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EXAMINING A MODEL OF ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS (POPS)

ELENA STERGIOPOULOU

A thesis

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Is submitted to the Department of Business and Management

HRM & ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Durham University Business School

2013

Ithaca

‘When you start on your journey to Ithaca,

Then pray that the road is long,

Full of adventure, full of knowledge,

Do not fear the Lestrygonians

The Cyclopes and the angry Poseidon

You will never meet such as these on your path,

If yours thoughts remain lofty, if a fine

Emotion touches your body and your spirit

You will never meet the Lestrygonians,

The Cyclopes and the fierce Poseidon,

If you do not carry them within your soul,

If your soul does not raise them up before you’

[The selected Poems of *Constantinos Kavafis*, (1863-1933), Vol. II, 2008]

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS **3**

I. DECLARATION 10
II. STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT 10
III. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS 11
IV. ABSTRACT 13

0. 1 INTRODUCTION **15**

CHAPTER 1–*POLITICS* **22**

1.1 Introduction *22*

1. 2 Aristotle's political theory *23*

1. 3 Weber's sociological view of politics *27*

1. 4 Power and control in the study of politics *29*

1. 5 Machiavellianism and politics *34*

1. 6 The role of ethics in understanding politics *35*

CHAPTER 2-*ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS* **42**

2. 1 Introduction *42*

2. 2 Theoretical perspectives in the study of Organizational Politics *42*

2. 3 Conclusions *51*

CHAPTER 3-*PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS* **56**

3. 1 Introduction *56*

3. 2 A brief overview of the theoretical perspectives in the study of POPS *56*

3. 3 Model of perceptions of organizational politics (POPS) *64*

3. 4 POPS and positive outcomes *67*

CHAPTER 4-*THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT* **74**

4. 1 Introduction 74

4. 2 Antecedents of POPS: The introduction and examination of personality traits *76*

4. 2. 1 POPS and Personality-Introduction *81*

4. 2. 2 POPS and Personality-Hypotheses *83*

4. 3 CONSEQUENCES OF POPS 98

4. 3. 1 POPS and turnover intentions 99

4. 3. 2 POPS and Job Performance 101

4. 3. 3 POPS and Innovativeness related behavior 108

4. 3. 4 POPS and Organizational affective commitment 112

4. 5 ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM 114

4. 5. 1 Introduction 114

4. 5. 2 A brief overview of the organizational cynicism theory and research .. 115

4. 5. 3 Organisational cynicism and POPS 122

4. 5. 4 Organizational cynicism and Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) 123

4. 5. 5 Organizational cynicism and innovativeness-related behaviour 126

5. 5. 6 The mediator role of organizational cynicism in POPS-Outcomes relationships 129

4. 6. 1 Introduction 132

4. 6. 2 Previous research on trust 132

4. 6. 3 Measurement issues of trust 139

4. 6. 4 ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND POPS 141

4. 6. 5 Interpersonal trust towards coworkers (Cognition-based and affect-based trust) and POPS 145

4. 6. 6 Interpersonal trust and POPS 148

4. 6. 7 General Organizational outcomes of Trust 151

4. 6. 8 Trust and organizational citizenship behavior (OCBs) 152

4. 6. 9 Trust and turnover intentions 155

4. 6. 10 Trust and Affective commitment 156

4. 6. 11 Trust and innovativeness-related behavior 158

4. 6. 12 The mediating role of trust on POPS-Work outcomes 162

4.7 POLITICAL BEHAVIOR 165

4. 7. 1 Introduction 165

4. 7. 2 Taxonomies, antecedents and consequences of tactics of impression management 172

4. 7. 3 Measures of influence tactics of impression management 178

4. 7. 4 POPS and Political influence behavior 183

4. 7. 5 The effects of political influence behavior on affective commitment and turnover intentions 188

4. 7. 6 The effects of political influence behavior on OCBs and innovativeness-related behaviour 190

4. 7. 7 The mediating role of political influence behavior in the relationship among POPS and outcomes 196

CHAPTER 5-*POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY (PSSE)* 199

5. 1 Introduction 199

5.2 Why do we need political skill? 199

5. 3 A brief overview of political skill research-Antecedents, outcomes, and measures 203

5.4 Self-efficacy 208

5. 5 Self-Efficacy and political skill 213

5. 6 The construct of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) 214

5. 7 The relationship between POPS and political skill self-efficacy 219

5. 8 The effects of Political Skill Self-Efficacy (PSSE) 220

5. 9 Integrating moderators in the study among POPS and outcomes 221

5.10 Understanding POPS through the national culture context 226

5. 10. 1 The national culture 227

5. 10 .2 National culture characteristics in Hellas and POPS research across countries 233

CHAPTER 6- *METHODOLOGY* 241

6. 1 Introduction 241

6. 2 Research Design 242

6. 3 Sample and procedures of the main longitudinal study 247

6. 4 Participants in the main research project 256

6. 5 Participants in the main pilot study of PSSE 259

6. 6 Questionnaire length 261

6. 7 Measures of the main research 261

CHAPTER 7-*POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY SCALE: DEVELOPMENT OF A MEASURE AND VALIDATION STUDIES* 279

