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Gender, Bottom-Line Mentality, and Workplace Mistreatment: The Roles of Gender Norm Violation and Team Gender Composition

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Although gender has been identified as an important antecedent in workplace mistreatment research, empirical research has shown mixed results. Drawing on role congruity theory, we propose an interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on being the target of mistreatment. Across two field studies, our results showed that whereas women experienced more mistreatment when they had higher levels of bottom-line mentality, men experienced more mistreatment when they had lower levels of bottom-line mentality. In another field study, using round-robin survey data, we found that team gender composition influenced the degree to which the adoption of a bottom-line mentality by female team members was perceived to be a gender norm violation, which subsequently predicted their likelihood of being mistreated. Specifically, women who had higher (vs. lower) levels of bottom-line mentality were more likely to be perceived to violate gender norms in teams with a lower proportion of women, and in turn, perceived gender norm violation was positively associated with being mistreated. We discuss theoretical and practical implications of our findings and directions for future research.

Keywords: gender, bottom-line mentality, gender norm violation, mistreatment, team gender composition

Supplemental materials: <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000936.supp>

Workplace mistreatment, defined as an antisocial form of organizational deviance involving a situation in which an individual engages in counternormative negative interpersonal behaviors (e.g., victimization, bullying, and social undermining) directed at another organizational member (Cortina & Magley, 2003), is pervasive. According to a survey involving more than 6,000 respondents, 60% reported that they had been bullied in the last 6 months at work

(UNISON, 2011). Not surprisingly, workplace mistreatment has a detrimental impact on targets' health, job attitudes, and performance (e.g., Lee et al., 2016; Smith & Webster, 2017).

One individual characteristic that has been widely studied and considered to be a key antecedent of being the target of mistreatment is gender, a surface-level demographic characteristic that is deeply rooted in belief structures and systems, which not only guides one's behavior but also others' perceptions of how one should behave (Dovidio et al., 2001; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Indeed, popular press and large-scale polls suggest that gender is a salient factor for workplace mistreatment, and in particular, women are more likely to be targets of workplace mistreatment (e.g., bullying) than men (Roberts, 2016; Trade Union Congress, 2015). Despite these arguments and anecdotal evidence, meta-analytic reviews find that empirical evidence regarding gender of target and multiple types of non-sexual-based mistreatment is weak or inconsistent (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), and almost negligible (McCord et al., 2018).

Drawing on role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), we argue that women *and* men are more likely to be mistreated at the workplace when they do not adhere to prescribed gender roles or violate gender norms—the perception that one's attitudes and behaviors deviate from what is considered to be expected and appropriate based on one's gender (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004; Rudman et al., 2012). Although there are many prescribed gender norms which designate how women and men are expected to and should behave (see Heilman, 2012, for a review), one particularly relevant individual characteristic that

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highlights prescribed gender norms specifically at the workplace is bottom-line mentality. In our research, we examine bottom-line mentality—one-dimensional thinking that centers on obtaining bottom-line outcomes to the neglect of other competing organizational goals (Greenbaum et al., 2012)—as a key gender role-laden differentiator to explain when women and men experience mistreatment at work.

We expand our focus beyond the individual level and further argue that it is vital to examine these focal relationships across different levels of analysis. At the team level, employees are likely to attach high relevance and pay attention to team members' bottom-line mentality because it contributes to team success (Treviño et al., 2003). However, the competitive and results-oriented mindset underlying bottom-line mentality primes gender-normative expectations that are likely to be amplified in the focal employee's team context. We extend the literature on team gender composition—the configuration of gender in teams (Levine & Moreland, 1990)—which draws on several theories (i.e., social role theory, social identity theory) and suggest that team gender composition should influence how women are socially evaluated in teams (Joshi, 2014). In doing so, we propose that team gender composition is likely to highlight the status and behavior of tokenized team members (Kanter, 1977) and gender norms (Moscovici, 1980). When there are fewer women in the team, women are more likely to be regarded as lower-status token members and scrutinized for counternormative behavior (Kanter, 1977). Thus, team gender composition is likely to affect the extent to which team members perceived to be of lower status (i.e., women) are regarded as gender norm violators when they display role incongruent behavior (i.e., higher levels of bottom-line mentality).

Our study contributes to the literatures of mistreatment, gender, and bottom-line mentality in three ways. First, building on role congruity theory, we predict the interactive influence of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment. Furthermore, we identify a potential psychological mechanism (i.e., gender norm violation) and a contextual factor (i.e., team gender composition) to clarify the relationships among gender, bottom-line mentality, and mistreatment. Second, we contribute to role congruity theory (Eagly et al., 2000) by demonstrating that beyond gender role expectations associated with broad gender-related traits (e.g., agency; Eagly & Karau, 2002), bottom-line mentality is a specific work mentality that is highly relevant in organizations. In doing so, we suggest that bottom-line mentality has an impact on and implications for gender-based perceptions and interpersonal outcomes. Third, our research extends the bottom-line mentality literature by studying it in the context of gender and mistreatment. Past research shows that employees with higher bottom-line mentality may undermine coworkers (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Previous work on bottom-line mentality treats gender as a control variable (Bonner et al., 2017), rather than as a focal variable that interacts with bottom-line mentality to predict employee experiences. Our research extends the literature by studying how the combination of gender and bottom-line mentality explains employees' likelihood of being mistreated at work.

Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

The Interactive Influence of Gender and Bottom-Line Mentality on Mistreatment

Bottom-line mentality is conceptualized as a specific and work-focused mentality that manifests in the organizational context and

may be specifically triggered by leaders and organizations (Bonner et al., 2017; Greenbaum et al., 2012). Given bottom-line mentality's association with employee rewards (Latham & Locke, 2007) and importance to organizational profitability (Treviño et al., 2003), we suggest that employees are likely to pay attention to their coworkers' bottom-line mentalities and evaluate whether they are congruent with how employees are expected to behave at work.

Building on role congruity theory, we argue that bottom-line mentality may prime perceptions of (in)congruent gender roles in today's competitive work environment and influence when women and men are mistreated. Role congruity theory posits that women and men are expected to behave accordingly to their prescribed gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Bottom-line mentality fosters adversarial relationships among coworkers (Wolfe, 1988), zero-sum mindsets (Callahan, 2004), and social undermining behaviors (Greenbaum et al., 2012). Put simply, because bottom-line mentality promotes competitiveness, a win-lose mentality, and aggressiveness, we surmise that it is more closely aligned with gender role expectations for men than for women. Although not specifically studied with respect to bottom-line mentality, there is some evidence that hostility, competitiveness, and win-lose mentality are perceived as predominantly male attributes (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman et al., 2004).

We propose an interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on being the target of mistreatment, such that people who possess a bottom-line mentality that is incongruent with their gender roles will be penalized. In our context, this suggests that coworkers are more likely to view women's (men's) higher (lower) levels of bottom-line mentality to be incongruent with their gender roles, which results in mistreatment against them. Specifically, women who are higher, rather than lower, on bottom-line mentality will be considered as aggressive and competitive, characteristics that are incongruent with established female gender norms (Heilman et al., 1995). Thus, women who adopt a bottom-line mentality are more likely to be mistreated. In contrast, men who are lower, rather than higher, on bottom-line mentality will be considered as passive and yielding, characteristics that run contrary to the prescribed male stereotype (Moss-Racusin et al., 2010). Therefore, men with lower (vs. higher) bottom-line mentality will be perceived as behaving incongruently with male gender norms, resulting in them being mistreated. Taken together these arguments, we hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Gender and bottom-line mentality have an interactive effect on mistreatment, such that women who are higher (vs. lower) on bottom-line mentality are more likely to experience mistreatment, while men who are lower (vs. higher) on bottom-line mentality are more likely to experience mistreatment.

The Mediating Role of Gender Norm Violation

Given that reference points for social judgments are largely influenced by gender-based attributes or stereotypes (see Biernat, 2003; Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1999), our earlier theorizing presumes that people perceive women and men to violate gender norms when they behave incongruently with their prescribed gender norms. In our context, the qualities rated as being more acceptable and desirable for men, rather than women, to possess, were indicators of bottom-line mentality such as "business sense,"

“ambitious,” “competitive,” and “aggressive” (Rudman et al., 2012). Therefore, we propose that people are more likely to perceive women’s (men’s) higher (lower) levels of bottom-line mentality as a gender norm violation due to the incongruence with their gender role expectations.

Gender norm violation, in turn, is likely to prompt mistreatment. When people behave counterstereotypically and violate gender stereotypes, they experience social and economic reprisal, otherwise known as the backlash effect (see Rudman & Phelan, 2008, for a review). For example, in organizational settings, men who cry during performance evaluations are perceived as displaying “atypical behavior” and thus penalized with lower performance evaluations from their direct supervisor (Motro & Ellis, 2017). Women who self-promoted to enhance their status are regarded to violate female stereotypes and hence perceived to be less likable and hireable (Rudman, 1998). Overall, we predict that gender norm violation may explain why women (men) who are higher (lower) on bottom-line mentality are more likely to be mistreated.

Hypothesis 2: Gender norm violation mediates the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment, such that the indirect interactive effect via gender norm violation is stronger for women who are higher (vs. lower) on bottom-line mentality and for men who are lower (vs. higher) on bottom-line mentality.

The Moderating Role of Team Gender Composition

Team gender composition, in particular the proportion of women on teams, may influence team members’ evaluations of one another. Although there is increasing representation of women on work teams (Baugh & Graen, 1997; LePine et al., 2002), the traditional perception that women have lower social status than men in the workplace persists (Chatman & O’Reilly, 2004; Kanter, 1977). This perception may negatively affect attitudes toward women, and women are even more likely to be evaluated poorly in teams with lower proportion of female members than in teams with higher proportion of female members (Ely, 1990, 1995; Joshi et al., 2006).

In the context of our research, we propose that the proportion of women in the team is likely to influence the degree to which women who are higher (vs. lower) on bottom-line mentality are perceived to violate gender norms by highlighting the salience of gender norms and gender as a status characteristic. When there are fewer women in the team, their presence becomes more visible, as well as expectations for them to engage in behaviors that are role congruent (Baugh & Graen, 1997; Kanter, 1977). Indeed, low-status individuals are more likely to be scrutinized for nonnormative behavior than high-status individuals as they are expected to conform accordingly and inhibit their nonnormative behaviors (Boyle & Shapira, 2012; Cummins, 1999; Thomas-Hunt & Phillips, 2011). In teams, when subgroups of relatively small size and low status behave in ways that are incongruent with their prescribed gender norms (e.g., women displaying higher bottom-line mentality in teams with fewer women), such counterstereotypical behaviors are even more likely to be noticed and potentially penalized (Ibarra, 1993; Lau & Murnighan, 1998). Thus, we predict that women who are higher (vs. lower) on bottom-line mentality are more likely to be perceived to violate gender norms in teams with a lower proportion of women than in teams with a higher proportion of women.

