THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIALIZATION, FAMILY AND SEX ON NEWCOMER OUTCOMES IN A DIRTY WORK CONTEXT

by

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ABSTRACT

ADRIANA RUIZ. The influence of socialization, family and sex on newcomer outcomes in a dirty work context. (Under the direction of DR. LAURA STANLEY)

Dirty work refers to occupations and job activities that are likely to be observed as repulsive or degrading. Dirty work has fueled a substantial body of research. The bulk of the literature focuses on psychological mechanisms used by experienced employees to cope with the potential stigma and dirtiness of the profession. However, relatively little is known about how newcomers adjust to dirty work environments and how managers affect their socialization. The present dissertation proposes an interactionist model to investigate how contextual variables (i.e., realistic job preview, managers' positive framing tactics, family influence) and demographic variables (i.e., sex) impact newcomers' turnover, work role performance and state positive affect in a slaughterhouse environment. By exploring these relationships, the research advances the dirty work and socialization literatures and extends theory in both areas. Furthermore, the insight from this study inform organizational practice on the antecedents of adjusting to dirty work whereas most of the existing studies focus on how employees develop coping mechanisms while on the job.

KEY WORDS: dirty work, socialization, realistic job preview, manager tactics, performance, family influence, sex

DEDICATION

To my caring, loving, and supporting husband Jason Angel. Thanks for believing in me when I did not believe in myself. My gratitude to you: my best friend and my mentor.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

USA– United States of America

RJP– Realistic Job Preview

SIT– Social Identity Theory

PA– Positive Affect

PANAS– Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to Hughes, (1951) dirty work refers to occupations and job activities that are likely to be observed as repulsive or degrading (e.g., slaughtering animals). In the United States of America (USA) there are 1,214 establishments approved by the Department of Agriculture to slaughter animals such as poultry, cattle, swine, bison, yak, ostrich, elk, goat and sheep (USDA, 2019). According to the Department of Labor, the meat manufacturing industry employs 12.8 million workers (DOL, 2019a) in the country. Since unemployment rates in the US economy have reached an all-time low of 3.6% by the end of 2019 (DOL, 2019b), hourly worker availability is scarce, and meat manufacturers need to find new ways to keep them engaged in their jobs. Van Iddekinge et al. (2009) suggests that higher employee retention rates significantly influence positive profitability over time. Hence, increasing worker retention is a critical factor to organizational effectiveness (Koys, 2001).

Over the past year, the meat packing industry has seen turnover rates increase as much as 50% with meat manufacturers competing for the same workers (McCracken, 2018a). This necessitates the hiring of new talent on a year-round basis in order to keep meat processing plants running efficiently (McCracken, 2018b). Dirty work environments present special challenges to both workers and their managers (Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark, & Fugate, 2017); for instance, the routinized killing of animals, the handling of knives, dealing with unpleasant smells, blood and meat. Hence,

understanding what managers can do during employee socialization to influence employees' behaviors may help reduce turnover and has relevant practical implications for organizations. To explore these issues, this dissertation employs an interactionist approach by looking at both demographic variables (i.e., sex) and contextual variables (i.e., managers' positive framing tactics, realistic job preview, family influence) that affect individual and organizational outcomes (i.e., turnover, work job performance, positive affect).

Dirty work pertains to occupations that are considered by the community as tainted (Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark, & Fugate, 2007). Taint is defined as the association with something undesirable or reprehensible (Pickett, 2018). Moreover, dirty work has been broadly researched with an emphasis on stigma awareness (Filteau, 2015; Kamise, 2013; Mikolon, Kreiner, & Wieseke, 2016; Thompson & Harred, 1992), normalization (Ashforth et al., 2007; Hong & Duff, 1977), worker well-being (Baran, Rogelberg, & Clausen, 2016) and socialization techniques (Bolton, 2005; Bourassa & Ashforth, 1998; Cahill, 1999a; Haas, 1972). However, the vast majority of studies have focused on employee tactics to normalize the taint associated with dirty work (Bosmans et al., 2016; Filteau, 2015; Lai, Chan, & Lam, 2013), rather than manager's tactics to socialize newcomers to their new jobs. Specifically, organizational socialization refers to the process where an person obtains the essential skills and social knowledge to accept a new role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Furthermore, organizational socialization tactics describe the ways the organization structures employees' experiences during a role transition (Van Maanen, 1978). Additionally, socialization tactics influence the role that newcomers eventually assume and they can be used to structure the socialization

experience (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Finally, empirical evidence suggests that socialization enables the adjustment of newcomers to organizations (Ashforth & Saks, 1996).

One way organizations structure this experience for newcomers is by presenting information about the favorable and unfavorable attributes of the work context to job candidates through a realistic job preview (RJP) during the hiring process (Phillips, 1998). Realistic job previews are defined as delivered programs, materials, and/or presentations to support applicants with realistic (positive and negative) information regarding a job (Earnest, Allen, & Landis, 2011). That is, access to job information prior to hire should assist candidates in the process of determining if they 'fit' or not with the new organization (Lopina, Rogelberg, & Howell, 2012). Extant research suggests that individuals reporting higher levels of organizational knowledge (i.e., those who receive realistic job previews prior to hire) experience more positive socialization outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Wanous, 1992). Furthermore, realistic job previews have been shown to have several positive organizational effects such as reduced turnover and increased performance (Phillips, 1998). In conclusion, empirical research suggests that access to job information predicts newcomers' turnover (Lopina et al., 2012).

Another way organizations structure the socialization experience for newcomers is through their managers (Ashforth et al., 2017). Empirical research suggests that organizational socialization tactics influence the ways that newcomers learn their jobs (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Ashford and Black (1996) defined a set of proactive tactics used during organizational entry that newcomers use to attain feelings of control.

Specifically, tactics such as positive framing, relationship building, information seeking and job-change negotiating are valuable for newcomers (Ashford & Black, 1996). This dissertation focuses on realistic job preview and positive framing tactics since dirty work carries a pervasively negative stigma (Hughes, 1962). Managers can help newcomers to positively frame their work situation to alter how they perceive the situation, even if the situation remains unchanged (Ashford & Black, 1996). Therefore, this dissertation attempts to inform the research community with a broader understanding of how managers' positive framing tactics influence newcomers' socialization processes in a dirty work environment.

Furthermore, existing dirty work socialization studies are relatively narrow, and many of them analyze occupations that are not sex diverse. For example, Bolton (2005) examined a mostly female sample of nurses, whereas Dick (2005) examined a mostly male sample of police officers. This study takes a broader, and therefore more realistic, approach by examining the sex role. That is, empirical research suggests that the individuals' sex is an important antecedent of the socialization process in a dirty work context since women in dirty work occupations tend to report higher stress levels than men (Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). In addition, in their study of casino dealers, Lai and colleagues (2013) suggest that female workers are more likely to perceive higher degree of dirtiness than men (Lai et al., 2013). In a study of slaughterhouse workers, Baran et al. (2016) controlled for the sex of the worker. Baran et al. (2016) studied correlations among demographic variables, and concluded that individuals' sex was not likely to have a significance impact on the results of their study. Baran et al. (2016) research suggests that abattoir laborers experienced decreased psychological and physical and well-being

due to the routinized killing of animals. Therefore, the few studies which examine the role of sex in dirty work yield mixed results. This dissertation attempts to extend this work by including sex as part of a theoretical model designed to take an interactionist approach including demographic variables such as sex.

Extant dirty work socialization research has studied turnover predictors (Lopina et al., 2012), workers' coping strategies (Frommer & Arluke, 1999; Margolis & Molinsky, 2008; Thompson, 1991; Thompson & Harred, 1992; Thompson, Harred, & Burks, 2003), and managers' tactics to deal with taint (Ashforth et al., 2007). Family influence is likely to impact socialization in a dirty work context by normalizing the work and family members could potentially provide continued social support; for example, several generations managing a local family owned funeral home (Thompson, 1991). In his study of mortuary science students, Cahill (1999b) found that many respondents entered the field because their family members worked in mortuaries. Similarly, having a family member who is engaged in similar dirty work might influence employee's socialization experience. Simpson et al. (2014) suggest that butchers derive meaning in their jobs by recalling a parent who also worked as a butcher: *"he really worked, and worked, and worked…basically we did the same".* Similarly, having a family member working in the same processing facility as the newcomer may affect initial socialization outcomes (Settoon & Adkins, 1997). This dissertation extends this work by including family influence in an interactionist model of socialization in a dirty work context. The present study investigates individuals' ability to successfully onboard in a dirty work setting and cope with the residual effects of the type of work carried out in the dirty work environment.

Additionally, this dissertation builds on existing models of socialization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996) by extending them to a dirty work context and investigating how organizational predictors of socialization may facilitate the socialization process and help employees to develop effective coping mechanisms early on their onboarding. Thus, realistic job preview and managers' positive framing tactics form part of the proposed research model as they have been found to influence employee turnover (Earnest et al., 2011; Lopina et al., 2012), performance (Phillips, 1998) and job satisfaction (Premack & Wanous, 1985) in the socialization process. Specifically, this dissertation examines realistic job preview as an important predictor of turnover, work role performance and employee state positive affect. Positive affect (PA) implies the extent to which an individual feels enthusiastic, alert, and active (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Turnover and work performance are some of the most widely examined dependent variables in the socialization literature (Bludedorn, 1978; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Mobley, Hand, Baker, & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957). This dissertation examines an important individual level outcome related to newcomer's well-being (i.e., state positive affect). Extant research suggests that realistic job previews "communicate an air of honesty to applicants" (Wanous, 1977, p. 616). Furthermore, organizational perceived integrity has been found to be negatively related to stress and poor employee health, increasing employee well-being (Prottas, 2008). This dissertation examined outcomes that are important to both the individuals' state positive affect and to the organizations for which they work. Sex, family influence (i.e., having a family

member who works or has worked in a dirty work context) and managers' positive socialization tactics are proposed to strengthen these relationships.

This dissertation makes four contributions to the socialization and dirty work literatures. First, it builds on existing socialization studies to provide a more comprehensive interactionist model that includes a demographic variable (i.e., sex) and contextual variables such as realistic job preview, framing tactics, and family influence. This study enhances current dirty work knowledge by examining the positive influence that realistic job preview has on organizational outcomes. Second, this dissertation focuses on the antecedents of socialization to a dirty work context whereas the vast majority of existing studies focus on how employees develop coping mechanisms while on the job. Understanding these antecedents will facilitate the development of refined socialization programs to help newcomers adjust to dirty work organizations. Third, this dissertation analyzes how the framing tactics of managers can influence worker socialization processes from the perspective of the workers themselves. By doing so, this study advances the socialization and dirty work literatures by studying stigma management tactics that are controllable by the organization. Fourth, this dissertation extends existing research on dirty work by examining a more sex-balanced sample of respondents, whereas previous research has focused on dirty work occupations that are predominantly either male or female. For example, Bolton (2005) suggests that the nursing workforce is mostly female, and nurses defend the status of 'women's work' by naming examples of why men could not do the job. Similarly, hospital private security officers rely on their masculinity to navigate the dirty tasks of their work (Johnston & Hodge, 2014). In addition, it has been suggested that men tend to be preferred over

women for dirty work jobs, unless the occupation is female dominated (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). This dissertation provides a more realistic reflection of reality by reframing the meat manufacturing labor force as sex diverse.

To the author's knowledge, this study is the first to examine some of these relationships in a dirty work context with an equally diverse workforce, furthering empirical research through a large-scale quantitative assessment. By exploring these relationships, the present study also contributes valuable implications for managers and decision-makers in dirty work contexts. While a few studies have examined newcomers' socialization processes in a dirty work environment, relatively little research has examined the role that managers play in the socialization of new employees to dirty work jobs (Ashforth et al., 2017). In addition, most of the research on dirty work is qualitative in nature (Arluke, 1991; Ashforth et al., 2007; Bourassa & Ashforth, 1998; Davis, 1984; Haas, 1972; Hong & Duff, 1977; Levi, 1981; Meara, 1974; Thompson, 1991; Thompson & Harred, 1992). With the addition of sex and family influence, this dissertation analyzes aspects of socialization that are beyond the immediate control of the organization. By examining under-explored potentially moderating variables, this dissertation expands the existing research on socialization in a dirty work setting by introducing an interactionist and comprehensive model that is aimed at better understanding important dirty work antecedents and what organizations can proactively do to facilitate newcomers' socialization.

This study offers several practical implications. First, by understanding the impact that realistic job preview has on the socialization process of newcomers to dirty work, organizations can enhance hiring programs to avoid unnecessary attrition expenses.

Second, analyzing variables that are controllable by organizations (i.e., managers' framing tactics) supports the creation of better training programs to improve organizational outcomes. Third, understanding the influence that family has the socialization process of newcomers allows for customized incentive programs that can increase worker retention in dirty work environments.

The remainder of this study is structured as follows: Chapter two outlines the dirty work and socialization literatures in greater depth, illustrates the gap in the literature that this current study addresses and presents the proposed theoretical model and advances the research hypotheses. Chapter three discusses the methods used to test the theoretical model. Chapter four outlines the results of the hypotheses testing. Finally, chapter five discusses the significance of the findings and limitations of this dissertation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter consists of two sections. The first section reviews the literature on employee behaviors in dirty work environments, and how employees manage the stigma related to their dirty job. The second section reviews the literature on socialization in organizations and presents the relevant research regarding the role of managers in the socialization process and summarizes how this study extends existing findings and provides a new perspective on socialization in dirty work occupations.

Dirty Work

"Now and then a visitor wept, to be sure; but this slaughtering machine ran on, visitors or no visitors. It was like some horrible crime committed in a dungeon, all unseen and unheeded, buried out of sight and of memory" (Sinclair & Lee, 2003, p. 39).

Everett Hughes (1951) defines the term 'dirty work' as the occupations and tasks that are perceived as disgusting and degrading. Later on, he defined dirty work as tasks that are "physically, socially, or morally" tainted (1958, p. 122). Eventually, dirty work research began with the concept of "stigma", a construct referring to a "spoiled identity" (Goffman, 2009). Goffman (2009, p. 3) defines stigma as ''an attribute that is deeply discrediting". Dirty work literature considers a stigmatized person as unusual and tainted (Goffman, 2009). Dirty work occupations fulfill societal needs, but are unpleasant and stigmatized by the community (Lopina et al., 2012).

Occupations can be distinguished according to their distinctive level of prestige (Treiman, 1977). Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) explored three forms of taint and classified dirty occupations based on the occupational prestige level carried by them to produce what they called a 3 × 2 classification scheme. For instance, physical taint takes place when the occupation involves garbage, death, etc., or is performed in a situation considered putrid or dangerous; social taint takes place where the occupation involves people or groups that are considered stigmatized, or where the worker has a servile relation to others; moral taint takes place where an occupation is usually seen as sinful or of arguable morality, or where the worker seems to utilize mechanisms that are deceptive, invasive, combative and/or uncivil (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). Table 1 connects the primary taint (i.e., physical, social, moral) with the occupational prestige, defined as the ranking of the occupation (Treiman, 1977). Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) believed this classification provided an outline to the wide scope and variety of dirty occupations. Based on their classification, slaughterhouse work, the context of the present study, can be characterized as having relatively low occupational prestige since it involves the butchering of animals. The lower the score, the lower the occupational prestige. Table 1 presents the summary relative to other dirty work occupations and their classification according to Ashforth and Kreiner (1999).

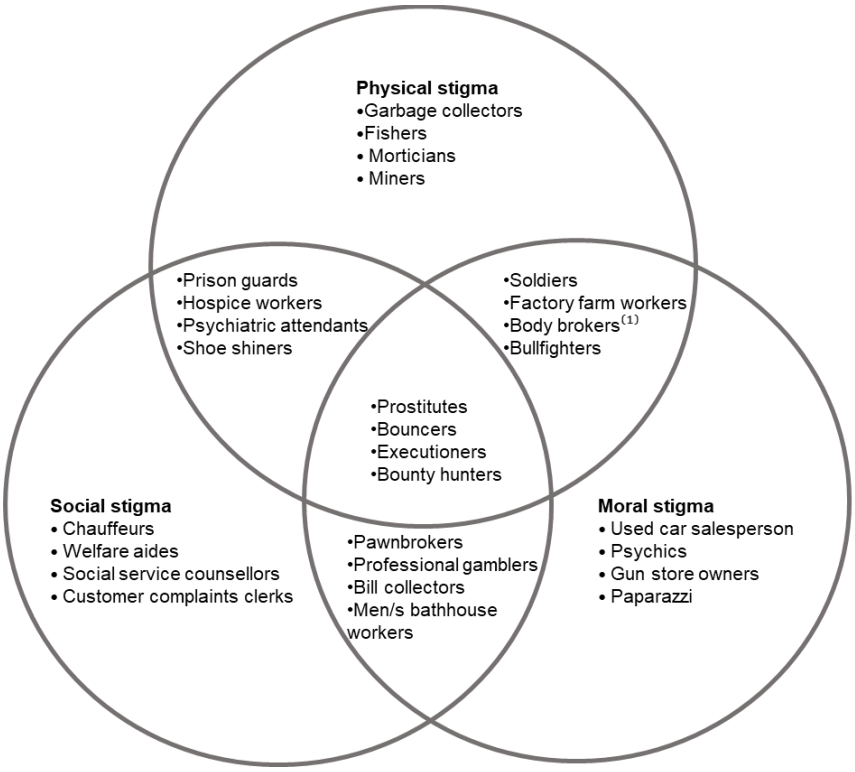
Table 1: Classifying Dirty Work Occupations[a] (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999)

Primary Taint		Occupational Prestige			
		Relatively Low		Realtively High	
		Occupation	Score	Occupation	Score
Physical	-Garbage, death, effuent -Noxious conditions	•Butcher	32	•Funeral director	52
		•Miner	26	•Dentist	70
Social	-Regular contact with stigmatized others -Servile relationship	•Prison guard (guard)	22	•Social worker	52
		•Shoe shiner (bootblack)	9	•NA	[b]
Moral	Sinful or dubious virtue -Deceptive, intrusive, confrontational, etc., methods	•Exotic dancer	NA	•Casino manager	NA
		•Bill collector	26	•Police interrogator (police)	48

[a] Cell entries are illustrative, not exhaustive. Occupational prestige scores are derived from the National Opinion Research Center (NORC). Scores range from a low of 9 (bootblack) to a high of 82 physician). The occupational names shown in parenthesis are the actual names used in NORC.