7.1 Introduction 279

7.2 Stage One- Item development and scale construction *..... 281*

7.3 Stage Two- Examining the Psychometric properties of the PSSE measure *..... 289*

7.4 ***PSSE PILOT STUDY (1) In English*** *303*
7.5 ***PILOT STUDY in Greek Language*** *308*
7.6 ***PSSE STUDY 2*** *310*
7.7 ***Exploration of dimensionality- Exploratory factor analysis in*** *311*
Study 2 ..... *311*
7.8 ***Convergent and Discriminant Validity-Results*** *323*
7.9 ***Criterion-related validity*** *329*
CHAPTER 8-*ANALYSES AND RESULTS* **334**
8.1 ***Pilot Study of the main longitudinal research*** *334*
8.2 The Innovation-related behavior scale (IRB) *339*
8. 3 ***HYPOTHESES TESTING*** *354*
Mediation analysis *377*
Moderation analysis *391*
CHAPTER 9 *–DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS* **396**
9.1 General conclusions *396*
9. 2 General contributions *406*
9.3 Practical implications *411*
9.4 Limitations *417*
9.5 Future research *422*
9.6 Epilogue **428**
REFERENCES **430**
APPENDICES…….540

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1 *EXAMPLES OF POWER PERSPECTIVES IN THE LITERATURE* 30

TABLE 2 *SOURCES OF POWER USED TO SHAPE THE DYNAMICS OF ORGANIZATIONS* 33

TABLE 3 *DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS* 49

TABLE 4 *ELEMENTS OF TRUST* 136

TABLE 5 *DEFINITIONS OF POLITICAL BEHAVIOR* 169

TABLE 6 *FORMS OF INFLUENCE TACTICS BY YUKL ET AL. (1992)* 182

TABLE 7 *DEFINITIONAL APPROACHES IN THE STUDY OF POLITICAL SKILL* 203

TABLE 8 *PREVIOUS RESEARCHES ON MODERATORS/MEDIATORS IN POPS LITERATURE* 223

TABLE 9 *A SUMMARY OF THE MAIN RESEARCH DESIGN* 255

TABLE 10 *SAMPLE OF MEASURES AND VARIABLE ITEMS AT TIME 1 AND TIME 2* 273

TABLE 11 *DIMENSIONS OF POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY CONSTRUCT* 288

TABLE 12 *SUMMARY OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITIES FOR THE VARIABLES INCLUDED IN PILOT STUDY 1* 302

TABLE 13 *MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS AMONG THE STUDY VARIABLES IN THE PILOT 1(N=26)* 307

TABLE 14 *EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS: FOUR FACTOR SOLUTION IN PSSE STUDY 2* (N=103) 320

TABLE 15 *MODEL FIT FOR THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE PSSE SCALE* 321

TABLE 16 *PSSE MEASUREMENT MODEL WITH PARAMETER ESTIMATES REPORTED BY CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS* 322

TABLE 17 *MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS AMONG THE STUDY VARIABLES OF PILOT STUDY (N=103)* 325

TABLE 18 *REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MEASUREMENT HYPOTHESIS 1 AND 2* 326

TABLE 19 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF MEASUREMENT HYPOTHESIS 4, 5 AND 6* 328

TABLE 20 *RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION IN PREDICTING PROCEDURAL JUSTICE* 330

TABLE 21 *SUMMARY OF THE DISTRIBUTIONAL PROPERTIES AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF THE (PSSE) ACROSS THE STUDIES* 331

TABLE 22 *THE POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY SCALE (PSSE)* 333

TABLE 23 *MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, INTERNAL RELIABILITIES, AND CORRELATIONS OF FOCAL VARIABLES IN THE PILOT OF THE MAIN SURVEY (N=31)* 336

TABLE 24 *DIMENSIONS AND ITEMS OF THE INNOVATIVENESS RELATED BEHAVIOR (IRB) SCALE* 344

TABLE 25 *SUMMARY OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR THE INNOVATIVENESS RELATED SCALE IN THE MAIN STUDY (N=215)* 347

TABLE 26 *CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS: THE COMPONENTS OF INNOVATIVENESS RELATED BEHAVIOUR SCALE (IRB)* 348

TABLE 27 *MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS FOR STUDY TIME 1 & TIME 2* 351

TABLE 28 *RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS 1A-E* 355

TABLE 29 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 2A & 2E* 357

TABLE 30 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES 2B-D* 358

TABLE 31 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 3* 359

TABLE 32 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 4A, 4B, AND 4C* 361

TABLE 33 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 6A-6B* 362

TABLE 34 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 7A-C* 364

TABLE 35 ***REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 8A-C*** 365

TABLE 36 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 9 AND HYPOTHESIS 11* 366

TABLE 37 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF INTERPERSONAL TRUST HYPOTHESIS 10, AND HYPOTHESIS 12* 368

TABLE 38 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 14* 370

TABLE 39 *REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 15, AND 16* 372

TABLE 40 *REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 17A-C* 373

TABLE 41 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 19* 374

TABLE 42 *REGRESSION RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 20 AND 21* 376

TABLE 43 *REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MEDIATION OF HYPOTHESIS 5A-B* 379

TABLE 44 *REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MEDIATION OF HYPOTHESIS 5C* 380

TABLE 45 *RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION FOR THE HYPOTHESIS 13A-C* 384

TABLE 46 *RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION FOR THE HYPOTHESIS 13D-E* 385

TABLE 47 *RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION FOR THE HYPOTHESIS 13D-E* 386

TABLE 48 *RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION FOR THE HYPOTHESIS 13D-E* 387

TABLE 49 *RESULTS FOR MEDIATING EFFECTS OF HYPOTHESIS 18A-B*.....390

TABLE 50 *HIERARCHICAL MODERATED REGRESSION RESULTS – HYPOTHESES 22 A-B-C*.....394

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1*THE HYPOTHESIZED MODEL OF EXAMINATION*.…….. 75