In contrast, we propose that the proportion of women in the team is unlikely to influence the degree to which men who are lower (vs. higher) on bottom-line mentality are perceived to violate gender norms. Team gender composition has asymmetrical consequences for low- and high-status individuals (i.e., women and men), such that high-status team members are not more likely to be discriminated and penalized as their numbers decrease (Barnett et al., 2000; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1987, 1991). Because status tends to be associated with perceived competence (Carli & Eagly, 1999), high-status individuals (i.e., men) may still be regarded positively even when they are in a numerical minority standing (Barnett et al., 2000). In other words, men may be insulated from the negative consequences of having relatively low representation in their teams because they are perceived to be of higher status. Thus, in teams with higher proportion of women, when high-status minorities (i.e., men) display lower bottom-line mentality, they are no more likely to be perceived to violate gender norms as compared to teams with lower proportion of women. Combining with Hypothesis 2, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 3: The indirect interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment via gender norm violation will be moderated by team gender composition. For women who are higher (vs. lower) on bottom-line mentality, the indirect effect is stronger in teams that have a lower proportion of women as compared to teams that have a higher proportion of women. For men who are lower (vs. higher) on bottom-line mentality, the indirect effect will not be significantly different across proportion of women in teams.

Overview of Studies

We test our hypotheses in three studies using Korean employees. In Studies 1a and 1b, we examine the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment (Hypothesis 1) using different employee samples. In Study 2, we test our predictions in a team context using a round-robin design. We also examine gender norm violation, which we theorized as the potential mediating mechanism but did not explicitly test in Studies 1a and 1b (Hypothesis 2). Finally, Study 2 investigates whether team gender composition¹ moderates the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on gender norm violation, which in turn predicts the likelihood of being mistreated (Hypothesis 3).

Studies 1a and 1b

Method

Participants and Procedure

Study 1a. Participants were recruited from a government agency in South Korea that provides tax services, such as collecting individual income tax (University of Minnesota Institutional Review Boards (IRB) #1105P98980, titled “Social Relationships at Workplace and Their Outcomes”). We distributed surveys to 250 employees and 217 employees responded (response rate of 84%). After

¹ We did not examine team gender composition in Studies 1a and 1b because we did not have the full team roster and know the response rates within teams in these studies (cf., Liao et al., 2004).

Table 1*Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses: Discriminant Validity of Bottom-Line Mentality for Studies 1a and 1b*

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	SRMR
Study 1a						
Three-factor model	147.38**	85			.95	.06
Two-factor model (bottom-line mentality and negative affectivity combined)	416.14**	87	268.76**	2	.73	.12
Two-factor model (bottom-line mentality and mistreatment combined)	518.74**	87	371.36**	2	.65	.25
One-factor model	765.81**	88	618.43**	3	.45	.25
Study 1b						
Four-factor model	52.50**	29			.98	.04
Three-factor model (bottom-line mentality and agency combined)	258.44**	32	205.94**	3	.83	.11
Three-factor model (bottom-line mentality and negative affectivity combined)	271.55**	32	219.05**	3	.82	.11
Three-factor model (bottom-line mentality and mistreatment combined)	341.04**	32	288.54**	3	.77	.16
One-factor model	788.37**	35	735.87**	6	.43	.21

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual.

** $p < .01$.

removing cases with missing data using listwise deletion, the final sample was 176 employees from 49 teams. Employees worked in functional teams where they are in charge of different aspects of tax processing (e.g., corporate tax collection, tax consulting). Participants were offered 10,000 Korean Won (10 USD). Participants averaged 40 years old; 69% were men; 6% had a high school diploma, 20% had a 2-year college degree, 71% had a 4-year university degree, and 3% had a master's degree and above. Average organizational tenure was 13.7 years. The current data overlapped with data in Lee et al. (2018, Study 1) who examined different research questions.

Study 1b. Participants were recruited from an advertising agency and its affiliated productions in South Korea (Singapore Management University IRB #13-0091-A0106, titled "Envy and Its Consequences"). The advertising agency creates newspaper, television, and internet commercials for clients. Participants were offered 10,000 Korean Won (10 USD) for completing a survey. Surveys were distributed to all 392 employees and 224 employees participated (response rate of 57%). After removing cases with missing values using listwise deletion, the final sample comprised 191 employees from 46 teams. Employees worked in teams with specific functions and specialties (e.g., copywriting team and postproduction editing) and were involved in different projects. Participants averaged 29 years old; 62% were men; 90% had a bachelor's degree and 10% had a master's degree and above. Average organizational tenure was 2.4 years.

Measures

Because the original survey items were in English, we followed the translation/back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980). Of two bilingual authors from the research team, one author translated the original items into Korean and the other author back-translated the items into English. The two translators then discussed discrepancy in wordings to ensure equivalence of meanings with the advice of another bilingual researcher who was not familiar with the study. The process repeated until mutual agreement was reached. Finally, the senior organizational leaders confirmed the clarity of the survey items. We report full items of study variables (including anchors) in all three studies in the Appendix.

Gender. Gender was coded as 0 for *women* and 1 for *men*.

Bottom-Line Mentality. Bottom-line mentality was measured with a four-item scale by Greenbaum et al. (2012; Studies 1a and 1b, $\alpha = .88$).