[b] A servile relationship is likely to severely reduce the status element of prestige.

Occupational prestige and overall dirtiness are key components of dirty work theory (Baran et al., 2016). Based on Ashforth and Kreiner's (1999) classification, butchers and slaughterhouse workers are a stigmatized group because their work carries a physical taint and a relatively low occupational prestige. They are perceived as physically tainted because of their work with animals. Earlier research suggests that slaughterhouse work is likely to have a negative psychological impact on the workers (Dillard, 2008). These workers are prone to deal with unpleasant smells, sights, blood, innards and knives in daily activities (Simpson et al., 2014). This group includes workers such as zookeepers, animal control officers, animal euthanasia technicians and exterminators (Baran et al., 2016). According to Ashforth and Kreiner (2014b), factory farm workers such as slaughterhouse workers and/or meat cutters carry both physical and moral stigma (see Figure 1).



(1) An agent who buys and/or sells cadavers or body parts

Figure 1: Examples of Physical, Social, and/or Moral Dirty Work (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014b)

In addition, slaughterhouse employees earn low wages in return for their arduous work, exposing them to both financial and physical hardship (Dillard, 2008). As a result, slaughterhouse workers tend to report higher levels of depression, anxiety, anger, hostility and obsessive compulsiveness when compared to regular office workers (Ehman, Yildiz, Bez, & Kingir, 2012). Indeed, research suggests that study suggests that employees involved in the routine killing of animals experience diminished psychological and physical well-being combined with an elevated rate of negative coping behaviors (e.g., increased alcohol consumption) (Baran et al., 2016). Slaughterhouse employment is also thought to be linked to increased crime rates within a community; more

slaughterhouse employees in the community are associated with more violent crimes including rape and sexual assaults (Fitzgerald, Kalof, & Dietz, 2009).

Stigma Management in Dirty Work

Dirty workers cope with the taint of their occupation using a variety of stigma management techniques (Thompson et al., 2003). Specifically, coping refers to the mental and behavioral adjustments that human beings exercise to manage stress, hardship or difficult circumstances (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Empirical research suggests that animal shelter workers are a stigmatized group because of the euthanasia tasks they perform, and they have been deeply explored in the dirty work literature (Baran et al., 2009; Baran et al., 2012; Frommer & Arluke, 1999; Reeve, Rogelberg, Spitzmüller, & DiGiacomo, 2005; Reeve et al., 2004; Rogelberg et al., 2007; Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). The animal sheltering community in the US recognized the possibility of psychological complications after being part of an occupation with euthanasia responsibilities (Rollin, 1987; Smith, 1984).

Margolis and Molinsky (2008) suggest that individuals doing dirty jobs handle the taint associated with their job in three ways. First, individuals engaged in dirty work may psychologically engage or disengage from the experience, depending on the situation. For example, while a manager must perform a layoff, he or she may experience some form of remorse triggered by having to remove the employee. Conversely, in the disengaging stage, the manager will act as the company, instead of him/herself while performing the layoff. Second, individuals engaged in dirty work may modify the interpersonal sensitive treatment of the victim's interaction. For example, after the manager performs the layoff, he or she will try to preserve the employee's dignity by walking the employee all the way

out of the building door and shaking the employee's hand. Third, individuals engaged in dirty work may express interpersonal sensitivity through personalization of behavior. For example, an eviction officer will devote more time to talking to the evictee after performing the dirty task and provide good advice about next steps (Margolis & Molinsky, 2008).

On the other hand, dirty jobs are comprised of many tasks; some may carry the dirty stigma and some may not (Baran et al., 2012). These dirty tasks, in some cases known as "necessary evils", can be directed from the dirty worker towards another human being; that is, a work-related task in which a dirty worker must perform an act that causes emotional and/or physical harm to another individual with the ultimate objective of achieving a greater good (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005). For example, guards at the German concentration camps under the Hitler regime (Hughes, 1962) engaged in cruel behavior under the false pretenses of delivering what they were told was a greater good to humanity. Furthermore, employees performing dirty work tasks have to deal with the dilemma their role brings; for example, police officers will use storytelling within the organization to normalize the moral ambiguity of the use of coercive force towards another person (Dick, 2005), a dirty task within the occupation.

Reeve et al. (2005) conducted the first quantitative investigation regarding the psychological effects that animal shelter employees face while performing euthanasia-related tasks; they compared animal shelter workers involved in euthanasia activities to shelter workers who did not participate in any euthanasia activities. The findings suggest that euthanasia-related work has a significant negative relationship with employee well-being (Reeve et al., 2005). That is, the employees participating in euthanasia tasks

exhibited decreased job satisfaction, increased job stress, work-to-family conflict and substance abuse (Reeve et al., 2005).

Frommer and Arluke (1999) examined how animal shelter workers and individuals surrendering their pets to animal shelters cope with the guilt derived from the possibility of euthanasia; they suggest that this stigma be managed by using a blaming displacing strategy, where they are basically blaming somebody else for their actions, even the pet. Furthermore, low levels of euthanasia-related stress are correlated with increased social support, satisfaction and length of time working with animals (Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). Social support in this context can potentially come from three sources: (a) the animal workers' relationship with management (Reeve et al., 2004); (b) association with animals (Arluke, 1992; White & Shawhan, 1996); and (c) peer support amid animal workers (White & Shawhan, 1996).

Rogelberg et al. (2007) conducted an empirical study on US animal shelter employees to collect authentic outlooks on what should be done to aid these workers in managing euthanasia-related stress. They suggest that workers performing euthanasia-related tasks are at risk of a peculiar form of stress that threatens their well-being, and that a significant number of euthanasia technicians feel that their job is more stressful because they are stigmatized by colleagues who do not have euthanasia-related tasks (Rogelberg et al., 2007). As such, the most common participant suggestion to help them deal with job-associated taint was directed towards management supportiveness (Rogelberg et al., 2007).

Furthermore, Baran et al.'s (2009) research suggests that animal shelter technicians not only develop coping strategies for stress on the job, but they also use

methods to deal with stress outside work after performing euthanasia-related tasks such as withdrawal strategies, separation strategies, long-term solution strategies and get-help strategies (i.e., communicate with management). Additionally, extant research on stigmatized occupations suggests employees believe that management support is considered an important element in dealing with the burden that occupational stigma brings to their life (Baran et al., 2009; Reeve et al., 2004; Rogelberg et al., 2007).

The present study builds on this research by examining the role of managers' positive framing tactics in a comprehensive socialization model which includes antecedents of socialization such as realistic job preview, family influence, and sex. Control is important to organizations because by controlling, they ensure that their performance matches established standards (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). Robbins and Coulter (2012) suggest that controlling is a manager's function. It is imperative to understand how managers can help workers cope in order to prevent emotional and physical costs for the person and productivity losses for the organization (Paetzold, Dipboye, & Elsbach, 2008). That is, if the dirty work related stigma is not dealt with by the worker, it is likely to negatively affect job performance, turnover, and individual emotions (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). While the vast majority of research in this area examines experienced employees (Ashforth et al., 2007; Baran et al., 2016; Dillard, 2008; Frommer & Arluke, 1999; Johnston & Hodge, 2014; Meldgaard Hansen, 2016; Mills & Gassaway, 2007; Rivera, 2015; Rogelberg et al., 2007; Thompson, 1991; Thompson & Harred, 1992; Thompson et al., 2003), the present dissertations extends this work by examining the socialization process of new employees in a dirty work context.

Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) developed a model suggesting that dirty workers use reframing techniques to transform the meaning connected with a stigmatized occupation. However, this model generalizes dirty work occupations and focuses at the group level; it does not address the influence of demographic or contextual variables, or the possibility that inexperienced newcomers may rationalize dirty work differently (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). Additionally, Ashforth and Kreiner's (1999) qualitative research analyzes the reframing tactics that dirty workers employ to self-normalize the taint of their work. This dissertation focuses on how this stigma is reframed to the newcomer by managers to support the socialization process that the worker faces when starting a new job. Lastly, Valorta et al. (2019) found empirical evidence supporting Ashforth and Kreiner's (1999) taxonomy by comparing the difference between the means of the different stigma clusters (i.e., physical taint, social taint, moral taint) suggesting that moral taint is particularly well distinguished versus the other two forms of taint. In sum, extant research suggests that reframing increases the positive value of the work, and nullifies the negative connotation of the work (Gusterson, 1996).

Further, empirical research suggests that the taint of being a dirty worker does not disappear when the worker quits the stigmatized occupation; this remaining "stickiness" of the taint could explain why former dirty workers (especially in morally tainted occupations) experienced continuous stress after leaving a dirty work role (Bergman & Chalkley, 2007). Furthermore, occupational stigmas are perceived to be controllable (Dovidio, Major, & Crocker, 2000), since the workers are seen to have chosen their employment (Kreiner, Ashforth, & Sluss, 2006). As such, dirty workers implied their family and friends are incapable of understanding the environment in which they work,

and are confused about why they would want to work in it (Tracy, 2004). However, the present study suggests that if family members are engaged in the work (and therefore understand it), they can provide considerable support. Lastly, the evolution of society values, technology and growing economies have changed the standards by which dirty work is judged (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). In the past, cleanliness was a sign of status, since achieving it without the use of servants was a challenging chore (Campkin & Cox, 2012). During the 19th century the salience of hygiene within the middle class exponentially increased in the US (Hoy, 1995). As a result, dirty occupations in modern society that carry a physical stigma such as dirt are likely more stigmatized than ever (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a).

Dirty Work Literature Review

Table 2 (Appendix E) shows a compilation of extant dirty work research where the dirty occupation acts as an independent variable. Google Scholar was used to identify the most cited articles in this domain. Specifically, a snowball approach (looking backward and forward) was employed to identify relevant literature for this dissertation. The J. Murrey Atkins Library at UNC Charlotte was the primary source to gather the peer reviewed journal articles, books, and dissertations cited in this study. The keywords for the initial search included: “dirty work”, “socialization”, “newcomers”, “stigma”, “turnover”. Table 2 entries are ordered chronologically.

The next section addresses specific socialization dynamics in the dirty work environment and how newcomers attempt to normalize the job. Additionally, this section presents an overview of the managers’ role in stigmatized occupations and introduces socialization antecedents such as family influence and sex.

Socialization in a Dirty Work Occupation

Socialization theory defines how organizations shape individual employee behaviors (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). As such, socialization has evolved in recent years as researchers and managers have begun to understand how important the on-boarding process is to newcomers and their subsequent performance and retention (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). Extant socialization research suggests that initial interactions between newcomers and the organization are likely to have a strong effect on outcomes (Wanous, 1992). That is, during the first weeks on the job, newcomers are likely to consider all experiences meaningful since they assist in the process of adjusting to an unfamiliar environment (Lewin, 1951; Weick, 1995).

Social identity theory (SIT; e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1986) suggests that the stigma carried by dirty work makes it more difficult for the employee to develop a social identity (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). That is, the sole act of engaging in such stigmatized work is an organizing characteristic likely to define group membership (Baran et al., 2012). The stigma that comes with dirty work complicates the construction of an individual social identity (Lopina et al., 2012). In some cases, the stigma associated with the job transmits to the dirty worker in a "contagion effect" (Brodsky, 1982). For example, correctional officers are frequently viewed by their community as not being so different from the prisoners they supervise; they have to deal with belittlement not only from the public in general, but also from street police officers calling them "the scum of law enforcement" (Tracy, 2004). Furthermore, it is likely that a given organization will embrace specific defenses of the central tainted occupation and its workers and portray them as an organizational idiosyncrasy (Kreiner et al., 2006).

Newcomers in the Dirty Work Context

Newcomers undergo a process of information accumulation and sensemaking to determine their fit in a new organizational environment (Louis, 1980). Extant research on organizational newcomers suggests they may be especially in need of social support due to the anxiety of meeting new people and learning a new job (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

Dirty work research has focused on the newcomer's socialization process throughout occupations, and SIT offers useful indicators regarding how the members of a group will react to external threats (Kreiner et al., 2006). When newcomers are certain of their expertise on the job, they are more likely to increase efforts and cooperation with coworkers (Feldman, 1981). However, dirty work newcomers may have more challenges adopting the new stigmatized identity because, in essence, it is conflicting with their previous non-tainted social identity (Lopina et al., 2012). For example, Bourassa and Ashforth (1998) described how dirty work newcomers were collectively indoctrinated by more experienced workers in order to strip them away from their previous identity through their own "institutionalized socialization" process (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Furthermore, Haas (1972) described a social tool used on new iron workers to provide training, communicate expectations, test self-control and trustworthiness. He called it "binging" (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1934), which was described as an institutionalized part of socialization designed to help the newcomer to be accepted as a peer by more experienced workers, serving the same purpose as examinations and grades in a school setting (Haas, 1972). At the same time, Meara (1974) studied butchers and

recognized how butchers self-identify themselves as honorable citizens due to the fact that they are able to do what others cannot. This, in large part, is conceptualized as “a man’s world” where men believe women must be excluded. Similarly, dog catchers developed defense mechanisms in response to their work being perceived as dirty work (Palmer, 1978). One of these mechanisms was to force the public to visualize the confrontation between dogs and catchers to prove that they were performing society’s dirty work (Palmer, 1978). Similarly, bail bondsmen isolate from other people as a mechanism to deal with the taint associated with their jobs (Davis, 1984). That is, the social isolation of bail bondsmen is the result of societal rejection, occurring while they believe themselves to be respectable individuals (Davis, 1984). Workers who perform dirty work even on a temporary basis are stigmatized by their community. In response, they apply protective techniques to manage the job-associated taint. One of the techniques dirty workers use to protect their self-identity is to dismiss the credibility of outsiders by classifying them as unfit to judge somebody they do not know (Filteau, 2015). Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) suggest that dirty workers in general are able to weather the hazards to their social identities by carrying out cognitive strategies of ideology manipulation and social weighting.

Taken together, individuals in dirty work occupations go through a reframing process to neutralize stigma (Levi, 1981). Hong and Duff (1977) analyzed the socialization process of taxi-dancers, a female dirty work occupation that was popular in the 70’s. They performed informal interviews and determined it was crucial for the newcomer to learn neutralization techniques to normalize the taint, and that managers’ and coworkers’ encouragement was the first step for the socialization process leading to

retention in the occupation (Hong & Duff, 1977). This dissertation attempts to take a step further and measures the effectiveness of positive framing techniques from the newcomer perspective. This dissertation also investigates factors that are both controllable (i.e., managers' positive framing tactics) and uncontrollable (i.e., sex, family influence) by the organization.

Female hostesses in the commercial sex industry (Kamise, 2013) and topless dancers carry a social stigma (Thompson & Harred, 1992). They rely on cognitive and emotive dissonance to diminish the emotional distress as a stigma management technique to embrace their job (Thompson et al., 2003). Moreover, new scientists carrying out research using live animals face an ethical white-collar stigma due to the fact that their role is subjected to public scrutiny. They normalize this taint by using control information strategies (i.e., avoid disclosing details about their job to new acquaintances) that help them build a subcultural identity within the research community (Arluke, 1991).

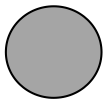
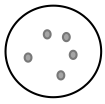
A similar information control technique has been reported by funeral director students, where they will try to maintain a conversation with a new acquaintance before revealing their career choice, usually leading to the end of the conversation (Cahill, 1999b). Furthermore, domestic workers coping with the stigma of a dirty, low prestige, or a servile job use coping strategies such as confronting perceptions, occupational ideologies, social weighing and defensive strategies to deal with the taint associated with their work (Bosmans et al., 2016). Coping strategies are cognitive and/or behavioral attempts used to handle demands seen as outpacing the individual's ability to adapt (Thoits, 1995).

Additionally, other occupations such as care workers for the elderly reframe their dirty work to "dignify" it (Stacey, 2005), and use their conveyed rehabilitation efforts as a resource for taint management (Meldgaard Hansen, 2016). This dissertation investigates a sample of dirty work newcomers facing the stigma of slaughtering and processing live animals in an industrialized setting, and how they normalize the job during the socialization period. I use an interactionist approach by looking at both contextual variables (i.e., managers' positive framing tactics, realistic job preview and family influence) and demographics variables (i.e., sex).

Kreiner et al. (2006) developed an enhanced model that tells a story of how stigmatized groups and individuals deal with their tainted identity, and how they respond to the threat posed by occupational stigmas. Kreiner et al. (2006) suggest that stereotypes are used as a system-justification function to legitimize prevailing systems of social arrangements (Jost & Banaji, 1994). These systems highlight how the perceived stigma creates an external identity for the worker, and how a group may respond to the threat (Kreiner et al., 2006)

Kreiner et al.'s (2006) typology of occupational dirty work differentiates stigmatized work (see Figure 2). In their model, they extend the previous work made by Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) by investigating how stigma dynamics apply to various occupations. Kreiner et al.'s (2006) model is a matrix that interconnects the breadth of dirty work with the depth of dirty work, generating four categories: pervasive stigma, compartmentalized stigma, diluted stigma and idiosyncratic stigma. Figure 2 includes circles with different characteristics depending on the stigma. Pervasive stigma (cell 1) refers to the occupations representing the pure dirty work occupations documented by

Ashforth and Kreiner 1999, therefore, the circle is completely dark. Compartmentalized stigma (cell 2) refers to dirty occupations where only a portion of the occupation is strongly tainted, and is represented by an external clear circle, with a small dark circle in it. Diluted stigma (cell 3) includes occupations with an omnipresent, but not strong stigma, and it is represented by a grey circle. Idiosyncratic stigma (cell 4) represents occupations with infrequent occasions of mild dirty work, therefore the external clear circle has random small grey circles in it.