FIGURE 2 *ANTECEDENTS OF POPS*.…….. 78

FIGURE 3 *ATTITUDINAL DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM*.…….. 118

FIGURE 4 ***GRAPH DEPICTING PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS FOR THE STUDY AT TWO LEVELS*****……..** 244

FIGURE 5 *MODEL OF RESEARCH DESIGN AND TIMELINE OF RESEARCH STUDY*.…….. 246

FIGURE 6 *A SUMMARY OF THE EXPLORATION OF PSSE CONCEPT AND OTHER VARIABLES*.…….. 299

FIGURE 7 *SCREE PLOT FOR PSSE MEASURE (N=103)*.…….. 313

FIGURE 8 *STANDARDIZED STRUCTURAL COEFFICIENTS FOR FOUR DIMENSIONS OF PSSE*.…….. 318

FIGURE 9*THE SCREE PLOT OF THE INNOVATIVENESS SCALE IN THE STUDY (N=215)*.. 346

FIGURE 10 *POPS X PSSE INTERACTION ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS*.…….. 395

I. DECLARATION

The thesis I have presented for examination at Durham University Business School is my own work and where it is the work of others I have clearly indicated that.

I declare that material in the thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree in this or any other institution.

I certify that my thesis consists of 89,265 words.

II. STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author.

Any quotation from and information derived from it should be acknowledged. No parts of the study should be published without my prior written consent and the thesis may not be reproduced without my prior written consent.

III. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere thanks, first of all, to my supervisor Professor Nikos Bozionelos for his guidance who made provisions with a high level of professionalism on this research and writing effort. Many thanks for his full support and his constructive criticism while I synthesized the theoretical components and developed the research design of my thesis. Although it had been difficult in the early stages to understand his vision concerning my PhD, now it is easy to realize that it was his method to instill the freedom to carry out my research which added a further meaning to it.

I am also grateful to Pr. Redman for his general contributions to my learning and his valuable help throughout the revision of this thesis, Dr. Graham and Dr. Leach for their very helpful comments on previous version of my research, and Pr. Lioukas for his untiring assistance and guidance whilst studying for my PhD. Further, I wish to express my special thanks to Pr. Spanos for the advice kindly offered to me, as well as precious time spent on discussions concerning the statistical analysis. I particularly am indebted to Pr. Donoghue for helping me with my practical research problems and lending his assistance on the spot at the most critical moment of my PhD.

Additionally, I owe gratitude to the members of the organizations such as the employees, who took part in the surveys and spent their time in sharing their views with me. Particularly, I would like to acknowledge the help provided by managers of these institutions and the contact person where the main research was conducted.

Many people would agree that a PhD is a long, lonely and emotional journey. Therefore, it seems appropriate to thank my parents for their emotional support and encouragement during my stay in England. Last but not least, without my father's financial support, this dream could not be a reality!

It is difficult to express my deep gratitude in a few words for the inconspicuous supporters of this attempt, friends whose prayers have helped me tackle serious obstacles. Finally, to all, a thanks signed with the power of the 'eternal politics'.

IV. ABSTRACT

Perceptions of organizational politics (POPS) have received significant attention in the literature and scholars have devoted great efforts to explore this phenomenon. Although they have recognized organizations as inherently political arenas relatively little is known about the antecedents as well as the consequences of POPS on employees and their organizations. This thesis draws on social exchange framework to describe the relationships among POPS and individual and organizational outcomes namely affective commitment, turnover intentions, organisational citizenship behaviors, and innovativeness related behavior. However, what drives employees to engage in POPS? It answers this fundamental question by examining the role of personality in the prediction of POPS. Furthermore, it explores how the mediating variables (organizational cynicism, political influence behavior, and trust) affect these relationships.

A two wave study addresses these questions over a six-month period. In addition this study introduces the political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) construct and investigates its moderating impact on POPS-outcomes relationships. I developed and validated a scale of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) to measure the proposed construct using three independently samples. Findings indicated that personality trait of neuroticism predicts POPS (T1) while POPS (T1) found to have positive significant relationship with organizational cynicism. I also found evidence that POPS (Time 1) has an impact on turnover intentions (Time 2) and affective commitment (Time 2). Specifically, increased perceptions of politics were associated to decreased affective commitment and increased turnover intentions. In addition, no support found for the mediating

role of organisational cynicism, interpersonal trust and political influence behavior in the relationships among POPs (T1) and organizational outcomes (T2). Further, results partially supported the mediating role of organisational trust (T2) in the relationships between POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2), as well as POPS (T1) and affective commitment (T2). Results indicate also the moderating role of PSSE (T2) in the relationship among POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2). Practical implications of the findings and directions for future research are also addressed.

0. 1 INTRODUCTION

During the past few decades scholars and practitioners have recognized the existence and importance of organizational politics. Most managers understand the necessity of politics in the context of life within the organisations and, indeed, employees' work (Buchanan, 2008) is often contingent on previous specific organisational political-cues. These indicators often result in questions such as 'Is my organisation a political arena?', 'How do individuals cope with the demands of politics?'', 'Should I engage in the political dynamics of workplace and gain from it?''. These questions are fundamental issues in the formation of organisational politics.