Mistreatment. For Studies 1a and 1b, participants rated team members in general as the referent in the survey. For Study 1a, we operationalized mistreatment using a seven-item social undermining scale from Duffy et al. (2006; $\alpha = .93$). For Study 1b, we measured mistreatment using an eight-item victimization scale from Aquino et al. (1999; $\alpha = .83$).

Control Variables. We controlled for negative affectivity (Zellars et al., 2002; Study 1a, $\alpha = .86$; Study 1b, $\alpha = .87$) as negative affectivity is one of the most consistent antecedents of workplace mistreatment (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). In Study 1b, we also controlled for agency² (Abele et al., 2008; $\alpha = .92$) as agency captures broad gender-related traits (Eagly et al., 2000).

Results

We first checked the nestedness of our dependent variable (i.e., mistreatment) within teams. For Study 1a, the results of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for mistreatment across teams were nonsignificant, $F [48, 127] = 1.38, p = .08$. However, the intraclass coefficient (ICC1) for mistreatment was .09 and significant, 95% CI = [.02, .36], which suggests 9% of variance in mistreatment can be explained by team membership (Bliese, 2000) and interpreted as a small to medium effect of group membership (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). For Study 1b, ANOVA results showed no significant difference in the variance of mistreatment across teams, $F [45, 145] = 1.00, n.s.$ The ICC1 of .00 for mistreatment confirmed that no substantial variance resided between teams. Hence, we proceeded to analyze data from Study 1a with hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) and Study 1b with ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Before we tested our hypothesis, we also assessed whether our study variables are empirically distinct from each other by running confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Muthén & Muthén, 2012, see Table 1). For Study 1a, we ran clustered CFA that is used to account for data nestedness by adjusting the standard errors for the clustering. For Study 1b, given the small sample size relative to the large number of items (Landis et al., 2000), we utilized item parceling (Little et al., 2002) by randomly creating three parcel items each for agency and mistreatment, and two parcel

² We did not measure agency in Study 1a because we did not consider whether bottom-line mentality is unique or different from agency prior to our data collection. To address this potential limitation, we controlled for agency and the interaction of gender and agency in Studies 1b and 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables in Studies 1a and 1b

Variable	Study 1a		Study 1b		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>							
1. Age	40.63	6.16	29.31	2.37	N/A	.58	-.06	.09	.38	-.03	-.03
2. Organizational tenure	13.74	6.82	2.40	0.96	.85**	N/A	-.11	.00	.23	-.05	.00
3. Negative affectivity	2.49	0.76	1.90	0.73	-.08	-.09	(.86/.87)	.08	-.08	.11	.19
4. Agency			3.98	1.37	N/A	N/A	N/A	(N/A/.92)	-.02	.15	-.06
5. Gender	0.69	0.46	0.62	0.49	.18*	.05	.02	.03	N/A	.03	-.07
6. Bottom-line mentality	3.27	1.09	3.06	1.32	-.03	-.04	.31**	N/A	.05	(.88/.88)	.03
7. Mistreatment	1.58	0.52	1.24	0.35	.10	.02	.19*	N/A	.06	.02	(.93/.83)

Note. $N = 176$ (Study 1a, $N = 174$ for age) and $N = 191$ (Study 1b). Correlations below the diagonal are for Study 1a and those above the diagonal are for Study 1b. Coefficient alphas appear in parentheses along the diagonal with first numbers for Study 1a and second numbers for Study 1b. N/A = not available. Gender: women = 0, men = 1. Organizational tenure is in years.

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

items each for bottom-line mentality and negative affectivity. Results of the CFAs in both studies supported our proposed measurement model.

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics and correlations among variables. Table 3 shows the results of HLM analysis for Study 1a. We grand-mean centered our continuous variables and used the centered variable of bottom-line mentality for its interaction term with gender. In Model 3, the interaction term of gender and bottom-line mentality was significant ($\gamma = -.22$, $p < .01$). As shown in Figure 1, women experienced more mistreatment when they had higher (+1 *SD*; vs. lower; -1 *SD*) levels of bottom-line mentality (simple slope = .13, $p < .05$). In contrast, men experienced more mistreatment when they had lower (vs. higher) levels of bottom-line mentality (simple slope = $-.09$, $p < .05$).

Table 4 shows the results of regression analysis for Study 1b. We again grand-mean centered continuous variables and created

interaction terms. In Model 3, the interaction term of gender and bottom-line mentality was significant ($b = -.12$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .09$). This represented a small effect size based on attitude-behavior relations in applied psychology research (Bosco et al., 2015). Importantly, this effect held after controlling for the interaction term of gender and agency which did not predict mistreatment ($b = -.01$, *n.s.*). As shown in Figure 2, women experienced more mistreatment when they had higher (+1 *SD*; versus lower; -1 *SD*) levels of bottom-line mentality (simple slope = .07, $p < .05$). In contrast, men experienced more mistreatment when they had lower (vs. higher) levels of bottom-line mentality (simple slope = $-.05$, $p < .05$). Thus, we found support for Hypothesis 1 in both Studies 1a and 1b.