Depth of dirty work	Breath of dirty work: High	Breath of dirty work: Low
High	**1. Pervasive stigma** Occupations that are socially defined by their strongly stigmatized tasks or work  -Embalmers (P) -Prison guards (S) -Bill collectors (M) Identification effect: Ambivalence	**2. Compartmentalized stigma** Occupations where only some tasks are strongly stigmatized  -Reporters (reporting on accidents) (P) -Priests (visiting prison inmates) (S) -PR officers (spinning a scandal) (M) Identification effect: Mild disidentification
Low	**3. Diluted stigma** Occupations where stigma is predominant but mild  -Auto mechanics (P) -Courtroom officers (S) -Bar tenders (M) Identification effect: Mild ambivalence	**4. Idiosyncratic stigma** Occupations where tasks are neither routinely nor strongly stigmatized  -Virtually all occupations not included in the other cells Identification effect: Little to no systematic effects

Note. Primary source of stigmas: (P) = physical taint; (S) – social taint; (M) = moral taint. Darker shading represents stronger taint.
[a] Occupations are provided as examples.

Figure 2: A Typology of Occupational Dirty Work[a] (Kreiner et al., 2006)

Additionally, newcomers are influenced by different situational factors and they go through several socialization stages during the entry period (Reichers, 1987). Empirical evidence suggests that the socialization process for newcomers in dirty work occupations often starts by being indoctrinated by more experienced workers facilitating identification (Bourassa & Ashforth, 1998). For example, hospital security guards must

follow the more experienced employees tactics to deflect the taint associated with showing a masculine enthusiasm towards morbid, disturbing and dangerous tasks (Johnston & Hodge, 2014); otherwise, they may be subjected to gender harassment from more tenured guards. Lai et al. (2013) used social identity theory to study casino dealers and discovered that the dirtier the job perception, the higher the levels of occupational and organizational disidentification. In addition, they analyzed organizational and occupational disidentification and found that high levels on any of these variables are positively related to turnover intentions (Baran et al., 2012; Lai et al., 2013). Empirical research suggests that dirty work newcomers who believe in the greater value of performing a dirty work expressing a commitment to their career choice were less likely to quit their jobs (Lopina et al., 2012).

Lopina et al. (2012) suggest that greater access to job details prior to hire decreases newcomer intentions to quit; that is, access to job information is a strong predictor of employee turnover. However, Lopina et al. (2012) did not use an established measure of realistic job preview. Instead, access to job information was measured using prompts that asked about access to different sources of job information prior to hire (i.e., written job description, talk with current employees, visited the shelter before, an acquaintance working at the shelter). Additionally, participants were asked to mark all items that applied to their hiring experience, and the score for each newcomer reflected the total number of components marked. That is, the more opportunities to access job information the newcomer had, the higher the assigned score in Lopina et al.'s study (2012). Lopina et al. (2012) suggest that access to job information may facilitate realistic job preview, and since it has been found that realistic job preview has a number of

organizational positive outcomes such as reduced turnover (Phillips, 1998), Lopina et al. (2012) suggest that access to job information is a turnover predictor.

Meta-analytic research suggests that realistic job preview prevails as a low investment strategy to reduce turnover (Earnest et al., 2011). Premack and Wanous (1985) suggest that providing realistic job preview is a useful and low cost turnover management strategy. Early access to job information may facilitate a smother socialization process and less turnover (Phillips, 1998) due to a more realistic employee expectations (Premack & Wanous, 1985). A study by Lee et al. (1999) investigated major identifiable events such as unsolicited job offers, changes in marital state, transfer and firm mergers, and concluded that the shock created by unexpected new situations accounted for 92.6% of the quitting decisions. That is, shock caused by the unknown and/or unexpected situations may increase attrition levels in organizations.

As discussed earlier, newcomers attempt to engage in proactive activities to gain the sensation of personal control in an organization during the entry process (Ashford & Black, 1992). For example, primary appraisal is a cognitive framing technique that influences coping responses under stressful situations (Folkman, 1984). These cognitive frames are known as positive illusions and have positive developments on difficult settings such as stress, illness, depression and they increase the capability of productive work and creativity (Taylor & Brown, 1988). Newcomers seek information to gain cognitive control trying to positively frame their new situation, which gives them a sense of control (Ashford & Black, 1996). Research also suggests that proactive socialization tactics of newcomers can have a positive impact on both performance and job satisfaction (Morrison, 1993).

Managers in Stigmatized Occupations

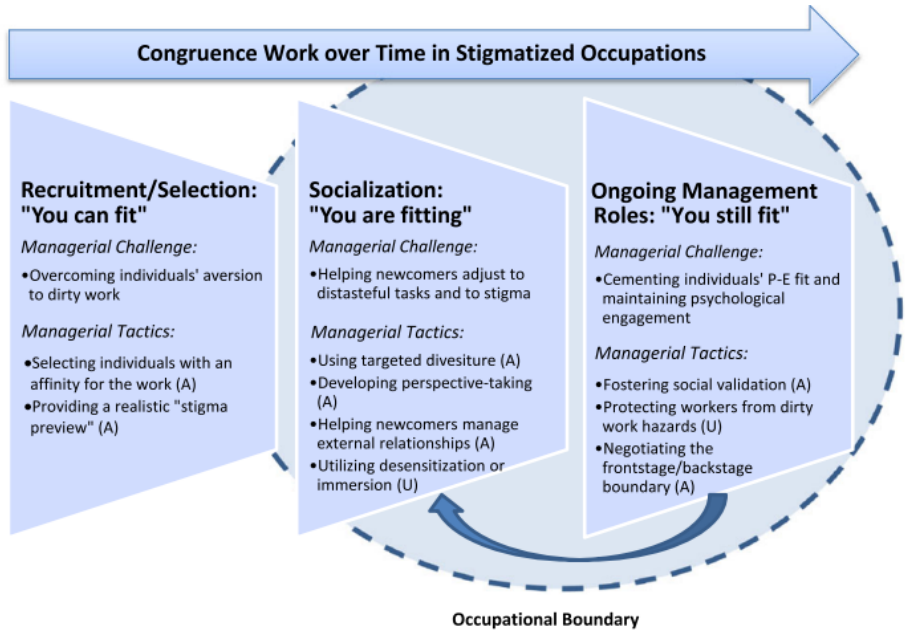
Managers are a crucial source of feedback and support for newcomers during the socialization period (Graen, 1976). Moreover, it has been suggested that managers influence newcomers' socialization (Ashforth et al., 2017). Specifically, they are in an optimal position to help newcomers adjust to their work role (Moreland & Levine, 2014). Empirical research suggests that managers strongly influence newcomers' job learning (Graen, 1976; Schein, 1978). Managers can influence newcomers' knowledge acquisition and feedback about role expectations (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Just as dirty workers are exposed to their occupation stigma (Arluke, 1991; Davis, 1984; Thompson, 1991; Thompson et al., 2003), dirty work managers are also vulnerable to the taint of a dirty work occupation (Ashforth et al., 2017) because they understand the difficult nature of the work. That is, dirty work managers are in a unique position to provide support to their dirty work employees, whose friends and family may not understand the stigma and the difficulties they face.

However, a management role is generally more complex compared to other roles, and managers are likely to face additional challenges with trying to normalize the taint associated with their work (Ashforth et al., 2007). Managers have the added responsibility of managing other dirty workers and are generally associated with training and performance evaluation activities (Ashforth et al., 2007). Managers use tactics such as occupational ideologies that may reframe the meaning of dirty work to them (Ashforth et al., 2017). Tactics are methods used by the organization or an individual to assist in the socialization process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). For example, a personal injury lawyer will reframe his dirty work by saying automobiles are safer because of his job

keeping the manufacturers responsible for defective parts (Ashforth et al., 2007). Hong and Duff (1977) suggests that the encouragement provided by managers in a dirty work occupation may be the first step in the socialization process of a newcomer. Managers of stigmatized occupations may have a crucial role in normalizing the taint associated with dirty work occupations (Shantz & Booth, 2014). Research also suggests that a change in newcomers' perceptions of support is related to the newcomers' adjustment to the work (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). Managers influence both the workplace and worker attitudes (Day, 2014). However, understanding how dirty workers experience the taint themselves does not address the role that managers play in the newcomer's socialization and adjustment to the role (Ashforth et al., 2017).

Ashforth et al. (2017) developed a congruence model (i.e., behaviors, sensemaking and sense giving) to analyze the managerial challenges that dirty work managers face and presented a set of tactics that they apply to help workers during socialization (Figure 3). This model has three phases: recruitment/selection, socialization and ongoing management roles. The first phase, recruitment/selection discusses the challenge of overcoming the individual's aversion to dirty work and encourages the use of realistic stigma previews before hire. In the second phase, helping newcomers to adjust to stigma and dirty work tasks are major challenge that managers encounter; thus, the fundamental challenge during the socialization process is to help newcomers become competent and relaxed with tasks that may be considered distasteful (Ashforth et al., 2017). The third phase discusses the process of fostering workers social validation in the organization and maintaining their psychological engagement.

While Ashforth et al. (2017) address how dirty work managers apply different tactics to support newcomer socialization, they do not address the effectiveness of these tactics. Positive framing tactics and normalization play an important role in the socialization process, particularly in a dirty work context because the nature of the work is perceived by society as repulsive, dangerous, degrading, immoral, distasteful or disgusting (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014b). This dissertation attempts to measure the effectiveness of managers' positive framing tactics, amid the newcomers' socialization in a dirty work setting.



Key: (A) = adapted to the dirty work context but also used in non-dirty work jobs; (U) = unique to the dirty work context.

Figure 3: Congruence Work in Stigmatized Occupations (Ashforth et al., 2017)

Positive framing is a mechanism used by newcomers to reshape their understanding of uncertain experiences, and it can be considered as an emotion-focused coping technique that helps newcomers gain control and bolsters job performance

(Ashford & Black, 1996). This dissertation attempts to understand how managers' positive framing tactics help newcomers normalize their jobs.

Socialization and Family Influence in Dirty Work

Within the dirty work research, funeral direction is an occupation that poses a different challenge but can also inform dirty work in other occupations (Cahill, 1999a, 1999b). Society's fear of death makes this a stigmatized job (Cahill, 1999b). Funeral directors regularly face mortality and emotional demands, and they consistently deal with corpses, the family, and mourners (Cahill, 1999b).

Cahill (1999b) conducted an ethnographic study in a community college, analyzing the behaviors and emotional reactions of mortuary science students. He suggests that these students were drawn to this major through their previous experiences, where the vast majority of the students have a family background in funerary services or were connected in some way to the profession by spouses, friends, or neighbors. Moreover, the three students who withdrew or were expelled from the program did not have any family members involved in the "business" (Cahill, 1999b). Furthermore, the students who stayed in the program seemed better prepared and not frightened by death (Cahill, 1999b) because they had family members involved in the mortuary profession. Cahill (1999b) defined this discovery as "emotional capital", meaning that successful students were socialized as children to believe that funerary services are normal, creating an emotional "habitus" (Bourdieu, 2013). As a result, successful mortuary science students are thought to build on prior socialization to normalize the stigma that their occupation brings (Cahill, 1999b). The stigma associated with this occupation applies

inside and outside the school walls, therefore, they are usually surrounded by family and friends who are associated with funeral direction (Cahill, 1999a).

Similarly, Hong and Duff (1977) noted in their taxi-dancer study that hostesses who were recruited by family members commonly learned the stigma neutralization techniques at a faster pace than the rest of the newcomers. This is because their relatives are likely to expose them to a broad assortment of coping techniques as early as the first week (Hong & Duff, 1977). Thus, this dissertation attempts to understand how family influence shapes newcomer socialization as family members can normalize the work and provide helpful information and coping techniques.

Sex and Stigma

As mentioned earlier, sex plays an important role in the socialization of a dirty work (Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). It has been suggested that the person's sex has a significant relationship with moral dirtiness, where female dirty workers are more likely to distinguish moral dirtiness than men, and lower organizational disidentification (Lai et al., 2013). Extant research on dirty work and sex suggests that masculinity tends to be preferred over femininity, unless the stigmatized occupation is female dominated (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). Meara's (1974) research on butchers suggests that a sense of honor is entangled in the butchers activities, and part of that honor is the exclusion of women from the profession. Similarly, it has been suggested that hospital private security officers emphasize the occupation' hyper-masculine representation by showing toughness, resiliency and keen interest towards tasks that may endanger their emotional and physical wellbeing (Johnston & Hodge, 2014).

Bolton (2005) refers to nursing as a gendered experience, and concludes that nurses are women in a women's world, evoking gender as their capability to own unique feminine features such as being kind and caring to others. That is, due to the nurturing characteristics of the profession, nursing has been seen as a feminine job (Mills & Gassaway, 2007). Rivera and Tracy (2014) highlighted that dirty work furnishes particular sensemaking tools for emotional labor occupations. Emotional labor is defined as the effort, planning, and control a worker employs to express emotions that are required by the organization (Morris & Feldman, 1996). When the job requires emotional labor to earn a wage, the worker becomes alienated from his/her authentic self (Hochschild, 2012). For example, law enforcement officers operate in a 'gendered' culture (Dick, 2005), which remains dominated by men with the possibility of work identity conflicts due to the emotional labor required to do their job (Rivera, 2015). Furthermore, jobs which involve emotion are considered "women's work" (Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Masculinity appears to be the preferred choice for dirty work occupations across cultures; however, the cultural value of masculinity-femininity is still variable on different occupational ideologies (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). Despite the extensive research on dirty work, little has been done to understand sex diversity in dirty work groups. Sex diversity has been associated with increased sales revenue (Herring, 2009). Therefore, understanding the effects of an increasingly diverse workforce is important to organizations (Rogelberg & Rumery, 1996).

Some research has yielded mixed results regarding the influence of an individuals' sex in a dirty work environment. For example, Lai et al.'s (2013) research suggests that women are more likely to perceive dirtiness than men. Conversely, Baran et

al. (2016) concluded that sex was not likely to influence work performance and turnover within dirty work employees. Thus, this dissertation attempts to understand how sex influences the socialization of newcomers in dirty work occupations. This study aims to contribute to what is known and often incongruent about dirty work.

Overview of the Hypothesized Model

The first goal of this dissertation was to build on existing studies to provide a more comprehensive interactionist model including both demographic and contextual variables in a dirty work environment. The second goal of this dissertation was to expand what we know about how newcomers adjust to dirty work jobs instead of simply focusing on how experienced employees cope while on the job. The third goal was to test a set of theoretical relationships on a sex diverse sample.

The hypotheses are presented in three sections. The first section addresses the role of realistic job preview on newcomers' work behaviors and emotions in a dirty work context (H1, H2 and H3). The second section addresses the moderating role that the positive framing tactics of managers plays withing the context of newcomer behaviors and emotions (H4). Finally, the third section addresses the moderating influence of sex and family on newcomers' behaviors and emotions (H5 and H6). The proposed model and hypotheses are represented in Figure 4.

Newcomer Behaviors

Dirty workers perform necessary jobs that society requires to function (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). While most dirty work enjoys a 'necessity shield' acting as a protection against stigmatization under the allegation that their jobs are required by society (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014b), they are still marginalized (Ashforth & Kreiner,

1999). For example, we live in a meat-eating world, therefore, a slaughter worker is expected to act calm while an animal is bleeding to death (Case, 2005); however, if this worker walks to the street with visible blood stains on his/her clothing, he/she will be stigmatized due to the fact that being around death and blood is considered a tainted environment (Kreiner et al., 2006). Williams (2008) described this phenomenon as "affected ignorance", where people choose not to investigate practices in which they participate, and might be immoral or full of controversy (i.e., lack of public debate about intensive animal factory farming practices). Researchers have studied different tainted occupations such as meat cutters, taxi-dancers, dog catchers, morticians, topless dancers, policeman, animal shelter employees, nurses, etc. Ashforth et al. (2014a) literature review encompasses the history of dirty work on different countries, cultures and demographics. Since dealing with the stigma of dirty work is necessary for the individual to manage taint and perform job tasks, individuals involved in these kinds of occupations constantly make attempts to reduce the stigma associated with these occupations (Thompson, 1991). In sum, learning how to justify the job plays a significant role in the dirty work socialization process where the individual is actively looking for a way to neutralize the unpleasantness of the job (Hong & Duff, 1977).

Specifically, turnover is an inhibitor to creating a positive culture in dirty work settings (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999) since it inhibits group formation. It has been suggested that group formation promotes faster cohesion under the perception of a shared threat (A. K. Cohen, 2003; Forsyth, 1990), such as stigmatization. Hence there is a need to understand the turnover phenomenon in a dirty work environment such as the meat manufacturing industry and learn how to retain newly hired workers. Prior research has

found that individuals reporting higher levels of organizational knowledge have more positive socialization outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Wanous, 1992). Furthermore, Wanous (1977) suggest that realism (i.e., realistic job preview) is negatively associated with turnover.

Extant meta-analytics suggest that realistic job preview is a low investment strategy to reduce turnover (Earnest et al., 2011; Premack & Wanous, 1985). Early access to job information is thought to create more realistic employee expectations (Premack & Wanous, 1985). As a result, newcomers' turnover intentions are likely to weaken (Phillips, 1998). That is, realistic job preview leads to newcomer's self-selection where eventual turnover is mitigated.

Current manufacturing best practices attempt to provide information to the candidate prior to job acceptance (Bowen, Ledford Jr, & Nathan, 1991). For example, in animal slaughterhouses, job applicants typically participate in a tour of the processing facility where they walk the processing floor after the initial interview and have the chance to observe the workers performing their daily activities (Ruiz, personal communication, June 21, 2017). For the most part, when the newcomer receives a job offer he or she has received an explanation of the job from the manager and a tour of the processing facilities to witness the activities in real time. Access to job information may be especially important for dirty work employees for stress management and positive identity creation (Lopina et al., 2012). However, access to job information and realistic job preview are not the same. Lopina et al.'s (2012) access to job information is not an established construct such as realistic job preview. Access to job information was measured as the number of different sources of job information newcomers had prior to

hire (Lopina et al., 2012). This dissertation utilized a more comprehensive measurement scale for perceived realism of job expectations among newcomers (Breaugh & Mann, 1984) to determine levels of realistic job preview, regardless of how many sources of job information the applicant had access prior to hire.