Although an unspoken component of corporate social fabric, its impact can be manifested on both the individual and work. Numerous studies dedicated to organizational politics have viewed them as an epidemic phenomenon (Vigoda, 2000) and have widely acknowledged organisations as political in nature (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2010; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). To address this issue, however, research on organisational politics has increasingly focused on the employees' perceptions of the organisational politics (POPS), suggesting that the perceptions are more important and meaningful than the actual political behaviors *per se* (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Overall, organisational researchers argued that the specific theme of perceptions of organisational politics (POPS) is one of the most prominent studied factors in the literature which has received both conceptual and empirical attention. Nevertheless, despite the existing

efforts this field remains both essential and under-researched (Heath and Sitkin, 2001).

In addition, researchers have investigated perceptions of organisational politics in organisational contexts and findings suggest that the occurrence of POPS has largely adverse effects on employees' and their organisations (Gandz and Murray, 1980). For example, POPS is linked to various outcomes including higher stress and turnover, lower job satisfaction and lower worker and organisational productivity (Miller et al., 2008; Ferris et al. 1989, 2002; Kacmar and Baron, 1999). It was also found that such a political working environment may result in psychological strain, decline of morale and disequilibrium in the exchange relationship, all of which damage motives of performance (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009).

However, previous findings cannot fully explain the relationship between POPS and job performance. The current research sheds light on how POPS affect two types of Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-I and OCB-O). POPS may also have an impact on how innovative employees are at work, but relatively little attention is paid to explore this. To fill this void, I created the innovation-related behaviors scale (IRB) and examine POPS's effects on that. Drawing on a social exchange framework, another objective of this study is to examine the direct effects of POPS on employees' turnover intentions, and affective commitment.

To begin with a highly political environment in the organisational context has been considered an unwholesome environment (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Vigoda, 2000) and research has assumed that politics perceptions have also indirect

effects on various outcomes, thus, a closer examination of the underlying processes on the relationships of POPS and outcomes needed to be further explored. Although the extant literature utilizes various constructs (e.g., political skill, Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004) to capture these relationships there are still unanswered questions. For instance, the literature is void of pertinent moderating and mediating variables that influence POPS.

Therefore, I address this need by investigating the role of mediators such as trust, political influence behavior and organisational cynicism in the relationships among POPS and organisational outcomes (e.g., organisational citizenship behaviours towards individuals OCB-I and organisational citizenship behaviours towards organisations OCB-O), POPS and turnover intentions, POPS and affective commitment. Further, the scope of this study is to extend the knowledge regarding the possible direct and indirect effects of POPS by integrating the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005), impression management (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997), and expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) in workplace studies. Regarding that, my arguments are based on a model of antecedents and consequences of POPS. These theories will outlined in the hypotheses development section and will resurface throughout Chapter 4.

Moreover, the construct of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) is defined, and a measure of comprising four dimensions is developed. PSSE has never been applied on organisational politics to establish the link between POPS-various outcomes relationships. Therefore, it is worth exploring whether or not to play a moderating role in the relationship among POPS and turnover intentions, POPS

and affective commitment. In doing so, this thesis seeks to offer a deep understanding of these relationships not only by acknowledging the unique type of the political skill self-efficacy but also by linking it to outcomes that political researchers consider of paramount importance to the organisational life.

Despite some exceptions, the majority of the studies examining organisational politics have been cross sectional in nature (Buchanan, 2008; Chang et al., 2009; Kacmar et al., 1999). Politics researchers seeking to simultaneously explain relationships among multiple process model (A→B→C) sections have relied on 'snapshots' rather than 'movies' (Scofield, 2002; Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011). To address this gap in the literature, I apply a multisource research design whereby repeated observations from the same individuals are made at two different points in time (Time 1 and Time 2). The driving force behind this is explanation, that is, to describe whether the occurrence POPS measuared at Time (t1) predicts specific outcomes (such as Organisational Citizenship Behaviors, OCB-I, OCB-O and innovation-related behaviors, turnover intentions and affective commitment) measured at Time 2 (t2).

Interestingly, conditions such as uncertainty about organizational decisions, ambiguity about expectations, procedures, or roles, and competition for scarce resources (Ferris et al. 1989, 2002; Kacmar and Baron 1999; Parker et al. 1995) found to predict POPS. However, what is the role of the personality on that? Did POPS happen due to situational or personal factors? The picture is still unclear and I will try to answer by testing personality traits (using the application of the Big Five-Factor model of personality) as antecedents of POPS.

Alternatively, evidence showed that organizational politics is empirically tested in one cultural sphere (often the North American), failing to take into account cultural differences with only few exceptions (e.g., Ralston et al., 1994; Romm and Drory, 1988; Vigoda, 2001; Kapoutsis et al., 2011; 2012). I contribute to the understanding of POPS by testing my model in international research settings. The sample contains employees and their supervisors working in large financial institutions in Hellas. Accordingly, I organise my research and divide the discussion into the followings chapters.

Chapter 1 discusses the nature of politics and defines it in the context of a literature. In addition, I present the main theoretical approaches in the study of politics including the genesis of politics from Aristotle and Plato, to Machiavellian and Weber theory of power. I conclude by presenting an ethical approach in the study of politics and exhibiting some of the historical accounts of the existence of politics.

Chapter 2 presents important themes in the organizational politics discussing through organizational lenses and other disciplines (e.g., Leoni, 1957; Burns, 1961; Emerson, 1962, Peffer and Salancil, 1978) such as the role of power, conflicts and social influences. Further, I devote a substantial amount of space to discussions of discrete approaches in organizational politics including Gandz's and Murray's (1980) social interaction theory, where members compete for managing inequities in symbiotic relationships, and Mintzberg's (1984) assertions that organisations are political arenas.