Study 2

Method

We collected survey data from employees in sales management teams of a retail company in South Korea (same IRB approval as Study 1b). Employees were in charge of managing retail stores (e.g., analyzing sales trends, devising sales, and promotion plans)

Table 3

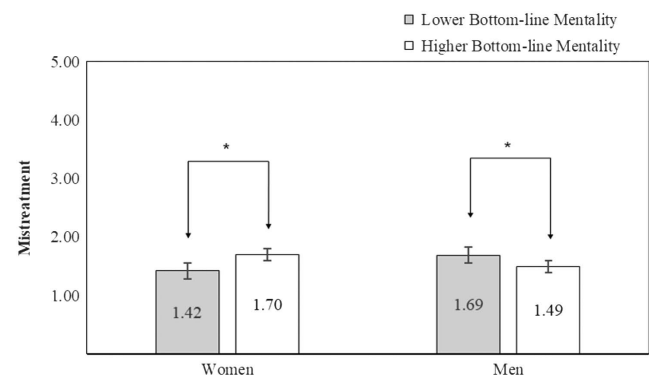
Results of Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analysis in Study 1a

Variable	Mistreatment		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept	1.57** (.04)	1.54** (.07)	1.56** (.07)
Negative affectivity	.13** (.05)	.14** (.05)	.14** (.05)
Gender		.04 (.08)	.03 (.08)
Bottom-line mentality		-.02 (.04)	.13* (.06)
Gender × Bottom-line mentality			-.22** (.07)
Level 1 residual variance	.23	.23	.22
Deviance (-2 log likelihood)	258.68	258.21	249.05
Pseudo R^2	.04	.04	.09

Note. N (Level 1) = 176; N (Level 2) = 49. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. Gender: women = 0, men = 1. Pseudo R^2 was calculated based on the proportional reduction of error variance due to predictors in the models (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). Pseudo R^2 does not represent effect size, but represents model fit. In other words, Pseudo R^2 should be used as a fit index (the larger the Pseudo R^2 , the better the model fit) for model comparison in the same data set and it should not be used for interpreting explained variance (Hox, 2010). Two-tailed tests. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1

Study 1a: Interaction Between Gender and Bottom-Line Mentality on Mistreatment



Note. Two-tailed tests. * $p < .05$.

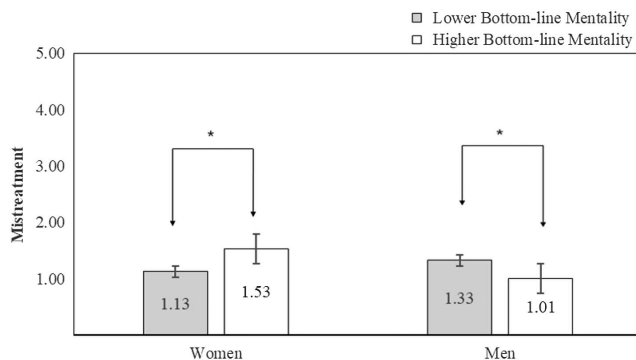
Table 4
Results of Regression Analysis in Study 1b

Variable	Mistreatment		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept	1.24** (.02)	1.26** (.04)	1.26** (.04)
Negative affectivity	.09** (.03)	.09** (.03)	.07* (.03)
Agency	-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.02)	-.01 (.03)
Gender		-.04 (.05)	-.04 (.05)
Bottom-line mentality		.01 (.02)	.07* (.03)
Gender × Agency			-.01 (.04)
Gender × Bottom-line mentality			-.12** (.04)
<i>F</i>	4.03*	2.17	3.26**
<i>df</i> 1, <i>df</i> 2	2, 188	4, 186	6, 184
Change in <i>R</i> ²		.00	.05**
Total <i>R</i> ²	.04*	.04	.09**

Note. *N* = 191. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. Gender: women = 0, men = 1. Two-tailed tests. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01.

and belonged to teams based on different geographical locations of the stores (e.g., support team for eastern area of City A). Participants completed surveys in two waves and received a 5,000 Korean Won (5 USD) gift card for Time 1 survey and a 10,000 Korean Won (10 USD) gift card for Time 2 survey. At Time 1, we contacted 266 employees from 44 teams. Participants in the first survey were 214 employees from 43 teams (response rate of 80%). Among these, 187 employees from 43 teams completed the second survey (response rate of 87%). Missing data handled using listwise deletion across the two surveys reduced the sample to 175 employees in 42 teams, producing 736 dyadic ratings.³ Team size was 6.38 on average ranging from 5 to 9. Average age was 31 years; 68% were

Figure 2
Study 1b: Interaction Between Gender and Bottom-Line Mentality on Mistreatment



Note. Two-tailed tests.
* *p* < .05.

men; 2% had a 2-year college degree, 97% had a 4-year university degree, and 1% had a master's degree and above. Average organizational tenure was 4.47 years.

Measures

We followed the same translation procedure (Brislin, 1980) as in Studies 1a and 1b.

Bottom-Line Mentality (Time 1). We assessed bottom-line mentality ($\alpha = .80$) using the same scale as in Studies 1a and 1b.

Team Gender Composition. We computed team gender composition as the proportion of women in the team.

Gender Norm Violation (Time 2). We consulted the literature of gender norm violation (Rudman et al., 2012) and constructed a single-item network question.

Mistreatment (Time 2). We measured mistreatment with a single-item network question from a perpetrator's perspective based on Duffy et al.'s (2002) original conceptualization and scale.