That is, the dirty work literature has yet to examine the influence realistic job preview has on newcomers' turnover intentions. I expect that realistic job preview is likely to reduce turnover for several reasons. First, realistic job preview provides prospective to employees with a clear understanding of job roles expectations of dirty work prior to taking the job. In doing so, realistic job preview is used by organizations to provide both favorable and unfavorable job-related information to newcomers (Rynes, Bretz Jr, & Gerhart, 1991) assisting the self-selection process and determining their fit. Second, realistic job preview helps newcomers understand potential dirty work stigmas allowing individuals to appreciate the necessity of the dirty work context tied to their new role. In conclusion, realistic job preview reduces the likelihood of turnover by leading newcomers with poor fit to select themselves out. At the same time, realistic job preview promotes appreciation to dirty work and educates newcomers to value their new role. I anticipate that the relationship between realistic job preview and turnover is likely to be particularly strong due to the nature of the job, and the embedded stigma in dirty work occupations.

This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Realistic job preview is negatively associated with newcomers' turnover.

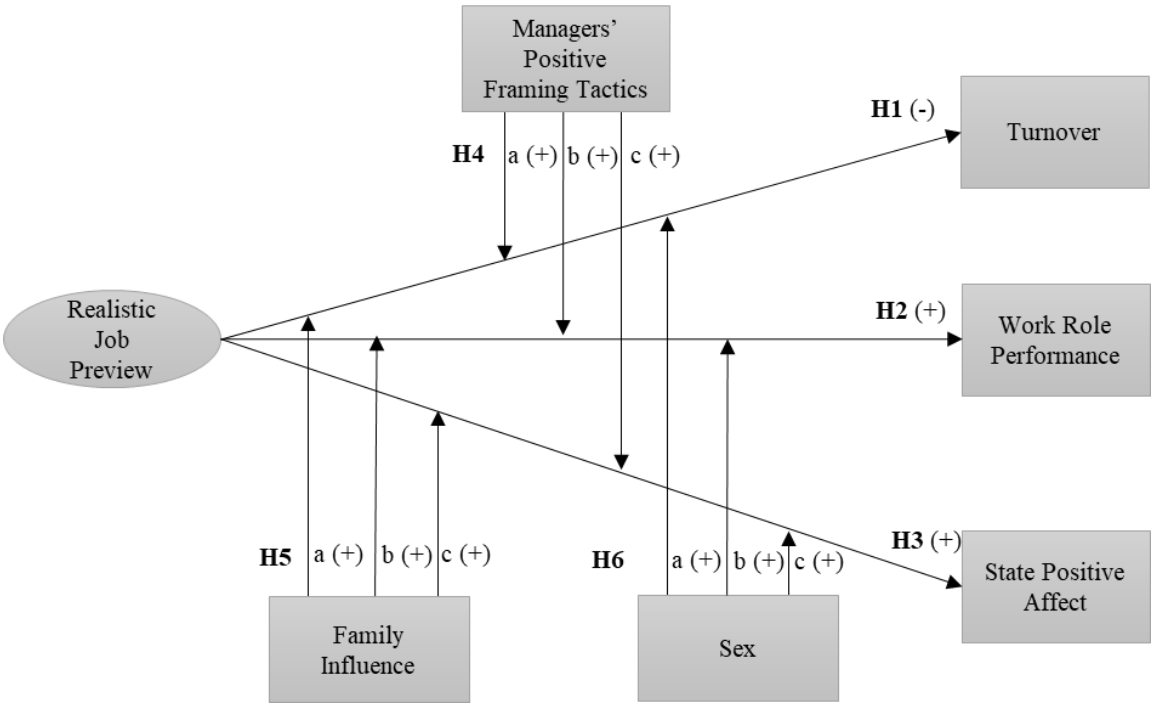


Figure 4: Theoretical Model of Proposed Hypotheses

While reducing turnover is crucial to maintaining productivity and reducing costs (Argote & Epple, 1990; O'Connell & Kung, 2007; Price, 1989), hiring the right talent who shows high levels of performance is a necessity. Research demonstrated that there is a relationship between work performance and work satisfaction (Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984).

Griffin et al. (2007) referred to work role performance as the proficiency level an individual has when carrying out certain tasks (i.e., ensuring core tasks are completed properly). However, the constant change in the nature of work led to a call for more research on individual work role performance (Campbell et al., 1993).

It has been shown that the nature of work roles cannot be disconnected from the context in which they are performed (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). Context shapes the behaviors that will be valued in organizations (Griffin et al., 2007). Therefore, the

specific organizational context may greatly affect (Hattrup & Jackson, 1996) work role performance.

Empirical research suggests that realistic job preview may increase new employees' performance (Barksdale Jr, Bellenger, Boles, & Brashear, 2003; Breaugh, 1981; Premack & Wanous, 1985; Reilly, Brown, Blood, & Malatesta, 1981). Since newcomers constantly engage in activities such as feedback seeking (Ashford & Black, 1996), this dissertation focuses on measuring individual task proficiency, where the worker ensures that core tasks are completed properly as a performance indicator (Griffin et al., 2007). Furthermore, dirty work research has overlooked the influence that realistic job preview can have on performance. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance in a dirty work context.

The more active workers are during the socialization process, the more successful their adaptation to the organization (Ashford & Black, 1992). Realistic job preview is expected to increase newcomers' understanding of their new role, positively impacting their work role performance. First, realism is a key antecedent of organizational socialization, and it improves the newcomer's understanding of his or her new role (Barksdale Jr et al., 2003). Second, better understanding of the role reduces newcomers' conflict with the new job (Werbel, Landau, & DeCarlo, 1996). Third, lower levels of conflict with the new role enhances work role performance (Barksdale Jr et al., 2003). In conclusion, realistic job preview improves the work role performance by presenting a realistic job expectation to newcomers that allows them to decide if they will have a conflict with the stigma dirty job brings.

This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' work role performance.

While organizations require that new employees adjust to the new job quickly, the experience of entering a new workplace is generally an extremely emotional event for most newcomers (Ashforth & Saks, 2002). Given the stigma placed on dirty work, the well-being of experienced employees is a prevalent discussion within the dirty work literature (Baran et al., 2016; Dillard, 2008; Ehman et al., 2012; Reeve et al., 2005; Rogelberg et al., 2007; Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). As such, the two biggest meat manufacturing companies in the world include on the mission statement their commitment to create value for their team members (Tyson Foods, 2018), and the willingness to provide a better future for their entire team (JBS USA Holdings, 2018).

Research suggests that work-related stress is likely to decrease the well-being of workers, reducing performance and increasing bad job attitudes and turnover (Griffin & Clarke, 2011). Uncertainty associated with new roles, tasks and unknown social relationships is stressful (Jackson, Schuler, & Vredenburgh, 1987). Newcomers encounter challenges of adaptation to the new organization; therefore, they can experience positive and negative emotions (Manz, Joshi, & Anand, 2005). The vast majority of newcomer socialization studies have concentrated on newcomer attitudes and behaviors, overlooking the effects on well-being (Ellis et al., 2015). Studies that have focused on dirty work have highlighted worker well-being because of the stigmas associated with dirty work. As mentioned earlier, Reeve et al. (2005) suggest that employees involved with euthanasia tasks in an animal shelter exhibited increased job

stress and work-to-family conflict. Similarly, Dillard (2008) suggests that slaughterhouse workers suffer from emotional and mental harm caused by their slaughtering activities. Lastly, Baran et al. (2016) assume that slaughterhouse employees experience lower physical and psychological well-being due to the routinized killing of animals.

Research suggests that feelings experienced by employees highlight emotions as indicators of overall happiness and well-being (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Greenglass (2006) suggests that feelings of well-being are represented by a positive mood, and a sensation of energy and efficacy. Further, this positive affective state is associated with increased levels of well-being (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009). In brief, positive affect indicates the extent to which an individual feels enthusiastic, alert, and active (Watson et al., 1988). Expression of positive affect includes smiling and being enthusiastic (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). The type of emotions that newcomers feel depends on the perception of personal goal achievements that can be achieved in their current work settings (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Each emotion is associated with a distinct behavior, therefore, newcomers' emotions have important consequences on the way they act (Frijda, 1986).

Positive emotional individuals (those reporting higher levels of positive affect) may be more effective mobilizing when they experience stressful situations (Taylor & Brown, 1994). Thus, well-being is associated with positive affect (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009). Moreover, positive affect is at the core of attitudinal constructs. It has been found that positive affect positively impacts job satisfaction (Shaw, 1999), performance (Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010), well-being (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002) creativity (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987) and motivation to learn (Bye, Pushkar, & Conway, 2007).

Presenting job previews can create the impression that employers are interested in newcomer's well-being (Colarelli, 1984; Suszko & Breaugh, 1986). That is, organizations that provide newcomers with realistic job preview are perceived as more honest, creating feelings of satisfaction within the workforce (Suszko & Breaugh, 1986). Since realistic job preview positively predicts honesty and feelings of satisfaction, I expect realistic job preview will also have a positive effect on positive affect. This is because positive affect is at the center of all constructs that predict well-being such as job satisfaction, happiness, and motivation to learn. This dissertation takes a step further in the dirty work literature by looking at the newcomers' state positive affect to understand the influence of realistic job preview on well-being during socialization. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 3: Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' state positive affect.*

Managers' Positive Framing Tactics

Early research recognized that managers play an important role in the newcomers' socialization process (Graen, 1976). Moreover, it has been suggested that socialization enables the adjustment of newcomers to organizations (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), and while doing so, newcomers engage in activities to gain feelings of personal control such as information and feedback seeking, positive framing and building relationships (Ashford & Black, 1996). Furthermore, both individual and organizational tactics are part of the socialization process (Reichers, 1987). Additionally, industrial-organizational psychology empirical research suggests that managers have a compelling effect on

employee morale, performance, job satisfaction, adjustment, and turnover intentions (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Specifically, organizational socialization tactics influence the ways that employees learn their jobs (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). However, the killing of animals induces deep moral repulsion in a meat-eater world, and younger newcomers are often subject to extreme pressure by more experienced workers that could create a feeling of "harassment" due to not being able to perform the tasks at the same speed as experienced or more skilled workers (Ackroyd & Crowdy, 1990). As such, part of the adjustment to a dirty work job is to find some form of justification to neutralize the taint associated with the job (Bosmans et al., 2016; Levi, 1981; Rivera, 2015). It has been suggested that the encouragement provided by the management and coworkers is important to the initial socialization that results in the worker accept his or her job (Hong & Duff, 1977). Furthermore, the interaction between newcomers and organizational associates is one of the most important avenues for the newcomer socialization (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). In addition, extant research on experienced workers suggests that abusive managers were related to turnover (Tepper, 2000).

Even though managers in a dirty work environment face added normalization challenges, they have more influence on the workplace through their supervisory role in activities (e.g. training newcomers, role modeling, etc.). That is, they might be more experienced and knowledgeable in normalization tactics to counter the taint linked with dirty work (Ashforth et al., 2007). Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) suggest three normalization tactics to normalize dirty work: reframing, recalibrating and refocusing. As mentioned earlier, positive framing is an emotion-focused coping technique that helps

newcomers gain control and improve job performance (Ashford & Black, 1996). While reframing techniques have been studied in the past, these were mainly qualitative studies focused on how employees reframe the dirty work to themselves (Ashforth et al., 2007, 2017; Levi, 1981; Palmer, 1978). This does not explain how the managers play a role in assisting the newcomer's socialization and adjustment to their job (Ashforth et al., 2017). For the most part, early access to job information creates a more realistic employee expectation (Premack & Wanous, 1985). Because of this, turnover intentions among newcomers is likely to weaken (Phillips, 1998). Realistic job preview is also thought to increase the work-related performance of newcomers (Barksdale Jr et al., 2003; Breaugh, 1981; Premack & Wanous, 1985; Reilly et al., 1981). Newcomers are influenced by several factors during the socialization period (Reichers, 1987), and it has been suggested that managers influence newcomers' socialization process (Ashforth et al., 2017). Dirty work managers understand the stigma and nature of the work, therefore, they can provide support to newcomers (Frijda, 1986).

Furthermore, dirty work managers use positive framing tactics to help newcomers during socialization (Ashforth et al., 2017). Given that a realistic job preview is likely to weaken newcomers' turnover intentions, and strengthen newcomers' performance and state positive affect, I expect to show how managers' positive framing tactics strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview and the proposed outcomes, making realistic job preview more effective in terms of reducing turnover, enhancing work role performance, and eliciting positive emotions. It is important to consider that one of the characteristics of realistic job preview is that it happens before the job starts. Then, positive framing happens after, once the newcomer is on the job. That is, realistic job

preview presents the good and bad aspects of the job before the newcomer starts the new activities, while positive framing acts as a reminder of all the positive facts the newcomer learned before starting the job. I expect these positive framing reminders to be significant in dirty work due to the stigma carried by workers on this context. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 4: The relationship between realistic job preview and turnover is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and (a) turnover, and the positive relationship between realistic job preview and (b) work role performance and (c) state positive affect.*

The Role of Family and Sex

While the organization can shape managers' behavior, there are other external factors that could play an important part in the socialization process that the organization cannot control. For example, having a family member working in the same processing facility may influence initial socialization outcomes (Settoon & Adkins, 1997). As mentioned earlier, empirical evidence suggests that dirty workers recruited by family members commonly learned stigma neutralization techniques faster, because their relatives are likely to expose them as early as the first week on the job (Hong & Duff, 1977).

Realistic job previews create a more realistic employee expectation (Premack & Wanous, 1985), and family members in dirty work are likely to support newcomers' socialization (Cahill, 1999a, 1999b; Hong & Duff, 1977). I expect that having a family

member who works in the same dirty work context strengthens the relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' behavioral outcomes (i.e., turnover, work role performance and state positive affect) for several reasons. First, newcomers with family members working in a dirty work context have been socialized to the stigma before starting the new job. Second, when the newcomer applies for the dirty job and it is exposed to the realistic job preview process, they may be more open to the positive information provided by the organization. Lastly, the newcomer may be less likely to experience a shock once he or she starts the new dirty job, not only because they have been exposed to the stigma with their family members, but because they may have their family to reinforce the information communicated during realistic job preview. This suggests the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 5: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and (a) turnover, and the positive relationship between realistic job preview and (b) work role performance and (c) state positive affect.*

Extant research regarding dirty work and sex suggests that men are preferred over women in dirty work jobs, unless the occupation is female dominated (i.e., nurses) (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). However, the vast majority of dirty work research uses samples where one sex dominates. For example, female dominated dirty jobs such as nurses (Mills & Gassaway, 2007; Urasadettan & Burellier, 2017), topless dancers (Mavin & Grandy, 2013; Thompson & Harred, 1992; Thompson et al., 2003), domestic workers (Bosmans et al., 2016) and animal shelters employees (Baran et al., 2009; Lopina et al.,

2012; Reeve et al., 2005; Rogelberg et al., 2007; Rohlf & Bennett, 2005). Likewise, extant research on male dominated dirty jobs include slaughter men (Ackroyd & Crowdy, 1990; Baran et al., 2016; Dillard, 2008; Ehman et al., 2012; Simpson et al., 2014), law enforcement officers (Dick, 2005; Rivera, 2015; Tracy, 2004) and funeral directors (Cahill, 1999a, 1999b).

There is a need to understand the behaviors of a more diverse stigmatized workforce. For example, Baran et al.'s (2016) study on slaughterhouse workers examined the relationship between sex and worker well-being. However, since 74% of the sample were men, they could not control for the worker's sex since they would be essentially controlling for the entire sample. They decided to study correlations among demographics variables and concluded that sex was not likely to have a significant impact on their findings. Conversely, Russ & McNeilly's (1995) study suggests a moderating effect between sex and turnover intentions. In sum, the few studies that examine the role of sex in dirty work yield mixed results.

Empirical research suggests that women are more likely to want feedback from others in the workplace (Sherman, Higgs, & Williams, 1997). Furthermore, Foster (1999) suggests women are more sensitive, caring and emotional than men. Moreover, Bolton's (2005) study suggests women are more skilled at managing particular emotionally intense situations than men. Therefore, women are the preferred sex for highly emotional and caring jobs (Walton, 1975). Lastly, it has been suggested that women are more likely to accept a less-than-ideal job than men (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010).

I expect that being a female will strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview and good organizational outcomes in a dirty work context. First, women report

more positive emotions than men (Alexander & Wood, 2000), therefore, they will focus on the positive job information learned during the realistic job preview process, rather than focusing on the negative stigma that dirty work brings while on the job. Second, women are more skilled managing emotionally charged situations than men. Therefore, women will handle the shock caused by dirty work better than men, resulting in improved organizational outcomes. This leads to the hypothesis below:

> *Hypothesis 6: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and (a) turnover, and the positive relationship between realistic job preview and (b) work role performance and (c) state positive affect.*

Table 3: Summary of Hypotheses

H1: Realistic job preview is negatively associated with newcomers' turnover.
H2: Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' work role performance.
H3: Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' state positive affect.
H4a: The relationship between realistic job preview and turnover is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.
H4b: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.
H4c: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.
H5a: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.
H5b: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.
H5c: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.
H6a: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.
H6b: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.
H6c: The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This chapter describes the selected sample, data collection procedures, measures and methodological techniques utilized to test the proposed hypotheses.

Sample

The newcomers selected for this study worked in a slaughterhouse owned by a large protein producer, located in North Carolina (USA). The slaughterhouse employs over 1,000 team members and hires new employees on a weekly basis. All employees working for this facility engage in dirty work. I was granted access to the company since I was the Plant Manager for a period of two years. The questionnaire and consent letter were approved by the general manager, who provided written consent to use the data collected for research purposes. The Institutional Review Board and data storage authorization for this research was received in January 17, 2018 by the UNC Charlotte IRB (Study #: 17-0487).