Chapter 3 presents a brief review of the definitions of POPS and discusses how this construct gained its identity over the years building upon recent reviews of organizational politics literature (e.g., Ferris, Adams, et al., 2002; Ferris &

Brouer, 2007; Ferris and Hochwarter, 2002; Silvester, 2008, Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006). I exhibit the most important findings regarding its antecedents and consequences. I conclude by presenting my model based on my hypotheses development.

Chapter 4 provides the development of the hypotheses and focuses on important theoretical frameworks and findings that pervade the literature.

Chapter 5 draws extensively on the identification of the political skill self-efficacy construct. In particular, my goal was to identify clearly the nature of political skill self-efficacy concept and specify its dimensions. Furthermore, I explore its relationship with POPS as well as the moderating influence of political skill self-efficacy on the relationships among POPS and turnover intentions, POPS and affective commitment, POPS and innovativeness. Hence, it highlights the national culture context in the study of POPS and presents a summary of findings in POPS across countries. It also presents evidence regarding the national culture characteristics in Hellas.

Chapter 6 ***focuses*** on the methodology, the strategy and the design of my research and presents all the measurement items included in the study. In addition, it provides information of procedures to collect the sample at Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2).

Chapter 7 reveals the construction, development and validation of political skill self-efficacy scale (PSSE). Various criteria were used in evaluating the new scale and the measurement hypotheses provided. The results of two independent samples (and one pilot study) designed to validate the new measure of political skill self-efficacy scale are also presented and discussed.

Additionally *Chapter 8* presents the analysis of data and the findings of the survey T1 and survey T2. It also describes the development and testing of innovativeness related behaviour scale (IRB).

Finally, *Chapter 9* presents the discussion regarding the findings and considers the limitations and unique contributions of my research. Implications for management practice and research are also considered.

On the whole, however, this thesis aims to bring a new light on perceptions of organisational politics research by investigating antecedents and consequences of POPS and rectifying present limitations in the field.

CHAPTER 1–*POLITICS*

One of the penalties for refusing to participate in politics is that you end up being governed by your inferiors. **Plato, Republic (427-347BC)**

1.1 Introduction

Scholars from a variety of disciplines including philosophers, sociologists, and psychologists (e.g., Buchanan, 2008; Gandz & Murray, 1980) have noted that politics exercises a strong influence in every aspect of people's lives. For example, a politician considers politics as part of his/her routine job to get things done, citizens who are striving to fulfill their duties toward their city view political activities as an essential component of societal structure and researchers consider politics as something that renders the greatest effect on the economic and social well-being of the organizations (Silvester, 2007). In this sense, politics were always inextricably linked with economy and from the very early stages of its history was a fundamental ingredient of human civilisation.

However, politics still remains a controversial theme (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011) for all. Thus, it is worth moving beyond titles and pinpoint when politics started to be a fundamental construct. Plethora of questions arises when individuals think about the nature of politics and its origins in a particular culture or society.

The aim of this chapter is to demonstrate an overview on politics research. It explores the genesis of politics by providing the role of power, conflicts, influence and control along with other distinct approaches-namely ethical perspectives. Initially, I illuminate the discussion by analysing Aristotle's

definition of 'politics' and later by presenting the most developed modern political theories in literature including Weber's and Foucault's ideologies on politics.

1. 2 Aristotle's political theory

"Man is by nature a political animal"
"Political society exists for the sake of noble actions …''
Aristotle (384-322 BC, Politics)

Researchers (e.g., Provis 2004; 2006) in their attempts to identify politics have discovered that the concept is deeply rooted in the Greek word 'polis' [πόλις], which is described as a city-state aggregate of many members of an organized city. Originally, ancient Greek philosophers (e.g., Plato, Aristotle) demonstrated politics as the spread of democracy. In effect, in this approach politics pronounced the democratic synthetic that provided the means of creating order out of diversity while avoiding forms of totalitarian rule. For example, Thucydides (460-395BC) refers to the 'polis' as a socialized city.

Later, Aristotle (384-322, BC) firstly included the term politics in his writings, where he defined it as the reconciling need for unity. He viewed politics as a constructive force in the creation of social order. One of his main philosophical arguments was that human beings are inherently social beings suited to lead lives of general sociability. Central to this poses the question: what is the ultimate goal of every citizen's action? Broadly speaking, a citizen who devotes his life to politics and political affairs should answer the '*eudemonia'* of my polis (Nicomachean Ethics 1, 2). Much is written (Morrison, 2001) about Aristotle's conception of *'eudemonia'*. Generally, he suggested that if a citizen

wants to build ships, then he should learn studentship, and if is keen on public good he should study statesmanship (*Nicomachean Ethics*, 1094a 18-24, 27-28). Nevertheless, he stated that the true purpose of each person's life should be the good of his country and that good he called '*eudemonia*'. This should be the ultimate end of the citizens' life and the goal of politics (Morrison, 2001). Further, he emphasized that the public good should be the highest, most valuable aim of every human action. As a matter of fact such citizens should seek to pursue their own happiness along with the flourishing of the well-being of their city. Accordingly, everyone, who happens to hold political power, ought to promote '*eudemonia*' of his/her city-state. In sum, according to Aristotle statesmanship has analogous connotations with the term political art or political ability or just politics. This rationality is also present in Platonic and Socratic theory.

