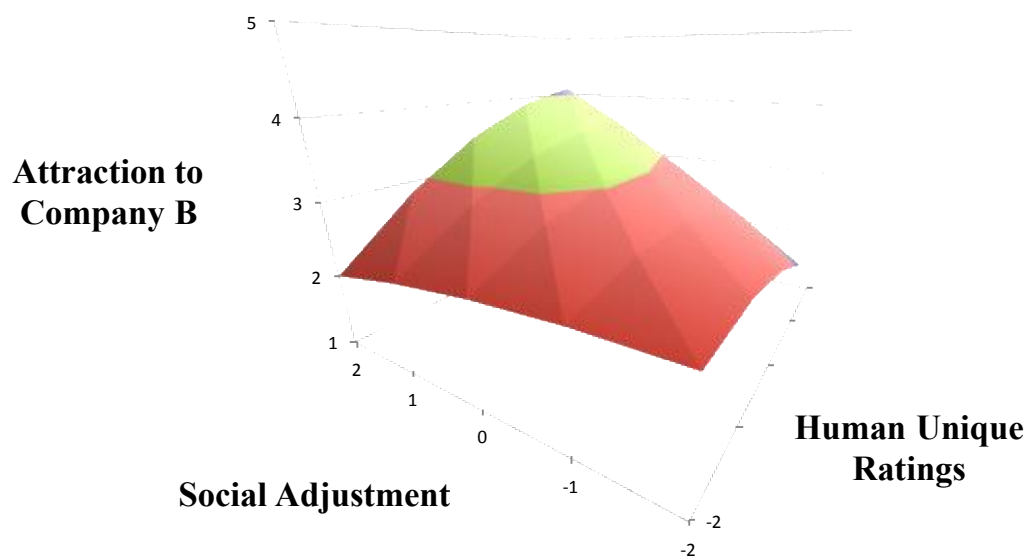


Figure 9: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between Social Adjustment concerns and Human Unique ratings for Company B attraction.

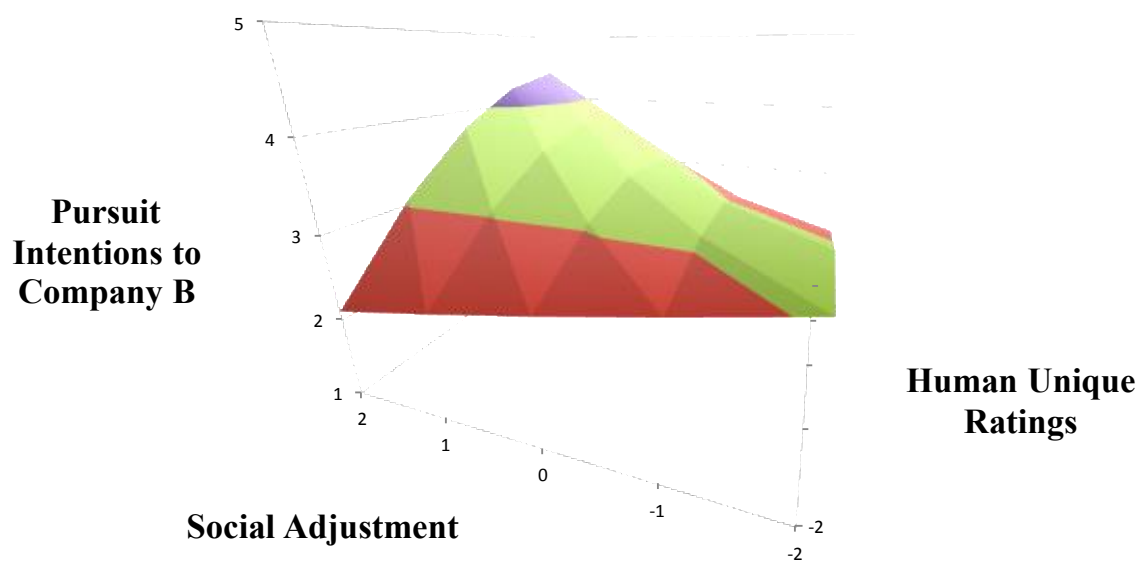


Figure 10: 3-D Response surface plots of interactions between social adjustment concerns and Human Unique ratings for Company B pursuit intentions.

Appendix A**Study 1 Original list of organizational personality traits****Human Nature Traits**

1. Lively
2. Curious
3. Friendly
4. Fun-loving
5. Cheerful
6. Cooperative
7. Helpful
8. Honest
9. Reliable
10. Honorable
11. Passionate
12. Trustworthy
13. Optimistic
14. Bold
15. Warm
16. Humble
17. Adaptable
18. Compassionate
19. Sociable
20. Hopeful

Human Unique Traits

1. Ambitious
2. Analytical
3. Creative
4. Original
5. Powerful
6. Successful
7. Sophisticated
8. Unique
9. Rational
10. Hardworking
11. Intelligent
12. Broadminded
13. Assertive
14. Controlled
15. Decisive
16. Innovative
17. Meticulous
18. Systematic
19. Attentive
20. Imaginative

Appendix B

Company mission statements used in Study 1 Phase 4 and Study 2

Human Nature Company (Mission 1)

We are committed to fostering a supportive and respectable culture. We provide employees with collaboration opportunities, and we enjoy working with each other and having a good time.

Above all, we strive to be ethical in everything we do. Our company is dedicated to providing the highest quality services with dependability, humility, and an energetic spirit.

Human Unique Company (Mission 2)

Our mission is to implement and deliver rigorous and original solutions within an environment that values productivity and efficiency. We respect our employees' autonomy and uphold a standard of methodical thinking and problem solving that guarantees solid financial performance. Most importantly, we value the spirit of competition with an aspiration to be the best.

Human Nature/Human Unique Company (Mission 3)

Our company delivers ethical and rational solutions while emphasizing our employees' satisfaction during the collaborative process. We strive to be sensible and hospitable while staying committed to key business drivers that enhance the financial prosperity of the company. In short, we value the well-being of our employee, as well as the overall performance of the company.