Hard-copy surveys were given to 466 newcomers. Approximately 118 surveys were not usable because they contained incomplete data. As a result, the final sample contained 348 usable responses, yielding a response rate of 74.6%.

The human resources department of the slaughterhouse provided a file with the participants' social security numbers and demographics. The researcher matched this information with the surveys to determine certain control variables. All primary data is

stored on a cloud-based drive and only accessible to the principal investigator. The social security numbers were deleted at the conclusion of the study.

Among the participants, 52.8% were female, providing a somewhat equal sample in terms of sex. The average age was 32.7 years: the range was between 18 and 62 years old. Approximately 53.7% of the participants reported previous dirty work experience. Participants belonged to a variety of ethnicities: 74.7% African American, 10.6% White, 9.2% Asian and 5.5% Hispanic. Approximately 55.7% of the participants worked the night shift, and there were 19 different processing areas in the facility.

Data Collection

Data were collected weekly over six weeks. Each respondent was given a consent form (Appendix A) prior to responding the first survey, where the respondents provided their name and signature as an agreement to participate in the research study. The consent form provided details about the study, and the researcher's contact information. The workers were taken by a human resources supervisor to the production office to complete the survey. In order to avoid response bias, production supervisors stayed at the processing floor while the workers filled the survey at the office. Additionally, participants were identified by the last four digits of their social security number instead of their name to maintain anonymity. This was done during the newcomers' working hours, avoiding breaks. Lastly, the respondents did not receive any compensation for participating in the study.

Survey 'T0' (Appendix B) was designed to measure pre-entry knowledge before starting to perform the activities the workers were hired for. The particular slaughterhouse in which this study was conducted has an onboarding program, where

new hires spend three working days in a classroom receiving training about safety practices, animal welfare, food safety, product quality, rules of engagement and organizational culture. On days four and five of the first week, newcomers spend half of the day in the classroom, and half of the day in the processing floor observing experienced workers engaging the activities the newcomer will be performing in the coming week. At the end of week one, newcomers were not engaged in any job activities, as mentioned before, they merely observe the daily routines of their co-workers. The paper-and-pencil survey 'T0' was distributed to new hires at the end of their onboarding week (i.e., week one). Realistic job preview was measured on week one because the organization information has been shared with the newcomers.

The second survey 'T1' (Appendix C) was distributed five times over the following five weeks. It was designed to measure four variables over time: family influence, managers' positive framing tactics, work role performance and state positive affect. Survey 'T1' was applied at the end of week two, week three (i.e., 'T2'), week four (i.e., 'T3'), week five (i.e., 'T4'), and week six (i.e., 'T5'). All the surveys, from 'T1' to 'T5', contained exactly the same questions. Table 4 presents participants and variables measured per week. Turnover rate was high on this study, which nowadays is expected in a slaughterhouse environment.

Extant socialization research suggests that newcomers' adjustment period is three months because this is the amount of time it takes to assess their fit with the organization (e.g., Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011). Additionally, Bauer and Erdogan (2011) suggest that the socialization process evolves over a 1 year period, with an intensified socialization taking place within the initial 30 to 60 days. However, a more precise time

frame can be achieved when researchers gather the opinions of management within the organization, since they have a closer view of newcomers interactions and behaviors (Mitchell & James, 2001). The decision to collect data at six different times was based on discussions with the plant's human resources and management team, where they indicated that there are different critical periods of time depending on the focal variable we were looking for in this type of work environment.

Table 4: Variables Measured per Survey

Week	Sample	Measures
T0	348	RJP (IV) Sex (Moderator)
T1	280	Family Influence (Moderator)
T2	237	
T3	198	Managers' Positive Framing Tactics (Moderator)
T4	144	Turnover (DV) Work Role Performance (DV) State PA (DV)
T5	113	

Decisions about specific measures and the timing of the measurements were made based on the socialization literature and my practical experience working in this organization and particular environment. As mentioned earlier, realistic job preview was measured in week one because it happens first in the socialization process. Then, family influence was measured in week two because workers were already hired. Therefore, by

asking at this point in time, potential fear of discrimination on the basis of social connections (i.e., family member) are minimized (Padgett & Morris, 2005). Then, managers' positive framing tactics was measured in week three because this is the amount of time it takes newcomers to get to know their managers, and for the positive framing tactics to take effect. Week four was chosen to measure the dependent variables: turnover, work role performance and state positive affect. This decision was made because the socialization process has already happened, and according to the researchers' experience the majority of the newcomers in a slaughterhouse leave after 30 days.

Analytical Procedures

The data for this dissertation were analyzed in IBM SPSS Statistics, V26, to obtain descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviation, and correlations. Reliability of the data was analyzed employing Cronbach's alpha to ensure consistency. It has been suggested than a minimum alpha of >0.70 is needed for acceptable reliability (Hair, Black, Anderson, Tatham, & William, 1998). However, Lance et al. (2006) suggest that 0.70 is not necessarily the cut-off value for acceptable reliability and that lower reliabilities may be acceptable. There are ongoing debates in the literature that highlight controversy with respect to settling the index of agreement values (Lance et al., 2006). Additionally, Hair et al. (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 1998) specify bandwidths where exploratory research alphas of 0.5 are acceptable.

Test of normality indicated that data was normally distributed except for turnover. The hypotheses involving work role performance and state positive affect were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Hierarchical multiple regression is usually used to examine distinct theoretically based hypotheses (B. H. Cohen, 2008; McCoach, 2010).

Hypotheses related to the turnover dependent variable (i.e., H1, H4a, H5a, H6a) were tested using logistic regression. This is because turnover was a dichotomous variable and therefore not normally distributed (Aldrich, Nelson, & Adler, 1984). Therefore, multiple regression would not be appropriate.

Measures

Independent Variable

Realistic job preview. This variable was measured at T0. The Breaugh and Mann (1984) pre-entry knowledge 6-item scale measures perceived realism of newcomers' job expectations to determine newcomers' realistic job preview. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). One item "I prefer to rotate through different positions within the plant" was dropped because participants in this study did not have an opportunity to do so. See Appendix B for items. Cronbach's alpha for this construct was 0.85.

Dependent Variables

All dependent variables were measured at T4.

Turnover. Turnover was measured using a dichotomous variable indicating if the employee had left the job, or was still working (1=Left, 0=Still here).

Work role performance. This variable was measured using Griffin et al.'s (2007) 3-item scale examining self-rated work role performance. I used the individual task proficiency dimension and a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Cronbach's alpha was 0.66.

State positive affect. I used the shortened version of Watson et al.'s (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Barsade & O'Neill, 2014; Crawford & Henry,

2004). Responses to the 10 items were measured using a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = Extremely). Cronbach's alpha 0.75.

Moderators

Managers' positive framing tactics. This variable was measured at T3. The Ashford and Black (1996) 3-item proactive socialization tactics measure focusing on the positive framing dimension was adapted to ask if the supervisor engaged in this behavior with newcomers. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Cronbach's alpha was 0.73.

Family influence. This variable was measured at T1. To determine family influence, the participants were asked if they currently have (or had in the past) a family member working for the organization. (1 = Yes; 0 = No).

Sex. This variable was measured at T0. The human resources department provided a file with the newcomers' social security number and sex. This variable is dichotomous (1 = Female; 0 = Male). The researcher matched this information with the surveys using respondents' social security number.

Control Variables

Six control variables were included in the analysis to determine their effect on the independent variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Each of the control variables was measured at T0.

Previous work experience. Participants were asked to provide their previous work experience in an animal processing plant in terms of years and months. The researcher converted this measure in months.

State positive affect. This study used the shortened version of Watson et al.'s (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scale using ten items (Barsade & O'Neill, 2014; Crawford & Henry, 2004). Responses was measured using a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = Extremely). Since state positive affect is part of the proposed model outcomes, the survey controlled for it at T0 in order to capture changes in positive affect due to the other variables in the model. One item, "Active" was dropped from the scale. Cronbach's alpha was 0.76.

Ethnicity. The human resources department provided a file with the social security number and ethnicity of newcomers. The researcher matched this information with the surveys. Ethnicity was coded using dummy variables. African American was used as the reference group.

Work area. Newcomers work in different areas in the processing floor. Each area performs a different step in the animal slaughtering process. The organization did not allow workers to change work areas until the probationary period of 90 days was completed. The new hires' probationary period duration is six weeks. The human resources department provided a file with newcomers' social security number and work area. The researcher matched this information with the surveys. Because some areas were dirtier than others, four dirty work experts were asked to rate the dirtiness of each area. Each dirty work expert had at least 15 years of experience managing slaughterhouse operations in different countries. Appendix D provides the entire survey. Areas, descriptions and dirtiness ratings can be found on Table 5.

Age. The human resources department provided a file with the newcomers' social security number and date of birth. The researcher matched this information with the surveys.

Shift. Status as a night shift employee is likely to have a negative impact on organizational and individual outcomes (Bohle & Tilley, 1989) because dirty workers on night shifts have reported lower job satisfaction and poor sleep habits with more frequent chronic fatigue in comparison with day shift workers (Ferri et al., 2016). The human resources department provided a file with the newcomers' social security number and work shift. The researcher matched this information with the surveys. It was coded for day shift and night shift (1= Day shift; 0= Night shift).

Table 5: Work Areas and Dirtiness

Area Code	Area Description	Average Dirtiness Score
1145	Live Receiving S1	2.50
1148	Evisceration S1	3.50
1155	Live Receiving S3	2.50
1156	Evisceration S3	3.50
1157	Paws Processing S3	2.00
1160	Rehang S1	2.50
1163	Cone Deboning S1	2.00
1165	Wing Processing S1	2.00
1171	Stack Off S1	1.75
1172	Reprocessing S3	3.50
1175	Rehang S3	2.50
1178	Cone Deboning S3	2.00
1183	Fresh Shipping S3	1.25
1184	Breast Trim & Portioning S1	1.25
1928	Breast Trim & Portioning S3	1.25
4703	Tenderloins S1	1.25
4704	Tenderloins S3	1.25
120802	Bone Detection - S3	1.00
120977	Whole Leg Debone S3	1.75
131478	Statistical Process Control S1	1.75
134904	Thigh Debone S3	1.75
138453	Breast Packing S1	1.25
1149	Paws Processing S1	2.00
1174	Stack Off S3	1.75
1176	Machine Cut-up S3	2.00
1181	Wing Cut-up S3	2.00
120976	Whole Leg Debone S1	1.75
134901	Thigh Debone S1	1.75
1153	Refrigeration Maint	1.75
138454	Breast Packing S3	1.25

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter describes the testing results. Descriptive statistics including correlations among variables, means, standard deviations and reliabilities are presented below.

As mentioned earlier, different work areas were characterized by different dirtiness levels. In order to assess interrater reliability for this control variable two calculations were made. First, the four experts' responses Cronbach's alpha was 0.68, indicating a moderate reliability. Additionally, responses were averaged, and the standard deviation and variance of their responses were analyzed. Results are reported in Table 6.

Table 6: Experts Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		Mean	Std. Dev.	Variance	1	2	3	4
1	Expert 1	2.41	1.32	1.75	1.00			
2	Expert 2	1.59	0.71	0.51	.65**	1.00		
3	Expert 3	2.12	0.60	0.36	.01	-.17	1.00	
4	Expert 4	1.65	1.22	1.49	.59*	.54*	.23	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Test of the Research Model

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations are shown in Table 8. Before testing the hypothesized model, data diagnostic procedures were performed in order to assess the normality of the data, multicollinearity, outliers, and missing data. The moderators were z-scored before creating the interaction variables (Hair, Black, Babin, et

al., 1998; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). VIF and tolerance scores were examined; all VIF scores were less than 10 and all tolerance scores were above 0.40 (Hair et al., 2011).

Correlation Results. Positive affect at T0 was positively correlated with previous dirty work experience ($r = 0.114$, $p<.05$). This indicates that newcomers that were normalized to the dirty work stigma in the past, might have been more positive than others. The independent variable realistic job preview was positively correlated with the control variable positive affect ($r = 0.118$, $p<.05$), Asian ethnicity ($r = 0.123$, $p<.05$), area dirtiness ($r = 0.124$, $p<.05$) and shift ($r = 0.143$, $p<.01$). However, realistic job preview was negatively correlated with Hispanic ethnicity ($r = -0.118$, $p<.05$). The dependent variable turnover was negatively correlated with positive affect at T0 ($r = -0.251$, $p<.01$), Asian ethnicity ($r = -0.177$, $p<.05$), shift ($r = -0.297$, $p<.01$) and realistic job preview ($r = -0.239$, $p<.01$). Conversely, turnover was positively correlate with status as an African American ($r = 0.196$, $p<.01$).

Work role performance was positively correlated with shift ($r = 0.165$, $p<.05$) and realistic job preview ($r = 0.174$, $p<.05$) and negatively correlated with turnover ($r = -0.239$, $p<.01$). Positive affect at T4 was positively correlated with positive affect at T0 ($r = 0.348$, $p<.01$), shift ($r = -0.228$, $p<.01$) and work performance ($r = 0.174$, $p<.05$). This suggests that the way that individuals felt (state positive affect) prior taking the job is heavily correlated with how they feel at T4, and positive individuals are more likely to show higher levels of work performance.

Managers' positive framing tactics was positively correlated with the positive affect control variable ($r = 0.157$, $p<.05$) and realistic job preview ($r = 0.202$, $p<.01$),

suggesting that positive newcomers reporting high levels of realistic job preview will also be more open to the effects of managers' framing tactics.

Family influence was not significantly correlated with any other variable. Lastly, sex was negatively correlated with work area dirtiness (r = -0.192, p<.01) and realistic job preview (r = -0.140, p<01).

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		Mean	Std. Dev.	Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Work Experience	10.69	20.56	T0	1.00															
2	Positive Affect	4.67	0.39	T0	.11*	1.00														
3	Ethnicity: White	0.10	0.31	T0	-.00	-.00	1.00													
4	Ethnicity : African American	0.75	0.43	T0	-.18	-.07	-.59**	1.00												
5	Ethnicity : Hispanic	0.54	0.23	T0	-.00	.08	-.08	-.41	1.00											
6	Ethnicity : Asian	0.92	0.29	T0	.03	.04	-.11*	-.55**	-.07	1.00										
7	Work Area Dirtiness	1.87	0.62	T0	.08	-.06	.06	-.03	-.00	-.02	1.00									
8	Age	32.69	9.97	T0	.03	-.06	-.07	-.01	-.17**	.22**	-.07	1.00								
9	Shift	0.44	0.50	T0	.16**	.19**	-.00	-1.07*	.11*	.07	.03	.00	1.00							
10	RJP	4.37	0.58	T0	.02	.11*	.03	-.04	-.11*	.12*	.12*	.08	.14**	1.00						
11	Turnover	0.59	0.50	T4	-.19*	-.25**	-.05	.19**	-.08	-.17*	.10	-.00	-.29**	-.23**	1.00					
12	Work Performance	4.51	0.43	T4	-.14	.07	.37	-.13	.08	.07	-.20	.10	.16*	.17*	-.23**	1.00				
13	Positive Affect	4.71	0.39	T4	-.14	.35**	.35	-.00	.02	-.04	-.02	.08	.22**	.17*	-	.17*	1.00			
14	Positive Framing Tactics	4.09	0.70	T3	.13	.16*	-.04	.00	-.05	.08	.03	08	.07	.20**	-.11	.12	.15	1.00		
15	Family Member	0.19	0.48	T1	-.05	.00	.08	-.09	.01	.03	-.04	-.08	-.01	.06	-.04	.03	-.11	-.09	1.00	
16	Sex	0.53	0.50	T0	.07	-.02	.06	.00	.02	-.09	-.19**	.01	-.06	-.14**	.07	.13	-.06	.01	-.00	1.00

* Correlation is signifiant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Tests of Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, turnover and its interactions were tested using logistic regression since this is dichotomous variable. Table 8 presents results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The set of hypotheses suggesting that realistic job preview decreases turnover is fully supported. Logistic regression results showed that realistic job preview is negatively associated with newcomers' turnover (β = -1.15, Wald χ^2 [1] = 11.472, p = .001) supporting hypothesis H1.

The moderating effect of managers' positive framing tactics on the relationship between realistic job preview and turnover (H4a) is also supported (β = -.70, Wald χ^2 [1] = 5.371, p = .02), suggesting that higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.

Conversely, the moderating effects of family influence (β = -.543, Wald χ^2 [1] = 1.322, p = .25) and sex (β = .06, Wald χ^2 [1] = .08, p = .78) on the relationship between realistic job preview and turnover are not significant. Thus, hypotheses H5a and H6a are not supported.

The rest of the model hypotheses were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Table 10 summarizes the results of the hierarchical regression analyses for work role performance and positive affect.

Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' work role performance (β = .204, p = .021), supporting hypothesis H2. Additionally, the hypothesis that the relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics (H4b) is fully supported (β = .292, p = .001). Figure 5 exhibits the two-way linear interaction.