In *Nicomachean Ethics* (1094b7-9) Aristotle wrote 'if the good is the same for an individual and for the city, then the good of the city appears to be greater and more ultimate, both to establish and preserve happiness' (*Nicomachean Ethics* I, 2; Morrison, p.29). In this case, the good of the city-state is larger and more inclusive in a literal sense than the good of any other social whole. Furthermore, (*Nicomachean Ethics*, 1094b9-10) Aristotle argued that politics in comparison to 'polis' is a nobler[1] and more divine goal than 'polis' and statesmanship is viewed as the exercise of virtue. This exercise of

[1] The 'noble and good," *kalos k'agathos*, the two terms often used in Greek philosophy to describe the example of political virtue (Collins, 2004)

virtue has a large field of action for citizens, thus, politics is a sovereign of statesmanship worth more than any other action of citizens' private life.

That is, in Aristotle's thought (in Book I of the Politics: 1259a5 ff.) differences exist between the private self of citizen at one part and the full political capacity of the citizen in the strict sense (Politics III.1, 1275a) at the other. In fact, the deficient of those who fail to enter on the role of citizens or are excluded from a civil duty is grasped in terms of political capacity (*dunamis*)[2]. In this regard, the virtue of the good citizen and that of the good human being are the same, only in the best regime the (e.g., Burnet 1900, 212), in which the truly best rule would have a kind (Politics, 1284b,24–34).

Later on, he distinguished that the private self is not sufficient to the title of 'citizen' without someone to have the practical judgment (phronesis), the capacity to deliberate well about acting, not making (Politics, 1112a,30) like the statesman Pericles. People like Pericles, Aristotle says, ''see what is good for themselves and for other human beings and their city-sate,'' and this capacity belongs to ''those who handle political affairs'' (Pol.1140b, 7–11). Cherry (2009) wrote that in Aristotle's account the origin of the 'polis' is the drive for self-sufficiency. Every citizen should be able to contribute toward the development of self-sufficiency which goes hand-in-hand with citizen's virtue and participation in political life. In doing so, citizens can pursue the good life (Pol.1281a, 4–10), which in some extent the good is also the virtue's aim.

[2] Translations of the 'Politics' are from Aristotle (1984) and of the 'Nicomachean, Ethics' from Aristotle (2002) are of the Oxford Classical Texts, Aristotle (1986) and (1988).

Further, Aristotle claimed[3] that political life maximizes ones' scope for noble actions (*Politics VII,* 2-3). What he denies is theft and violence in power, universal power maintained at the cost of injustice. He also viewed politics as an exercise of sovereign control over a wide field of good actions that would lead to a better life full of justice sharing sovereignty equally with peers. This is the scope of political life. Additionally, the greatest attainable good in political life is the happiness of the city and the highest good is to rule the world. Furthermore, citizens should combine both the exercise of practical virtue in private life and the civil participation in public without torturing or robbing power.

Apparently, he noted that the life of ordinary citizenship involves the periodic exercise of duties, while ruling the world requires for the ruler's actions to be noble; hence the power acquired at the cost of injustice is rather ignoble. At this point, it is crucial to highlight Aristotle's wisdom that those who led the political life have chosen to excel in practical virtue to become greater founders or lawgivers because their actions shape the life of the city for generations (*Politics, VII and VIII,* 1324b-25b, Kraut, 1997). For example, he suggested that the life of Pericles (Pericles 495 – 429 BC) "surrounded by glory" illustrates a true and brilliant political life; he was a man who had devoted his life to political affairs and the *eudemonia* of his city-state.

In summary, ancient Greek philosophy as it has been reflected in Aristotle's vision of the city-state has inspired many scholars in the politics

[3] Morrison, p.237 Aristotle at Politics and *Nicomachean Ethics I, 2*

literature and has assisted them in understanding important qualities that are often either glossed or ignored. What Aristotle had observed has evident manifestations in the events that shape the organization of life today and scholars acknowledged that politics is a vital component in every organization and individual. This pervasiveness of politics prompted Ferris and Kacmar (1992:93) to conclude that 'politics in organizations is simply a fact of life'. In other words, the concept of politics has developed from an unmentioned, yet tangible aspect of work life, to one that has amassed sizeable practical and scholarly attention (Buchanan, 2008; Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002). As a matter of fact, in hypercompetitive contemporary organizations, politics may reflect a diversity of interests that gives rise to such processes as coalition building, negotiation and mutual influence (Fischer, 2006) while tracing how ideas and people's actions coincide or collide (Pettigrew, 1973; Bies & Tripp, 1995).

1. 3 Weber's sociological view of politics

In the 19th century a new approach was introduced in the conceptualization of politics quite different from what was depicted in Aristotle's doctrines. It was the moment when psychology was distinct from philosophy and physiology and gained its autonomy as a science (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011).

At first sociological approaches differentiate from previous philosophical argumentation on politics. For example, Weber's discussion on politics carries the suggestion that politics 'would mean striving for a share of

power or for influence on the distribution of power, whether it be between states or between groups of people contained within a single state' (Weber, *Political Writings*, ed. Lassman and Speirs, p.311). In Weber's theory, a politician is thirsty for power, and lives for politics (ibid. p.318). Therefore, she/he is enjoying and exercising power. The classical social theory is devised by Weber's multidimensional approach to power.

In direct contrast, in philosophical thinking political activities were seen as the ultimate end to which all other aspects of life were submitted. A politician is someone who devotes himself/herself to political affairs, having scope to strive for the common good which is the happiness of his/her city. Lass well's (1936) work has enriched the literature on politics but surprisingly has not attracted the attention it deserves (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011). He defined politics as "who gets what, when and how' and argued that *influence* is a necessary component of politics. He was one of the first scholars to bring forward the role of social acuity as a predictor of influence success (Almond, 1987). Actually, influential are the elite, who accumulate assets as safety, income and deference and manipulate aspects of them in order to pursue their success (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011).