Control Variables (Time 1). We measured negative affectivity ($\alpha = .84$), and agency ($\alpha = .84$) using the same scales as in Study 1b.⁴

Results

Given that Study 2 data involve dyadic ratings, we used social relations modeling (SRM; Snijders & Kenny, 1999) to analyze our data. SRM is a form of multilevel modeling and is widely used for analyzing dyadic data with round-robin design (e.g., see, Lam et al., 2011; Tse et al., 2013). In our case, we collected gender norm violation and mistreatment data using dyadic ratings from multiple team members and SRM allows us to take into account the nestedness of our data by partitioning variance into actor, target, dyad, and team. Before testing our hypotheses, we first ran a null model to assess how much variance resides at team, actor, target, and dyad levels. The analysis showed that 23.57%, 2.07%, 57%, and 17.36% of variances of gender norm violation and 4.21%, 0%, 84.07%, and 11.72% of variances of mistreatment reside at the team, actor, target, and dyad levels, respectively. We also assessed whether individual-level variables (i.e., bottom-line mentality, negative affectivity, and agency) are distinct from each other by running clustered CFA (see Table 5). Although our proposed three-factor model demonstrated marginal fit, results supported the three-factor model over alternative models. We centered individual-level variables (e.g., bottom-line mentality, agency) using individual-level and centered the group-level variable of team gender composition using group-level grand mean. We used these centered variables to create interaction terms.

Table 6 shows descriptive statistics and correlations among variables. Table 7 shows the results of SRM analysis. As shown in Model 9, the interaction term of gender and bottom-line mentality was not significant ($B = .02$, *n.s.*). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. As shown in Model 3, the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on gender norm violation was not significant ($B = .08$, *n.s.*), although, as shown in Model 10, gender norm

³ We excluded one team with only two members from our analysis. This exclusion did not change the significance and interpretation of our results.

⁴ We analysed our data without control variables across all three studies and our results remained generally unchanged (see online Supplemental Material for more details).

Table 5*Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses: Discriminant Validity of Bottom-Line Mentality for Study 2*

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	SRMR
Three-factor model	215.54**	96			.90	.07
Two-factor model (bottom-line mentality and agency combined)	635.52**	98	419.98**	2	.53	.19
Two-factor model (bottom-line mentality and negative affectivity combined)	462.74**	98	247.20**	2	.68	.12
One-factor model	680.55**	99	465.01**	3	.49	.15

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual.

** $p < .01$.

violation was significantly related to mistreatment ($B = .11$, $p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. As shown in Model 6, the three-way interaction term of gender, bottom-line mentality, and team gender composition on gender norm violation was significant ($B = 1.16$, $p < .01$). We further plotted the interaction pattern using values of $+1$ and -1 SD for higher and lower values of bottom-line mentality and team gender composition (Aiken & West, 1991). As shown in Figure 3, in teams with a lower proportion of women, women with higher bottom-line mentality were more likely to be perceived as norm violating than women with lower bottom-line mentality (simple slope = $.30$, $p < .05$). In contrast, men with lower bottom-line mentality were not more likely to be perceived as norm violating than men with higher bottom-line mentality whether they were in teams with lower proportion of women (simple slope = $.06$, *n.s.*) or in teams with higher proportion of women (simple slope = $.05$, *n.s.*). Based on the three-way interaction results (Model 6) and significant positive relationship between gender norm violation and mistreatment (Model 10), we further computed indirect effects using bias-corrected confidence intervals based on bootstrapped 1,000 samples (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). As reported in Table 8, when women were in teams with lower proportion of women, women with higher bottom-line mentality were more likely to be mistreated (through gender norm violation) than women with lower bottom-line mentality, $.03$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.01, .07]. In contrast, men with lower bottom-line mentality were not more likely to be mistreated (through gender norm violation) than men with higher bottom-line mentality, whether they are in teams with lower proportion of women, $.01$, *n.s.* 95% CI [.00, .01], or in teams with higher proportion of women, $.00$, *n.s.* 95% CI [.00, .01]. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.⁵

General Discussion

Our study extends the theoretical applications of role congruity theory, which has been developed and articulated at the individual level, to the team level. Our findings suggest that team gender composition affects the degree to which women are mistreated for displaying higher levels of bottom-line mentality. By examining our phenomenon across different levels of analysis, our research echoes the recommendation to adopt a more multifaceted and balanced approach to victimization theories (Cortina et al., 2018; Dhanani & LaPalme, 2019) by considering the intersections of victim, perpetrator, and team characteristics.

Our research offers an alternative theoretical lens to understand the gender-mistreatment link beyond the dominant victim precipitation perspective in the mistreatment literature.

According to victim precipitation theory, victims with certain characteristics provoke others to victimize them (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Although it has advanced mistreatment research and remains informative to this day, we caution that it may be misconstrued to reflect victim blaming while justifying perpetrators' aggressive behaviors (cf., Cortina et al., 2018). Our research shifts the focus and narrative away from potential victim blaming to provide more nuance to the interpersonal dynamics between victims and perpetrators (Jensen & Raver, 2018).

Practical Implications

A closer look at our data in Study 2 shows that the point at which women with higher bottom-line mentality are not perceived as norm violating is when the minimum proportion of women on work teams is approximately 21%.⁶ We note that the recommended proportion should not be treated as a hard-and-fast rule due to the existence of sampling errors and the specific cutoff proportion may vary across samples and contexts. Nonetheless, leaders may consider increasing the proportion of women on work teams to attenuate the negative interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment with respect to women.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study raises several important questions and highlights potential areas for future research. Although we found an interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment in Studies 1a and 1b (Hypothesis 1), we did not replicate this effect in Study 2. Our hypothesis regarding the mediating role of gender norm violation for the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on mistreatment was also not supported (Hypothesis 2). However, the observation that the interactive effect of gender and bottom-line mentality on gender norm violation was qualified by team gender composition highlights that our phenomenon is more complex in a team context. Indeed, subtle changes in team (or unit)

⁵ To address the potential issue of nonnormality of the mistreatment variable, we conducted robustness checks, including bootstrapping analysis and logistic regression, across our studies and our results generally held (see online Supplemental Material for more details).