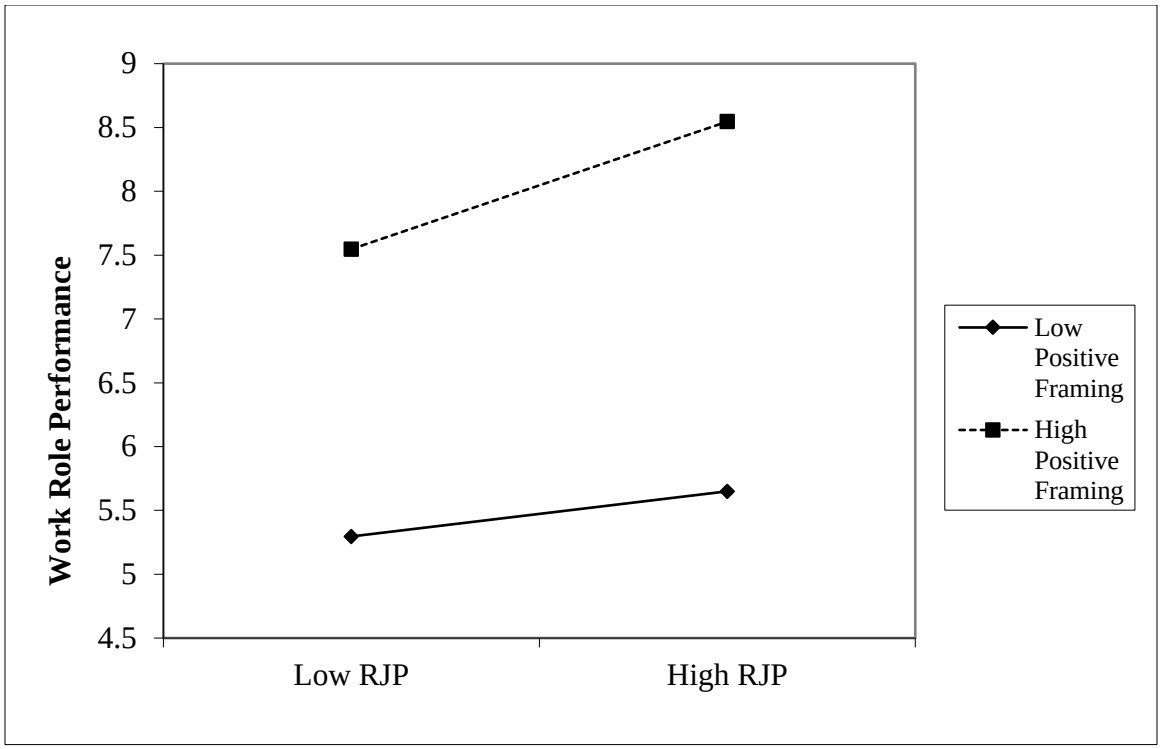


Figure 5: Realistic Job Preview and Work Role Performance Moderated by Managers' Positive Framing Tactics (Two-way Linear Interaction).

Furthermore, the hypothesis that the relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by sex (H6b) is not supported (β = -.24, p = .003). The relationship is significant, but not in the hypothesized direction. Find the two-way linear interaction in Figure 6.

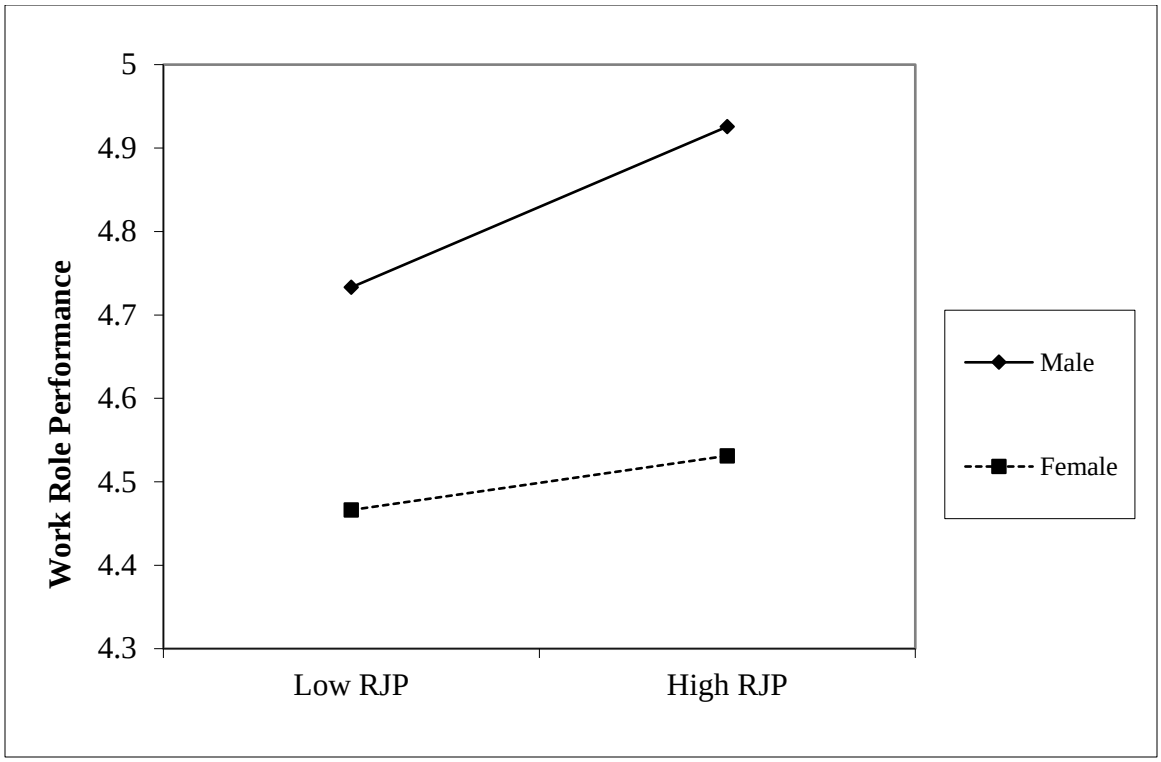


Figure 6: Realistic Job Preview and Work Role Performance Moderated by Sex (Two-way Linear Interaction).

Results suggest that family influence does not have a significant effect on the relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance (β = -.023, p = .810). Therefore, hypothesis H5b is not supported.

Realistic job preview did not significantly predict positive affect (β = .146, p = .076) providing no support for H3. Furthermore, the hypothesized moderating effects of positive framing tactics (β = .09, p = .291), family influence (β = .11, p = .249), and sex (β = -.03, p = .704), were not significant, providing no support for hypotheses 4c, 5c, and 5c, respectively.

A summary of the results of the hypothesis tests is presented in Table 9. Overall, this study found support for 4 hypotheses out of 12. The research model with supported and unsupported hypotheses can be found in Figure 7.

Table 8: Logistic Regression Predicting Turnover

Predictor	*β*	Wald χ^2	*p*	Odds Ratio
Step 1: Controls				
Work Experience	-.00	0.36	0.55	2.71
Positive Affect (T0)	-1.12	4.99	0.03	1.38
Ethnicity - Caucasian	1.42	2.22	0.14	63.18
Ethnicity - Hispanic	1.90	5.62	0.02	801.91
Ethnicity - Asian	2.00	3.44	0.06	1608.41
Work Area Dirtiness	0.29	1.02	0.31	3.81
Age	0.02	1.28	0.26	2.78
Shift	-1.40	14.54	0.00	1.28
Step 2: Independent Variable				
Realistic Job Preview	-1.15	11.47	.00	1.37
Step 3: Moderators				
Family Influence	-0.93	2.97	0.09	1.48
Sex	0.17	0.19	0.67	3.26
Positive Framing Tactics	-0.23	0.67	0.41	2.22
Step 4: Interaction Variables				
RJP x Positive Framing	-0.70	5.37	0.02	1.65
RJP x Family Influence	-0.54	1.32	0.25	1.79
RJP x Sex	0.06	0.08	0.78	2.88

Table 9: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Work Role Performance and Positive Affect

Independent Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Work Role Performance	Positive Affect	Work Role Performance	Positive Affect	Work Role Performance	Positive Affect	Work Role Performance	Positive Affect
Step 1: Controls								
Work Experience	-0.15	-0.17 *	-0.15	-0.17 *	-0.17	-0.17 *	-0.16	-0.17
Positive Affect (T0)	0.05	0.33 **	0.03	0.31 **	0.02	0.29 **	-0.04	0.27
Ethnicity - Caucasian	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.04
Ethnicity - Hispanic	0.06	-0.04	0.13	0.01	0.11	0.02	0.09	0.03
Ethnicity - Asian	0.11	-0.08	0.1	-0.08	0.12	-0.1	0.09	-0.11
Work Area Dirtiness	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	0.07	-0.04
Age	-0.01	0.12	-0.01	0.11	-0.01	0.12	0.03	0.12
Shift	0.16	0.20 *	0.15	0.19 *	0.16	0.17 *	0.08	0.14
R^2	0.07	0.20						
F	1.22	4.12 **						
Step 2: Independent Variable								
Realistic Job Preview			0.20 *	0.15	0.19 *	0.13	0.17	0.17
R^2			0.10	0.22				
ΔR^2			0.04	0.02				
ΔF			5.45 *	3.20				
Step 3: Moderators								
Family Influence					0.4	-0.07	0.10	-0.11
Sex					0.18	-0.06	0.24 *	-0.05
Positive Framing Tactics					0.06	0.08	0.10	0.09
R^2					0.14	0.23		
ΔR^2					0.03	0.02		
ΔF					1.65	0.83		
Step 4: Interaction Variables								
RJP*Positive Framing							0.29 *	0.09
RJP*Family Influence							-0.02	0.11
RJP*Sex							-0.24 *	-0.03
R^2							0.26	0.24
ΔR^2							0.12	0.02
ΔF							6.98 **	0.83

*$p < .05$
** $p < .01$
Shift: 0 = Night, 1 = Day
Sex: 0 = Male, 1 = Female

Table 10: Summary of Hypothesis Tests

H1	Realistic job preview is negatively associated with newcomers' turnover.	Supported
H2	Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' work role performance.	Supported
H3	Realistic job preview is positively associated with newcomers' state positive affect.	Not Supported
H4a	The relationship between realistic job preview and turnover is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.	Supported
H4b	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.	Supported
H4c	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by mangers' positive framing tactics. Higher levels of managers' positive framing tactics will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.	Not Supported
H5a	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.	Not Supported
H5b	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.	Not Supported
H5c	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by family influence. Higher levels of family influence will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.	Not Supported
H6a	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' turnover is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the negative relationship between realistic job preview and turnover.	Not Supported
H6b	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' work role performance is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance.	Not Supported
H6c	The relationship between realistic job preview and newcomers' state positive affect is moderated by sex. Being female will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.	Not Supported

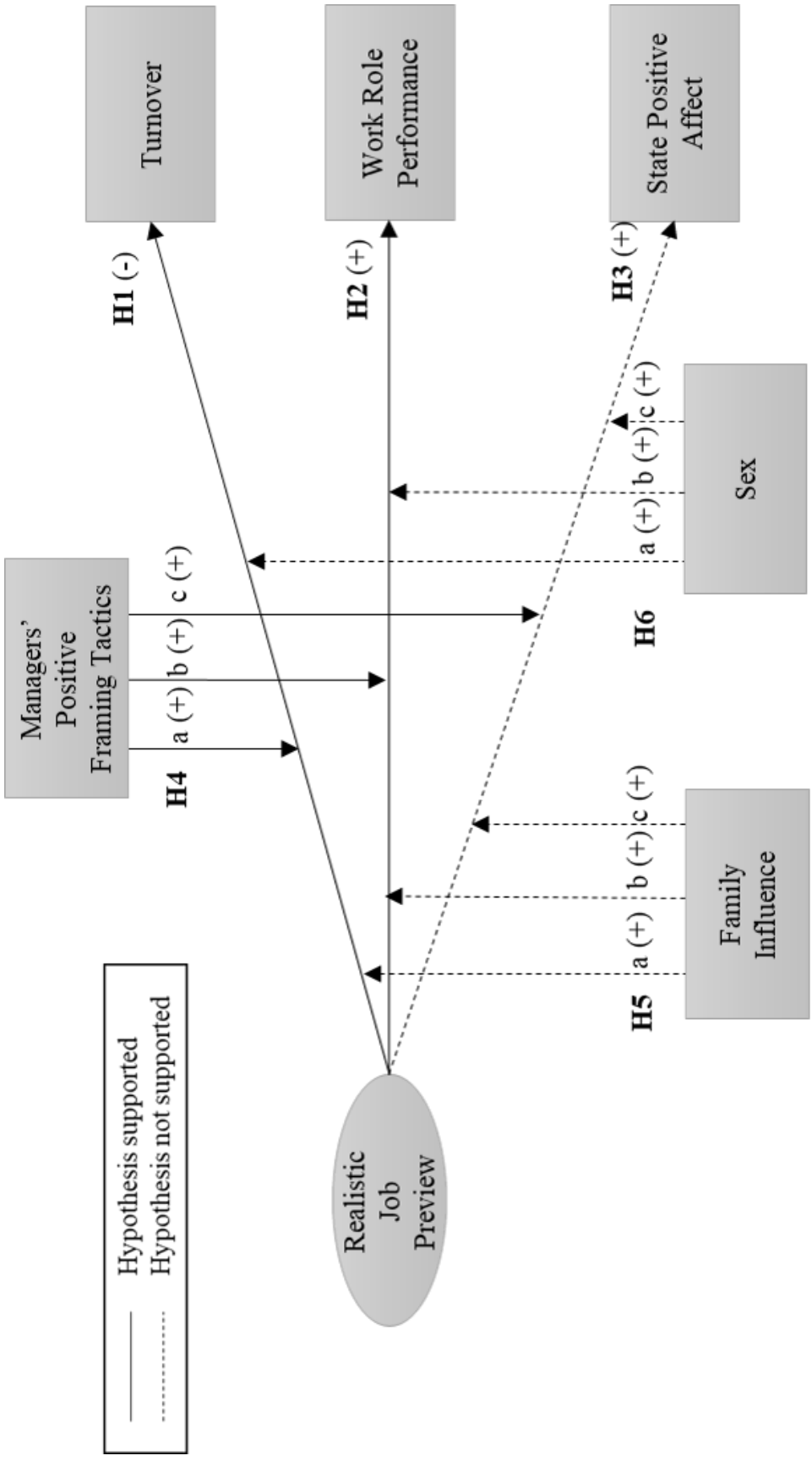


Figure 7: Summary of Hypothesis Tests

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This section presents an overview of the study, an overall discussion of findings, contributions to the literature, practical implications, limitations of the study and future research suggestions.

Overview

Unemployment rates in the US economy have reached an all-time low of 3.6% (DOL, 2019b) in 2019. Therefore, hourly worker availability was scarce, and meat manufacturers needed to find new ways to keep workers engaged (McCracken, 2018b). Additionally, dirty work presented a special challenge to both workers and their managers (Ashforth et al., 2017). To explore these issues, this dissertation attempted to take an interactionist approach by looking at both demographic and contextual variables that affect individual and organizational outcomes.

The first goal of this dissertation was to build on existing studies to provide a more comprehensive interactionist model of dirty work. The second goal of this dissertation was to expand what we know about how newcomers adjust to dirty work jobs. The vast majority of dirty work research focuses on how experienced employees cope while on the job. This dissertation suggested that receiving a realistic job preview positively impacts turnover and newcomers' work performance. The findings suggest that realistic job preview may have a positive influence on turnover and newcomer's work performance. Additionally, the findings provide evidence that managers' positive framing

tactics strengthen these relationships. The third goal was to test a set of relationships using a gender diverse sample. Specifically, the findings indicate being a female newcomer in dirty work strengthens the relationship between realistic job preview and work performance. The findings are discussed in more detail in the next section.

Findings

Relationship between realistic job preview and turnover. This dissertation utilized a more comprehensive measurement scale for realistic job preview among newcomers (Breaugh & Mann, 1984). That is, Breaugh and Mann (1984) scale measures the newcomers' pre-entry knowledge of the job from the newcomers' perspective, while Lopina et al.'s (2012) study solely accounts for the number of information sources the newcomer was exposed to, without assessing the newcomers' true understanding of the job. By doing so, this research fills a gap in the dirty work literature by examining the influence that realistic job preview has on newcomers' turnover. As anticipated, the results suggest that realistic job preview and turnover have a strong relationship (H1), where realistic job preview reduces the likelihood of turnover, possibly by leading newcomers with poor fit to self-select out before starting the job. Lastly, realistic job preview may also enable newcomers who stay to adjust in advance for what's coming, and thus, reduces surprises and make them more likely to stay.

The findings are consistent with prior research in different work environments, where realistic job preview is negatively associated with turnover (Wanous, 1977). That is, perhaps realistic job preview leads to newcomer's self-selection out so that eventual turnover is mitigated. Furthermore, the findings are consistent with Lopina et al.'s (2012) access to job information in dirty work research, where they suggest that access to job

information is the stronger predictor for newcomers' turnover. Moreover, this dissertation confirms Lopina et al.'s (2012) findings by using an established measurement scale for realistic job preview.

Relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance. This dissertation focused on measuring individual task proficiency using a work role performance scale. As expected, the findings suggest that realistic job preview positively impacts newcomers work role performance (H2). That is, realistic job preview possibly increases the newcomers' understanding of the new role, allowing them to set performance expectations before starting the job. That is, realistic job preview might help newcomers decide in advance if they can perform the assigned job. Therefore, when the newcomer decides to stay, their self-reported performance rate increases. This finding is consistent with previous research in different environments suggesting that realistic job preview may increase new employees' performance (Barksdale Jr et al., 2003; Breaugh, 1981; Premack & Wanous, 1985; Reilly et al., 1981).

Relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect. Since realistic job preview positively predicts honesty and satisfaction (Suszko & Breaugh, 1986) , this dissertation suggested that realistic job preview will also have a positive effect on positive affect. However, the results of the current study suggest that realistic job preview is not positively associated with newcomers' state positive affect. That is, realistic job preview influence on positive affect was non-significant. Therefore, hypothesis H3 is not supported.

There are several reasons for the lack of support in the hypothesis related to newcomers' state positive affect. First, the control positive affect and dependent variable

positive affect were measured at different points in time and had different reliabilities. The low reliability for the dependent variable state positive affect at T4 (α = .613) possibly indicates that the newcomers may have been struggling during the socialization process, since the reliability at the control level T0 was significantly higher (α = .752). Second, it is possible that realistic job preview will not change how the individual feels, since it has been suggested that the type of emotions that newcomers feel depends on the perception of personal goal achievements that can be achieved in their current work settings (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Third, positive affect is relatively stable over time (Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001), therefore it is possible that realistic job preview will not change it.