1. 4 Power and control in the study of politics

Nam et ipsa scientia potential est
Power is the capacity to restructure actual situations
MacMillan (1961)

One of the most interesting perspectives in the study of politics has been its relationship with power and control. Power has been defined as 'an individual relative capacity to modify others by providing and withholding resources or administering punishments' (Kelter, Gruenfeld, & Aderson, 2003, p.265). On the other hand, Aristotle argued that when a citizen is preeminent in practical wisdom then his/her power conducted under fair ways and his/her actions are noble and choices worthy. However, the development of power has pursued over time and post-modernism theorists have debated how to define political power. Foucault, for example (in his work *Disciplines and Punish The Birth of the Prison, 1991)* conveys that power is part of societal controls; it is 'an action over actions' where everyone from a prime minister to a homeless person use it in their own relationships with society.

Navigating the sea of philosophical turpitude, scholars have proposed differentiate types of power including coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent (French & Raven, 1959). Others like Lukes (1974) argued that there are actually three forms of power (detailed analysis in his book *Power: a radical view*). According to them the behavioral forms of power (Dalh, 1957) focus on behaviors about decision making over conflict of interests. These forms of power involve individuals' ability to shape desires, distinguish among decision making, public opinion and power. The non-decision making dimension form of power (e.g., Bacharach and Baratz, 1962) considers mobilization of bias by powerful people in order to structure agendas to protect their interests.

Similarly, the radical structure of power relates to its capacity to determine decisive socialization processes. It draws attention on insidious ways - those of manipulation- and influences individuals use to ensure that power, authority and control remain in the hands of capital such as managerial groups (Clegg and Dunkerley 1980:197-8). This taxonomy of power provides a useful approach in industrial relations for understanding conflict in workplaces (Hall 1972:237-40; Fox 1974:250; Lupton 1978:81-8; Farnham and Pimlott 1979:53; Ferner et al., 2012). Mintzberg (1989) and Kotter (1977) examined the interpretations of the overt forms of power such as influences and control available to managers. Buchanan and Badham (1999: 178) provided a more elaborate approach in the forms of power. Table 1 presents a summary of power perspectives as studied in the literature.

Table 1 *Examples Of Power Perspectives In The Literature*

Types of power	**Influence & control**	**Political games**
• *Reward power* • Coercive power • Legitimate power • Referent power • Expert power	Relation of sense of obligation Building of reputation as expert Fostering identification Creating dependency by making others believe the manager has resources Using formal authority	Games to resist authority Games to counter resistance Games to build power base Games to change the organisation

Source: *Modified from Faye Frith and Liz Fulop (1992) 'Conflict and power in organisations', in Fulop, L. with Frith, F. and Hayward, H., Management for Australian Business: A critical Text, Macmillan, p.225*

Henceforth, many scholars (e.g., Althusser 1996; Barzilai, 2008) were opposed to Foucaut's concept about power that it can be comprehended as a

transformative and transforming phenomenon between the state, communities and forces of globalization. Like Weber (1964:124, 152-3) pluralist theorists tend to call it a 'zero-sum' or 'constant-sum' capacity which means that power levels can vary within any society. Weber's theory of bureaucracy (public sector) proposed a very complex view of authority which stated that authority had to be earned and legitimated in order for systems of domination to exist (Weber 1964: 324-9). By legitimating he meant the execution of rules or orders in such a way that people believed that the orders issued were binding on them and desirable to imitate or follow and he described authority as critical in order to understand power. More specifically, sociologists like Parsons tend to argue that power is 'possessed by society as whole'.

Functional sociologists generally considered the inequality of power as a function and a motivator in modern societies. They noted that when power differences become imbalanced, power is dysfunctional for the society and the social development. Social power has been defined as potential influence, the ability of one person to affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors. Raven (1992; 1993; 2001; 2004) proposed 'soft' and 'hard' categories of power (Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998). In essence, the differences are in the amount of freedom an influence recipient has in choosing whether or not to comply with a request or a demand. For example, coercion and reward, legitimacy of position belong to the 'hard' category of power. By contrast, informational power, expert, and legitimacy of dependence power are classified in the 'soft' category where individuals feel free to decide whether or not to accept the influencer's requests (Pierro, Kruglaski & Raven, 2012).

In modern and post modern approaches (Lawrence et al., 2001; Foucault, 1977; Clegg, 1989; Giddens, 1984; 1993; Hardy & Clegg, 1996) scholars broadly classified the systemic and episodic form of power. Analytically, the episodic mode of power refers to discrete and strategic political acts initiated by self-interested actors. In organization contexts episodic form, in principle, implies which actors are most able to influence organization decision making (Pfeffer, 1981, 2001). One might think that if episodic power means that self-interested actors exercise this form of power, and if strategic acts are the motive of power then which form of power will apply towards the routine life? Systemic power is implied through the routine and ongoing practices and is diffused throughout the systems and constitutes organizations (Scott, 2001; Clegg, 1989) rather than being held by autonomous actors. Examples include the socialization and accreditation processes (Covaleski et al., 1998) as well as technological systems (Noble, 1984).

Moreover, Morgan (2001) pointed out that various categories of power (these are presented in Table 2) in organizations could explain better the organization affairs because they provide organizational members with variety of means for enhancing their interests and resolving or perpetuating organizational conflict. Others (Peffer and Salancik, 1978) have pronounced that 'the organizations will tend to be influenced by those who control the resources they require (p.44)'.