⁶ We checked the team's gender composition point at which women's bottom-line mentality slope for teams with lower proportion of women starts to change from statistical significance ($p < .05$) to nonsignificance as we increase the team's proportion of women.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables in Study 2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Individual-level variables										
1. Age	31.10	3.90	—							
2. Organizational tenure	4.52	3.47	.88**	—						
3. Negative affectivity	2.97	0.83	.03	.02	(.84)					
4. Agency	4.60	0.81	.11**	.05	-.25**	(.84)				
5. Gender	0.68	0.47	.30**	.12**	-.07	.06	—			
6. Bottom-line mentality	3.23	1.11	.13**	.12**	-.17**	.18**	.31**	(.80)		
Team-level variable										
7. Team gender composition	0.29	0.14	-.22**	-.13**	.09	.01	-.34**	-.05	—	
Dyadic-level variables										
8. Gender norm violation	1.96	0.94	.04	.06	.00	-.01	.02	.04	.00	—
9. Mistreatment	1.23	0.61	-.02	-.02	-.04	.04	.04	.07	.03	.24**

Note. $N = 736$ directed dyadic ratings. Correlations are based on scores with individual- and team-level variables assigned down to the lowest level. Coefficient alphas appear in parentheses along the diagonal. Gender: *women* = 0, *men* = 1. Team gender composition is the proportion of female members on the team. Higher team gender composition scores indicate more female members on the team.

** $p < .01$.

gender composition often result in meaningful effects and clarifies the hidden links between gender and work outcomes (Sackett et al., 1991). Future research may constructively replicate our findings across different levels of analysis and rating sources (i.e., victim report vs. perpetrator report).

Future studies may examine contextual factors that influence our focal relationships. It may be worthwhile to explore how the gendered nature of the industries (Ko et al., 2015) influences our purported effects. For example, an industry that is dominated by men (e.g., IT, advertising) may increase the likelihood that women

Table 7
Results of Social Relations Model Analysis in Study 2

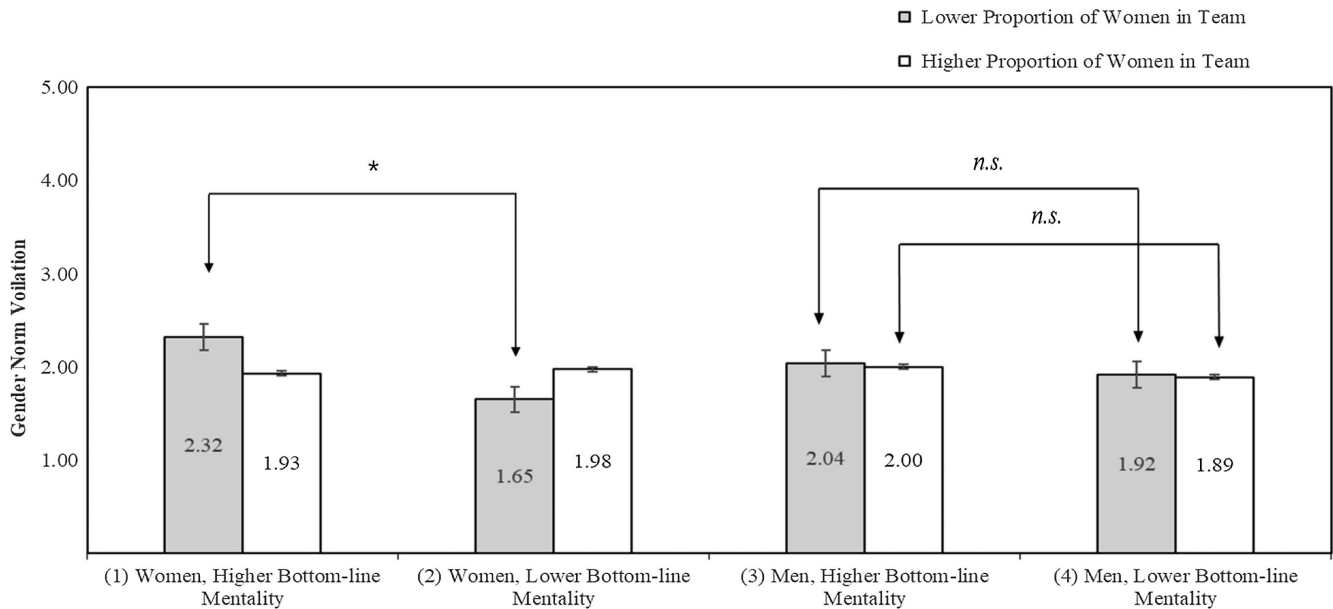
Variable	Gender norm violation						Mistreatment			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	M10
Intercept	1.97**	1.97**	1.93**	1.97**	1.92**	1.97**	1.22**	1.20**	1.19**	.99**
	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.07)	(.07)	(.04)	(.04)	(.04)	(.06)
Negative affectivity	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
	(.03)	(.03)	(.03)	(.03)	(.03)	(.03)	(.02)	(.02)	(.02)	(.02)
Agency	-.05	-.06	-.09	-.06	-.09	-.10*	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
	(.03)	(.03)	(.05)	(.03)	(.05)	(.04)	(.02)	(.02)	(.02)	(.02)
Gender		.00	.03	.00	.04	-.01		.02	.03	.03
		(.05)	(.06)	(.05)	(.06)	(.06)		(.02)	(.03)	(.02)
Bottom-line mentality		.03	-.03	.03	.01	.14		.01	-.01	.00
		(.04)	(.06)	(.04)	(.07)	(.08)		(.01)	(.03)	(.01)
Team gender composition				-.01	.09	-.11				.17
				(.46)	(.52)	(.43)				(.22)
Gender × Agency			.05		.05	.06			-.01	
			(.05)		(.05)	(.05)			(.03)	
Gender × Bottom-line mentality			.08		.05	-.09			.02	
			(.06)		(.06)	(.08)			(.02)	
Bottom-line mentality × Team gender composition					-.29	-.18**				
					(.25)	(.34)				
Gender × Team gender composition					-.17	.00				
					(.36)	(.36)				
Gender × Bottom-line mentality × Team gender composition						1.16**				
						(.37)				
Gender norm violation										.11**
										(.04)
Deviance (-2 log likelihood)	1546.21	1544.26	1540.79	1544.26	1537.56	1531.30	816.19	814.34	813.83	791.54
$\Delta\chi^2(df)$	2.96(2)	1.95(2)	3.47(2)	.00(1)	6.70(4)	6.26(1)*	.51(2)	1.85(2)	.51(2)	22.80(2)**