Managers' Positive Framing Tactics Interaction. The set of hypotheses suggesting that managers' positive framing tactics have an effect in organizational outcomes (H4a, H4b, H4c) are mostly supported. This dissertation suggested that, especially in a dirty work environment, positive framing tactics will strengthen the relationship between RPJ and turnover, work role performance, and state positive affect.

Specifically, the moderating effects of managers' positive framing tactics on the relationship between realistic job preview and turnover (H4a), and realistic job preview and work role performance (H4b) were supported. This is consistent with previous literature suggesting that the encouragement provided by management is important to the initial socialization (Hong & Duff, 1977).

However, the research results of the current study do not support the hypothesized moderating effects of managers' positive framing tactics on the relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect. That is, H4c is not supported. That is, this

relationship was non-significant. As mentioned earlier, one possible explanation is that individuals have a set level of positive affect which will not change regardless of external interventions. Another possibility is that regardless of the positive framing tactics efforts, the stigma of dirty work affects the employees' state positive affect since this environment is difficult and emotionally charged.

Family Influence Interaction. With respect to the set of hypotheses suggesting that having a family member who has worked in a similar dirty work context strengthens the relationship between realistic job preview and organizational outcomes (H5a, H5b, H5c), the results of the current study provide no support whatsoever. There are several reasons for the lack of support for this set of hypotheses.

First, very few dirty work studies focus on the role of family members. Cahill (1999a, 1999b) suggests that family members involved in dirty work are likely to support newcomers' socialization. However, his research was conducted only on mortuary students. Funeral direction is a high-income job, whereas slaughterhouse workers earn the minimum wage. Perhaps family influence is not significant in a low paid job because the family wants the best for their members and earning a higher wage somewhere else would be preferred.

Second, the study by Settoon and Adkins (1997) suggests that newcomer use of family and friends as referent for sensemaking predicted socialization outcomes at the time of hiring, whereas use of coworkers and supervisors as referents for sensemaking predicted socialization outcomes after 6 months. There is a possibility that family members suggested that their loved ones should leave a stigmatized job and find something that they consider to be better.

Sex. The set of hypotheses suggesting that sex has an effect in organizational outcomes (H6a, H6b, H6c) were not supported. Extant research suggests that women are more skilled in managing certain emotionally-charged situations compared to men (Bolton, 2005). Therefore, this dissertation suggested that being female will strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance (H6b). However, the analyses show the opposite results. The moderating effect of being female on the relationship between realistic job preview and work performance was negative. It is possible that the work environment was biased against women, or that women did not feel as confident performing this type of dirty work.

Additionally, results do not support the moderating effects of sex on the relationship between realistic job preview and other organizational outcomes such as turnover (H6a) and newcomers state positive affect (H6c).

Previous research suggests that in dirty work environments, men are preferred over women, unless the occupation is female dominated (i.e., nurses) (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2014a). Furthermore, Foster (1999) suggests women are more caring, sensitive and emotional than men. Therefore, one may expect that being a female in dirty work is not going to decrease the turnover rates after realistic job preview. Perhaps women working in dirty jobs handle the stigma worse than men, and that is why being a female will not strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview and state positive affect.

Overall findings. Taken together, the findings suggest that realistic job preview positively supports newcomer socialization. These findings provide support for an interactionist perspective of dirty work while examining events that take place before the newcomers starts the job. The findings extend existing evidence that access to job

information positively impacts dirty work organizational outcomes such as turnover (Lopina et al., 2012). Additionally, this finding suggests that realistic job preview positively influence newcomers work role performance. To the author's knowledge, this is the first dirty work study to test this relationship.

The findings also suggest that managers' positive framing tactics strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview, and newcomers work role performance and turnover. This may be because newcomers' socialization to dirty work is an emotionally difficult experience, therefore, having a manager reframe the work during that challenging time improves the overall process. This findings build on Ashforth et al.'s (2017) suggestion that managers help newcomers to adjust to dirty work.

The findings with respect to sex provide evidence that being female does not strengthen the positive relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance. This extends Baran et al.'s (2016) study on slaughterhouse workers where they examined the relationship between sex and worker well-being. Their study sample was not diverse enough to test the relationship between sex and organizational outcomes. Therefore, they studied correlations and concluded that sex was not likely to have a significant impact on their findings.

Contributions to the Literature

The findings of this study make various contributions to the dirty work and socialization literatures. First, this dissertation utilized a more comprehensive measurement scale to determine levels of newcomers' realistic job preview (Breaugh & Mann, 1984) than Lopina et al.'s (2012) access to job information. By doing so, this research extends Lopina et al.'s (2012) study by examining the influence that realistic job

preview has on certain newcomers' organizational outcomes such as turnover and work role performance.

Second, dirty work research has overlooked the influence that realistic job preview has on performance. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance in dirty work. Therefore, this dissertation fills a gap in the dirty work literature by suggesting that realistic job preview positively impacts newcomer work role performance.

The third contribution of the current research is that it presents evidence that the managers' positive framing tactics positively influence newcomer socialization by asking the dirty workers to rate their managers' positive framing performance. That is, this dissertation extends Ashforth et al.'s (2017) research by looking at managers' reframing tactics from the eyes of the newcomers, instead of the managers' self-assessment. This interactionist approach makes a novel contribution to both socialization and dirty work literatures.

The fourth contribution of this dissertation is that the research sample was nearly evenly balanced across the dimension of sex, making this one of few studies to have nearly equal representation between male and female. The current sample enabled the testing of sex, suggesting that being a female involved in dirty work does not strengthen the relationship between realistic job preview and work role performance during newcomers' socialization.

Practical Implications

Training new workers only to see them leave can be costly to the organization (Tziner & Birati, 1996). Lopina et al. (2012) suggests that access to job information is the most important turnover predictor in dirty work. It may be difficult for organizations to control how much access to job information a newcomer has prior applying for a job. However, dirty work organizations may be able to design realistic job preview programs that will lead to newcomer's self-selection where ex-post turnover is mitigated, and training efforts can be focused on the newcomers with the highest probability of staying in the job.

Similarly, Ashforth et al. (2017) suggest that managers help newcomers to adjust to dirty work. The results of this dissertation suggest that managers' positive framing tactics support the newcomers' socialization leading to reduced turnover and increased performance. For organizations that compete for the best talent while hiring managers, offering an increased bonus based on the managers' newcomer rating may improve the ways that managers deliver positive framing tactics in dirty work. This may enhance organizational outcomes for both managers and newcomers in dirty work. Additionally, other organization such as general manufacturing, law and accounting firms hiring large groups at once may benefit by creating programs to help newcomers to socialize under adverse conditions.

The next section explains the limitations of this study.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Several limitations of the study need to be acknowledged. First, the sample consisted of newcomers of one slaughterhouse only. Future research should examine a

sample that covers different locations, and possibly, from different organizations. This is because the dirty work organization context is important regarding stigma management techniques.

Second, future research should examine family influence in more depth. The present research found no evidence that family members working at the same dirty work facility positively influenced newcomers. However, extant research on funeral direction students suggests that family members in dirty work are likely to support newcomers' socialization (Cahill, 1999a, 1999b). Funeral direction is a highly paid job. Thus, future research should explore other dirty work occupations to understand if the family interaction only happens on high paid jobs. Lastly, this study's family measure was not an established one. The question used to determine family influence was: "Do you currently have (or have you had in the past) a family member working for this company?". Therefore, we were not able to determine the level of dirtiness the family member was exposed to. Also, we do not know if there were newcomers who had family members working a dirty job, but in a different company. Future research may utilize another way of measuring family influence such as asking how often the family discusses work at home, and how emotionally supported by family the newcomer feels. Additionally, it may be interesting to analyze demographic variables such as ethnicity and age as predictors to understand what demographic groups dirty work manufacturers should target to improve their business outcomes.

The third limitation of this study is the way turnover was measured. The research model of this dissertation examined the dependent variable turnover at one point in time. This technique does not offer insight into what happened to the newcomers the week

before they decide to leave the job. Future research should analyze dirty work turnover through survival analysis to offer a different approach regarding the effectivity of organizational interventions ant the impact on survival curves.

In summary, extending the results of this study by examining a broader sample and utilizing survival analysis may provide more insights regarding the newcomers socialization process in dirty work. This dissertation attempted to answer the call of how realistic job previews in dirty work influence organizational outcomes. Future research should continue to explore dirty work through interactionist models including both contextual and demographic variables.

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APPENDIX A: Informed Consent Form

I, _____, agree to participate in a research study conducted by Pilgrim. I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information that can be identified as mine returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for this study is to understand how new employees adapt to their jobs. The study consists of several phases, and weekly surveys will be administered. Each survey will take no longer than 5 minutes to complete. The anticipated total duration of participation is no longer than 3 months. If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be answer questions about my socialization experiences, emotions, personality traits, and work abilities.

The benefits for me are that I will be prompted to think about important aspects of my job and myself. Participation will help me identify what I want in my job, and how I am progressing during the first few months. The company also hopes to learn more about how new employees benefit from socialization efforts. This research will yield useful information that will enable the company to better understand how to help employees become proficient in their jobs during the first few months of employment.

No psychological, social, legal, economic, or physical risk, discomfort, stress, or harm is expected from my participation in this study. Only the plant manager and an outside consultant will have access to my responses.

No individually-identifiable information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others without my written permission. Responses will be tracked using a unique participant identification code. Once my materials are received by the plant manager, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed.

Only those who are 18 years of age or older can participate in this study. If you are not 18 please do not participate in this study.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project. If you have any future questions, please contact Adriana Ruiz, Plant Manager - Marshville.

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Signature	Date

APPENDIX B: T0 Survey

Please provide the last 4 digits of your Social Security number. We will use this information to ensure confidentiality & track your responses throughout the study.

Last 4 digits of your Social Security number: __ __ __ __

Previous work experience in a similar job (i.e., animal processing plant) _____ years _____ months

Section 1: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then circle the appropriate answer next to that word. Indicate the extent you have felt this way <u>during the past few months</u>.

	Not at All	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
Scared	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at All	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Interested	1	2	3	4	5
Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5
Determined	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5

Section 2: Here are a number of statements that may or may not apply to you. Please circle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree with that statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree		Agree	Strongly Agree
I knew what the good points and bad points of this job were when I was hired.	1	2	3	4	5
I had a clear understanding of what this job entailed before I accepted it.	1	2	3	4	5
The information concerning the content (i.e., duties and responsibilities) of my job was accurate and complete.	1	2	3	4	5
The information concerning the working conditions of my job was accurate and complete.	1	2	3	4	5
The information concerning the qualifications needed (i.e., skills, knowledge, experience) for my job was accurate and complete.	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to rotate through different positions within the plant.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C: T1 Survey

Please provide the last 4 digits of your Social Security number. We will use this information to ensure confidentiality & track your responses throughout the study.

Last 4 digits of your Social Security number: __ __ __ __

Do you currently have (or have you had in the past) a family member working for Pilgrims? Please circle one:
Yes No

Section 1: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then circle the appropriate answer next to that word. Indicate the extent you have felt this way <u>during the past few months</u>.

	Not at All	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
Scared	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at All	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Interested	1	2	3	4	5
Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5
Determined	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5

Section 2: Please rate the extent to which <u>your supervisor</u> engaged in the following behaviors <u>last week</u> by circling a number next to each statement:

	Very Little	A Little	Somewhat	Much	A Great Deal
Tried to help you see difficult situations as opportunities, not threats	1	2	3	4	5
Tried to help you look on the bright side of things	1	2	3	4	5
Tried to help you see your situation as a challenge rather than a problem	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Please circle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree with that statement:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree		Agree	Strongly Agree
Last week, I carried out the core parts of my job well	1	2	3	4	5
Last week, I completed my core tasks well using standard procedures	1	2	3	4	5
Last week, I ensured my tasks were completed properly	1	2	3	4	5

APENDIX D: Work Area – Dirtiness Experts Survey

Name	
Title	
Years of experience managing meat processing facilities	

Read the following paragraph:

Dirty work refers to job activities and professions that are likely to be ***perceived as disgusting or degrading*** *(e.g., slaughtering animals)* ***. Taint is defined as the association with something undesirable or reprehensible*** *. Dirty work is defined as tasks that are "physically, socially, or morally"* ***tainted*** *. For instance, physical taint takes place when the occupation involves garbage, death, etc., or is performed in a situation considered putrid or dangerous; social taint takes place where the occupation involves people or groups that are considered stigmatized, or where the worker has a servile relation to others; moral taint takes place where an occupation is usually seen as sinful or of arguable morality, or where the worker seems to utilize mechanisms that are deceptive, invasive, combative and/or uncivil.*

Rate the following areas in terms of how physically, socially, and/or morally tainted and/or stigmatized they are:

Description	No tainted at all	Slightly tainted	Moderately tainted	Tainted	Extremely Tainted
Live Receiving					
Evisceration					
Paws Processing					
Rehang (after chiller)					
Cone Deboning					
Wing Processing (three piece)					
Stack Off					
Evis Reprocessing					
Cut-up (Saw)					
Shipping					
Breast Trim & Portioning					
Tenderloins (deboning tenderloins)					
Bone Detection (Xray)					
Whole Leg Debone (Dark meat)					
Statistical Process Control (Kill Plant)					
Thigh Debone (Dark Meat)					
Breast Packing					
Refrigeration Maintenance					

APENDIX E: Table 2: Dirty Work Research Findings within Academic Literature

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
Haas	1972	Qualitative N=1	Binging: Educational control among high steel ironworkers	American Behavioral Scientist	Dirty work newcomers (iron workers)	Socialization, training	He describes a social device used to train iron workers apprentices called "binging". It is used to communicate expectations, test self-control and trustworthiness. It communicates any work related information. "Binging" equals what exam and grades will be in a school setting.
Meara	1974	Qualitative N=1	Honor in dirty work: The case of American meat cutters and Turkish butchers	Sociology of Work and Occupations	Dirty work	Honor	Butchers find honor in ther job. They feel themselves as people who can take the dirty work and do it. This is a men world, protected by custom and women must be excluded. Honor is a property of men, not women.
Hong & Duff	1977	Qualitative N=70	Becoming a taxi-dancer	Sociology of Work and Occupations	New taxi dancers	Neutralization techniques	Learning of justification plays a significant role in the socialization process. The techniques to neutralize stigma decrease turnover. Management will provide encouragement, and this is the frist step for the socialization process leading to retention.
Palmer, E.	1978	Qualitative N=17	Dog catchers: A descriptive study	Qualitative Sociology	Dirty work occupation	Performance	Dog catchers devised mechanisms to "get back" at the public by showing they are doing the dirty work. These behaviors represent defense mechanisms like those found in other low status occupations.
Levi	1981	Qualitative N=1	Becoming a hit man: Neutralization in a very deviant career	Urban Life	Deviant occupation (Hit man)	Reframing dirty/deviant occupations	They found deviant occupations go through a reframing process to neutralize stigma. Their reframing process includes six steps: encountering a frame-break, undergoing negative experience, being willing to try again, reframing the experience, and finally, having a future through routine experiences.
Davis	1984	Qualitative N=27	Good people doing dirty work: A study of social isolation	Symbolic Interaction	Dirty work occupation (bail bondsmen)	Social isolation	Social categories such as bail bondsmen are stigmatized. Some of them attempt to be defined as respectable. They get socially isolated. Three elements make the isolation possible: rejection from society, actor believes he/she is unjustly excluded from society, an attitude towards other stigmatized individuals that sees them as rejected.
Ackroyd & Crowdy	1990	Qualitative N=1	Can culture be managed? Working with "raw" material: The case of the English slaughtermen	Personnel Review	Dirty work occupation (slaughtermen)	Culture	Work with meat tends to be dirty. The killing of "innocent" animals evokes deep moral revulsion in a carnivore world, that also loves animals. Work performance leads to "harassments" where younger new hires will be subject to extreme pressure by more experienced men.
Arluke	1991	Qualitative N=12	Going into the closet with science: Information control among animal experimenters	Journal of Contemporary Ethnography	Dirty work newcomers (animal research)	Perceived taint	Examines how newcomers in a dirty work occupation (animal research lab) believe they respond to this belief. They also mention the stigma white collar markers could face due to a change in ethical implications such as nuclear engineers, abortion physicians, environmental damaging industries. This kind of markers are used as "information control"
Thompson	1991	Qualitative N=19	Handling the stigma of handling the dead: Morticians and funeral directors	Deviant Behavior	Dirty work occupation (morticians)	Stigma management techniques	Morticians and funeral directors are highly stigmatized occupations. Therefore, they work constantly at stigma reduction. One of their strategies is redefining their work avoiding all language that reminds their customer of death, the body, and retail sales. They practice role distance and enjoy their high socioeconomic status rather than lament their occupational prestige.
Thompson & Hared	1992	Qualitative N=67	Topless dancers: Managing stigma in a deviant occupation	Deviant Behavior	Dirty work occupation (topless dancers)	Stigma management techniques	Topless dancing carries social stigma. So much of a person's social and personal identity is related to his/her occupation. There are a variety of techniques to reduce stigma: dividing the social world (only some people knew about their occupation), neutralization (denial of injury), and appeal to higher loyalties.
Bourassa & Ashforth	1998	Qualitative N=1	You are about to party Defiant style	Journal of Contemporary Ethnography	Dirty work newcomers (sailor)	Newcomers socialization techniques	Newcomers socialization process started by being indoctrinated by more experienced workers. This facilitated identification. However, when management broke the psychological contract, this same socialization process convert from identification to disidentification.