Note. $N = 736$ directed dyadic ratings. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. M = Model. Gender: *women* = 0, *men* = 1. Team gender composition is the proportion of female members on the team. Higher team gender composition scores indicate more female members on the team. $\Delta\chi^2(df)$ was based on comparison to a previous model except that Models 1 and 7 were compared to null models, Model 4 was compared to Model 2, and Model 10 was compared to Model 8. Two-tailed tests.

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

Figure 3

Study 2: Three-Way Interaction Between Gender, Bottom-Line Mentality, and Team Gender Composition on Gender Norm Violation



Note. Two-tailed tests.

* $p < .05$.

(men) who display higher (lower) levels of bottom-line mentality are perceived to violate gender norms and hence mistreated. Another potential boundary condition is team performance. When team performance is higher, team members may be more likely to justify female team members' bottom-line mentality, and hence less likely to mistreat them. Future studies may also explore workplace mistreatment based on the intersections of gender with other social identities (e.g., race). Intersectionality refers to overlapping social categories that are pertinent to an individual's identity and generate a distinctive experience that is different from its original categories (Rosette et al., 2018). For instance, Asian (Black) women are associated with amplified (diluted) stereotype content where the former (latter) category is more (less) prototypical of its gender and race categories, hence expectations and repercussions for displaying bottom-line mentality may further complicate our understanding of the relationships reported herein (cf., Hall et al., 2019). We hope

that our study represents a starting point for future research to consider the critical implications of gender, bottom-line mentality, and team gender composition on workplace mistreatment.

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Table 8

Indirect Interactive Effect of Gender and Bottom-Line Mentality on Mistreatment Through Gender Norm Violation in Study 2

Gender	Team gender composition	Indirect effect of bottom-line mentality on mistreatment	95% CI
Female	Lower (–1 SD)	.03**	[.01, .07]
Female	Higher (+1 SD)	–.01	[–.02, .00]
Male	Lower (–1 SD)	.01	[.00, .01]
Male	Higher (+1 SD)	.00	[.00, .01]

Note. $N = 736$ directed dyadic ratings. Team gender composition is the proportion of female members on the team. Lower = lower proportion of females in the team. Higher = higher proportion of females in the team.

Two-tailed tests.

** $p < .01$.

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(Appendix follows)

Appendix

Survey Items

Bottom-Line Mentality (Greenbaum et al., 2012)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about yourself. (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

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

Note. We provided examples of bottom line based on organizational characteristics. For example, we stated the examples such as quarterly tax collection goal (Study 1a) and quarterly sales/earnings goal (Studies 1b and 2).

Mistreatment (Study 1a: Duffy et al., 2006; Study 1b: Aquino et al., 1999; Study 2: adapted from Duffy et al., 2002)

How frequently did your team members engage in behaviors described below?

Study 1a (1 = *never* to 5 = *very frequently: almost every day*)

A team member . . .

1. criticized you in front of other members.
2. ignored you.
3. talked down to you.
4. went back on their word.
5. gave you the silent treatment.
6. belittled you or your ideas.
7. didn't listen to you.

Study 1b (1 = *never* to 5 = *once a week or more*)

A team member . . .

1. said bad things about you to your team members.
2. sabotaged your work.
3. did something to make you look bad.
4. made offensive slur toward you. (adapted item)
5. cursed at you.
6. made an obscene comment or gesture in front of you.

7. lied to get you in trouble.
8. threatened you with physical harm.

Study 2

Please respond to the following question with regard to each team member. (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*)

"I engaged in behaviors intended to hinder this employee's success, reputation, and relationships at work (e.g., belittling ideas, spreading rumors, criticizing the way this employee handled things in a way that was not helpful)."

Gender Norm Violation (adapted from Rudman et al., 2012)

Please respond to the following question with regard to each team member. (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*)

"This employee behaves differently from what people would usually expect at work for his/her gender."

Negative Affectivity (Zellars et al., 2002)

In general, how frequently do you feel as described below? (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often: almost every day*)

1. Distress
2. Upset
3. Afraid
4. Jittery

Agency (Abele et al., 2008)

Please rate each word according to how well it describes you. (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. Active
2. Assertive
3. Creative
4. Intelligent
5. Knowledgeable
6. Rational
7. Self-confident
8. Autonomous