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
Ashforth & Kreiner	1999	Literature Review	How can you do it? Dirty work and the challenge of constructing a positive identity	Academy of Management Review	Salience of social perception of dirtiness	Work role identification	Turnover is an inhibitor to create a positive culture in dirty work occupations. It will inhibit group formation specially in minimal barriers to entry. Presents two techniques for reframing dirty work: neutralizing and infusing.
Cahill	1999	Qualitative N=28	Emotional capital and professional socialization: The case of mortuary science students (and me)	Social Psychology Quarterly	Dirty work (funeral director students)	Emotional capital	Over childhood individuals acquire an emotional disposition system, which generates emotional perceptions, expressions, reactions, emotional management etc. This is what the author calls emotional capital. On this case the author find that funeral director students have been exposed to the activity for a long time in their personal lives through emotional connections such as parents, friends, wives/husbands, etc. Emotional capital supports occupational socialization.
Cahill	1999	Qualitative N=25	The boundaries of professionalization: The case of North American funeral direction	Symbolic Interaction	Dirty work students (morticians)	Socialization	Focuses on studying how funeral director students are stigmatized, and how they cope with it through socialization tactics. They see themselves on a "higher" status vs other occupation.
Frommer & Arluke	1999	Qualitative N=1	Loving them to death: Blame-displacing strategies of animal shelter workers and surrenderers	Society & Animals	Dirty work (animal shelter)	Coping strategies	Workers and surrenders used blame displacement as a coping strategy or mechanism for dealing with their guilt over the possibility of euthanasia. The blame management process does not rely on an organizational chain of command, where shelter workers did not blame their supervisors, and surrenders had no organization to blame.
Guerrier & Adib	2003	Qualittive N=15	Work at leisure and leisure at work: A study of the emotional labour of tour reps	Human Relations	Dirty work (tour reps)	Emotional labor	Tour representatives work in an environment with blurred lines between work & leisure. They argue that they actively seek spaces where they can buy a lifestyle they see as reflecting their authentic selves. Therefore, this enables them to take the negative part of the job and finally becoming a disciplined worker.
Thompson et al.	2003	Qualitative N=28	Managing the stigma of topless dancing: A decade later	Deviant Behavior	Dirty work occupation (topless dancers)	Stigma management techniques	Ten years later the authors found that topless dancing is still a stigmatized deviant occupation. The dancers still managed the stigma by dividing their social worlds and using traditional neutralization techniques in order to rationalize their deviant behavior. This time the authors found something different from the previous study: dancer relied on cognitive and emotive dissonance to reduce the emotional strain and to embrace their job as a topless dancer and to distance themselves from it as needed.
Tracy	2004	Qualitative N=109	The construction of correctional officers: Layers of emotionality behind bars	Qualitative Inquiry	Organizational emotional reframing tactics	Dirty work	Correctional officers are a stigmatized employee group and the organization encourages emotional constructions such as withdrawal, paranoia, detachment, and a u-them mentality. Detachment: expected to act normal.
Reeve et al.	2004	Quantitative N=38	Employee reactions and adjustment to euthanasia related work	Journal of Applied Animal Welfare Science	Dirty work (animal shelter)	Turrning points events	There are turning points events that inflience dirty worker positive or negative outcomes. This research revealed 10 turning points that have implications for the organization and employees. Their model thinks of animal welfare, employee well-being and organizational health to be interconnected in a loop. They analized animal shelter employees with more than two years tenure.
Bolton	2005	Qualitative N=45	Women's work, dirty work: The gynecology nurse as "other"	Gender, Work & Organization	Gender	Socialization in nursing	Nursing is considered a dirty job. Nurses believe women should do gynecology tasks, meaning women doing dirty women jobs. Explains the coping strategies they follow bad experiences such as miscarriages.
Case	2005	Qualitative essay	Pets or meat	Chi.-Kent L. Rev.	Emotional labor	Commodification of affection	Rabbits or bunnies, pets or meat for sale. It is an interesting way of reframing the question. Potential commodification with affection is common in human relation with animals. "For example, a slaughter worker will be expected to act calm while an animal is bleeding to death".

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
Rogelberg et al.	2007	Quantitative N=305	What shelters can do about euthanasia-related stress: An examination of recommendations from those on the front line	Journal of Applied Animal Welfare Science	Dirty work occupation (Animal shelter)	Employee well-being tactics	Euthanasia is a moral stressor. The animal shelter employees are an at-risk population potentially suffering from high blood pressure, ulcers, unresolved grief, depression, substance abuse and suicide. The authors gathered recommendations from euthanasia related employees to improve well-being and support on managing the taint such as: promoting understanding and support between euthanasia technicians and no euthanasia employees, availability of professional scheduled counseling.
Dillard	2008	Qualitative essay	A slaughterhouse nightmare: Psychological harm suffered by slaughterhouse employees and the possibility of redress through legal reform	Geo. J. on Poverty L. & Pol'y	Dirty work (slaughterhouses)	Worker psychological harm	The author mentioned several examples of workers being psychologically affected by their activities slaughtering chickens, heifers or pigs, and does a review of several meat companies and government associations and their position towards animal welfare. She concludes the mental and emotional harm suffered by slaughterhouse workers has been ignored by the legal system in order to avoid any type of worker compensation.
Margolis & Molinsky	2008	Qualitative N=111	Navigating the bind od necessary evils: Psychological engagement and the production of interpersonally sensitive behavior	Academy of Management Journal	Occupation	Individual responses/strategies about doing necessary evils	Individuals doing necessary evil activities navigate them in three ways: engaging or disengaging from the experience, modifying interpersonal sensitive treatment of victim's interaction, expressing interpersonal sensitivity through their personalization of behavior.
Paetzold et al.	2008	Literature Review	A new look at stigmatization in and of organizations	Academy of Management Review	Stigma	Organizational harm & benefits	The authors discuss the role of stigma as a natural component of sensemaking in organization settings. They highlight the role of stigmatization forming organizational identity and the potential stigmatization for the individual. Dirty work is often an invisible stigma to those outside the work setting, it is important how management helps employees to cope with it and avoid emotional and physical cost for the organization.
Williams	2008	Qualitative essay	Affected ignorance and animal suffering: Why our failure to debate factory farming puts us at moral risk	Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics	Animal factory farming	Affected ignorance	Affected ignorance is the phenomenon of people choosing not to investigate practices in which they participate and could be immoral. The lack of public debate about factory farming is due, in part, due to affected ignorance.
Baran et al.	2009	Quantitative N=505	Euthanasia-related strain and coping strategies in animal shelter employees	Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association	Dirty work occupation (animal shelter employees)	Coping strategies	Euthanizing animals is a major stressor, authors identified eight recommended coping strategies such as emotional regulation, separation, get-help, withdrawal, self-talk, seek long-term, and competence skills.
Fitzgerald et al.	2009	Quantitative N=4,646	Slaughterhouses and increased crime rates: An empirical analysis of the spillover from "The Jungle" into the surrounding community	Organization & Environment	Communities with slaughterhouse workers	Crime rates	Slaughterhouse employment is a significant predictor of both arrest and report rate scales while controlling for other variables such as unemployment, immigration, number of young males, poverty, etc. The more slaughterhouse employees in the community, the higher the crimes committed such as violent offenses, rape and sexual assaults.
Lopina et al.	2012	Quantitative N=102	Turnover in dirty work occupations: A focus on pre-entry individual characteristics	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology	Job pre-knowledge, negative affect, maladaptive coping strategies	Turnover	Using conservation of resources and social identity theories they conclude that access to job information is the most important turnover predictor. The more details about the job individuals know prior, the less likely they will experience the entry shock of a negative social backlash.
Baran et al.	2012	Quantitative N=449	Shouldering a silent burden: The toll of dirty tasks	Human Relations	Level of dirty work involvement (animal shelter)	Wok satisfaction, job involvement, reluctance to discuss with with outsiders	They compared groups in shelters. People with more/less involvement in dirty work tasks. The dirtier work they do, the more stressed and dissatisfied they are. Dirty work involvement was correlated with lower job performance, increased absenteeism and turnover. Measure normalization tactics to explicate how reframing facilitates job involvement.

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
Rogelberg et al.	2007	Quantitative N=305	What shelters can do about euthanasia-related stress: An examination of recommendations from those on the front line	Journal of Applied Animal Welfare Science	Dirty work occupation (Animal shelter)	Employee well-being tactics	Euthanasia is a moral stressor. The animal shelter employees are an at-risk population potentially suffering from high blood pressure, ulcers, unresolved grief, depression, substance abuse and suicide. The authors gathered recommendations from euthanasia related employees to improve well-being and support on managing the taint such as: promoting understanding and support between euthanasia technicians and no euthanasia employees, availability of professional scheduled counseling.
Dillard	2008	Qualitative essay	A slaughterhouse nightmare: Psychological harm suffered by slaughterhouse employees and the possibility of redress through legal reform	Geo. J. on Poverty L. & Pol'y	Dirty work (slaughterhouses)	Worker psychological harm	The author mentioned several examples of workers being psychologically affected by their activities slaughtering chickens, heifers or pigs, and does a review of several meat companies and government associations and their position towards animal welfare. She concludes the mental and emotional harm suffered by slaughterhouse workers has been ignored by the legal system in order to avoid any type of worker compensation.
Margolis & Molinsky	2008	Qualitative N=111	Navigating the bind od necessary evils: Psychological engagement and the production of interpersonally sensitive behavior	Academy of Management Journal	Occupation	Individual responses/strategies about doing necessary evils	Individuals doing necessary evil activities navigate them in three ways: engaging or disengaging from the experience, modifying interpersonal sensitive treatment of victim's interaction, expressing interpersonal sensitivity through their personalization of behavior.
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Lopina et al.	2012	Quantitative N=102	Turnover in dirty work occupations: A focus on pre-entry individual characteristics	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology	Job pre-knowledge, negative affect, maladaptive coping strategies	Turnover	Using conservation of resources and social identity theories they conclude that access to job information is the most important turnover predictor. The more details about the job individuals know prior, the less likely they will experience the entry shock of a negative social backlash.
Baran et al.	2012	Quantitative N=449	Shouldering a silent burden: The toll of dirty tasks	Human Relations	Level of dirty work involvement (animal shelter)	Wok satisfaction, job involvement, reluctance to discuss with with outsiders	They compared groups in shelters. People with more/less involvement in dirty work tasks. The dirtier work they do, the more stressed and dissatisfied they are. Dirty work involvement was correlated with lower job performance, increased absenteeism and turnover. Measure normalization tactics to explicate how reframing facilitates job involvement.

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
As	2012	Quantitative N=164	Psychological symptom profile of butchers working in slaughterhouse and retail meat packing business: A comparative study	Kafkas Üniversitesi Veteriner Fakültesi Dergisi	Dirty work occupation (butchers)	Psychological problems	Butchers have more psychological problems than any other occupation. On this case slaughterhouse butcher, market butchers, and office workers were compared under the symptom check list measuring: somatization, depression, anxiety, anger-hostility, obsessive-compulsiveness, etc. The group with the highest psychological problems were the slaughterhouse butchers, followed by the market butcher, and far behind them the office workers group.
Lai et al.	2013	Quantitative N=152	Defining who you are not: The roles of moral dirtiness and occupational and organizational disidentification in affecting casino employee turnover intention	Journal of Business Research	Dirty work (casino dealers)	Perceive moral dirtiness Intention to quit	The authors analyzed the relationship between occupational and organizational disidentification between perceived moral dirtiness and intention to quit. It was found that the dirtier the job perception, the higher the levels of occupational and organizational disidentification. This high level showed that both types of disidentification are positively related to turnover intentions. Occupational status weakens the relationship between disidentifications and turnover intentions, and perceived organizational support alleviates organizational disidentification and impacts positively the intention to quit.
Kamise, Yamiko	2013	Quantitative N=92	Occupational stigma and coping strategies of women engaged in the commercial sex industry: A study on the perception of "Kyaba-Cula Hostesses" in Japan	Sex Roles	Dirty work occupation (Japanese female hostess)	Stigma awareness	Hostess are aware of the stigma their occupation brings more so than other occupations in Japan.
Mavin & Grandy	2013	Qualitative N=21	Doing gender well and differently in dirty work: the case of exotic dancing	Gender, Work & Organization	Dirty work occupation (Female exotic dancers)	Constructing positive identity through gender	They explore the intersection of doing gender and positive identity construction in stigmatized dirty work, where constructing a positive identity is challenging. In dirty stigmatized work doing gender well may not be enough to re-position the work as good work.
Ashforth et al.	2014	Literature Review	Contextualizing dirty work: The neglected role of cultural, historical, and demographic context	Journal of Management & Organization	Dirty work	Historical, cultural and demographic context	Historical: Dirty work is more stigmatized in developed countries that in underdeveloped countries (e.g. France vs Cuba). Cultural: Masculinity and femininity in dirty work is different. Masculinity appeals to be the default preference. Demographics: Gender in stigmatized work may be rendered less visible when a member of the "correct" gender and a "correct" socioeconomic status performs the task (e.g. nurses must be females). This is the reinforcement of stereotypes.
Ashforth et al.	2014	Literature Review	Dirty work and dirtier work: Differences in countering physical, social, and moral stigma	Management and Organization Review	Dirty work	Physical, social and moral stigma	Provide a diagram with examples of dirty work occupations, where "factory farm workers" carry a physical and moral stigma. Physically stigmatized occupations tend to be strongly associated with masculinity than socially and morally stigmatized occupations. Morally stigmatized occupations tend to be more associated with the ideology of providing a critical service than physically stigmatized occupations.
Johnston & Hodge	2014	Qualitative N=9	'Dirt, death and danger? I don't recall any adverse reaction...': Masculinity and the taint management of hospital private security work	Gender, Work & Organization	Dirty work occupation (hospital security guards)	Taint management	Hospital security officers draw on discourses of masculinity to navigate the dirty work. They manage and deflect taint by emphasizing their resiliency, emotional detachment and enthusiasm towards morbid, disturbing, and dangerous tasks. If they refuse these tactics, they will be subject to gender harassment from other guards.
Simpson et al.	2014	Qualitative N=26	Sacrifice and distinction in dirty work: Men's construction of meaning in the butcher trade	Work, employment and society	Dirty work occupation (butchers)	Work based meaning	The authors identify three work-based meanings for butchers: orthodoxy of work, acceptance and choice and physicality, dirty and loss. They argue that this working class created a "habitus" that crystallizes past, present and future. They also focused on the masculinity of "doing" on this working class.

Source	Year	Sample	Article	Journal	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Key Findings
Filteau	2015	Qualitative N=22	Go back to Texas, gas bastards! How a newcomer population of itinerant energy workers manage dirty work stigma in the Marcellus shale region	Society & Natural Resources	Dirty work occupation (oil and gas workers)	Positive work-related identity Reframing tactics	Temporary dirty work employees us several protective techniques to manage the stigma. Through reframing, recalibrating, and refocusing this stigma onto personal and environmental safety, these temporary newcomer workers reinforce the self-identity they prefer. Also, they use a social weighting technique that allows them to condemn the community who is stigmatizing them.
Rivera	2015	Qualitative N=85	Emotional taint: Making sense of emotional dirty work at the US Border Patrol	Management Communication Quarterly	Dirty work Emotional labor (Border patrol officers)	Taint management	The author studies emotional labor and dirty work taint in a group of border patrol officers. She mentions how masculinity is important to them in order to show strength and emotions control, and how they need to manage taint from immigration supporters, and anti-immigration groups as well. By engaging emotion strategically employees engage in emotional taint management.
Baran et al.	2016	Quantitative N=10,605	Routinized killing of animals: Going beyond dirty work and prestige to understand the well-being of slaughterhouse workers	Organization	Slaughterhouse worker	Worker well-being	Slaughterhouse workers experience lower physical and psychological well-being along with increased incidences of negative coping behavior. This happens due to the routinized killing of animals
Mikolon et al	2016	Quantitative N=152	Seeing you seeing me: Stereotypes and the stigma magnification effect	Journal of Applied Psychology	Customer stigmatization	Stigma within frontline workers interactions	Stigma magnification effect interaction between frontline workers stereotypes and customers stereotypes. Customer-employee interactions stigma are coproduced by the stigma bearer and perceiver.
Bosmans et al.	2016	Qualitative N=43	Dirty work, dirty worker? Stigmatization and coping strategies among domestic workers	Journal of Vocational Behavior	Dirty work occupation (domestic workers)	Coping strategies	Domestic work is a dirty work. Coping strategies are critical. There are maladaptive and adapting coping strategies that contribute to a negative or more positive sense of self. They authors discussed four coping strategies categories: confronting or countering perceptions and behaviors, occupational ideologies, social weighting and defensive tactics.
Meldgaard	2016	Qualitative N=30	Rehabilitative bodywork: cleaning up the dirty work of homecare	Sociology of Health & Illness	Dirty work (elderly people care takers)	Reframing tactics	Care workers' rehabilitative efforts led to distanced passive bodywork and more focused on training citizens to take care of themselves. However, while rehabilitation efforts serve as taint management, they also bring negative consequences in terms of responsibility approaches to elderly citizens.
Ashforth et al.	2017	Qualitative N=54	Congruence work in stigmatized occupations: A managerial lens on employee fir with dirty work	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Managers tactics in dirty work	Congruence work	Studies how managers help dirty work workers (new comers) with their job and to manage stigma. Behaviors, sensemaking, sensegiving, recruitment and selection activities are analyzed. They study the worker fir once he/she is on the job.
Schabram & Maitlis	2017	Qualitative N=50	Negotiating the challenges of a calling: Emotion and enacted sensemaking in animal shelter work	Academy of Management Journal	Calling	Sensemaking	They created a three parts model for animal shelter workers responding to a "calling", whether enacted sensemaking was present or not: Identity oriented, contribution oriented and practice oriented. Being physically dirty is also socially and morally tainted, with workers often stigmatized as "dog catchers".
Urasadettan & Burellier	2017	Qualitative N=18	Appropriation process of dirty work: Focus on health executives in a medical services restructuring	Journal of Organizational Change Management	Job type (doctor/nurse)	Appropriation process	Analysis of the appropriation process of dirty work: what are the processes involved when people appropriate the dirty work others attempt to delegate? They study showed that dirty work needs task shifting, normalization, reframing, refocusing and team recognition.