Table 2 *Sources Of Power Used To Shape The Dynamics Of Organizations (Morgan, 2001)*

Modes of power	**Examples**
Power as control	Control of scarce resources Control of decision processes Control of knowledge and information Control of boundaries Control of technology Control of counter organizations
Power as social interaction	Interpersonal alliances, networks, and control of "informal organization" Ability to cope with uncertainty regulations
Power as influence	Formal authority Symbolism and the management of gender relations Use of organizational structure, rules and Structural factors that define the stage of action

Similarly, Emerson (1962) introduced the theory of power in the study of politics where the foundations of asymmetric dyadic relations and consequently asymmetric power distributions consist of dependence over the control of important resources. Social relations are based on embedded mutual dependence where individuals often engage 'in balancing operations' (Emerson, 1962, p.34) for neutralizing power inconsistencies. Obviously, in contemporary discussions Halbesleben & Wheeler (2006) confirmed that one tactic for managing perceived inequities is to direct influence behavior to resource controlling individuals.

To sum up scholars have acknowledged that any form of social interaction is in fact a political power relationship (Astley and Sachdera, 1984). Along with Burns (1961) and Weber's suggestions, this wave of thought is based on corporations made up of social systems in which members compete for rewards and advancements. For them, individuals often use others to

achieve objectives perceived as unattainable via more legitimate or uniquely individual means. In the early and late attempts to define politics the common premise has been the role of power as influence and control over others.

In conclusion, it seems important to note that the existing research in this area has been concerned with the rigorous role of power and has placed a wide variety of forms of power in the centre of every description and analysis (Lawerence, Winn, & Jennings, 2001; Hardy & Clegg, 1996; Covaleski, Dirsmith, Heian, & Sajay, 1998) of politics. Complex organizations have been viewed as power systems evolving power relations that often imply conflict and dissension (Ailon, 2006; Reuver, 2006). With respect to this, organization literature has witnessed a strong interest in understanding the aspect of politics called the dark side and is reminiscent of the related, yet distinct topic of Machiavellianism.

1. 5 Machiavellianism and politics

Another historical perspective in the study of politics is that of Machiavellianism. Originally Machiavellianism deployed as a trait in Machiavelli's writings on governance, has been examined in relation to the leaders of political and religious extremist groups. Leaders of these groups manipulated their subordinates to meet their own desires and their views as noted in the writings of Machiavelli such as *Prince* (1513/1981) and *Discources* (1532/1984).

For some researchers (Mintzberg, 1983, 1985; Pfeffer, 1981) the notion of politics has its roots in the dark side of Machiavellianism and there is evidence that there are strong ties theoretically between the two constructs. Among ethical principles and moral imperatives, Machiavellianism has actually been employed in ways that linked to political behavior and cannot be overlooked. For example, Christie and Geis (1970) highlighted several themes such as willingness to utilize manipulative tactics; acting amorally and endorsing a cynical, untrustworthy view of human nature are relevant. Perhaps where Machiavellian work has been most revealing is in its focus on the elements of power and influence. Researchers who develop their own approach to the political environments (Buchanan & Badham, 1999) have acknowledged that.

With regard to the latter, findings suggest that those who exercise power and influence in risky political environments will remain most successful (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). In fact, this implies that Machiavellian individuals are therefore likely to view political environments as the necessary device to achieve and secure personal rewards.

1. 6 The role of ethics in understanding politics

In the next unit I take a rather different approach by considering the beliefs about ethics and exploring the relevance and applicability of ethical approaches including those of Kantian and Aristotelian virtue ethics to politics. The aim here is to present these perspectives of help to think in an ethical way when considering politics, of the criteria that will resound in the distinction

among ethical/non ethical political actions. Considerations of this nature awarded full priority. Therefore, I will discuss briefly two key challenges and characteristics of virtue ethics and deontological theories of ethics and show how these are related to politics.

For hundred years the centre of attention for scholarly discussions of political theories has been on the politics of nation-states, examining issues such as rights and obligations of citizens and the state, whether the state has been conceived as a person of the monarchy or an abstract constitutional authority (Provis, 2006). During the Enlightenment Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau and others had been concerned with what moral obligations individuals have to comply with authority (cf. Benn and Peters, 1959:318). In a series of studies, Provis (2004, 2006) addresses political theory in exploring problems that arise in the sphere of state institutions, for example, when it is legitimate to dissent from official authority? Consequently, ethics and ethical standards appeared as a necessary ingredient of discussions concerning politics.

This issue then is well captured into philosophical literature. It dominates the discussions about Socrates and Callicles well into Plato's and Gorgias writings and later this theme has been the centre of attention for Machiavellians. Along these lines, Hampshire (1989) focused on political leaders' behaviors, decisions and moral obligations. Nevertheless, modern theorists brought this issue to the fore. For example, Kant treats ethics separately from politics and Hegel treats the two as inextricably entangled. Similarly, Marx views ethics (morality) as a hindrance, a device for individuals to promote political

achievement. In the latter whist blowing examples, it may well be stated that ethical obligations involved in politics.

As a matter of fact, many scholars (e.g., Provis, 2006; Fischer, 2003) consider ethics as the appropriate ground where all judgments about good and bad sides of politics should be based on and they argue that in order to assess a behavior as positive/moral or negative/unethical the existence of a demarcation criterion is required. In doing so, literature has witnessed an interest in topics of injustice and unethical behavior that account in the understanding of the phenomenon.

In addition, discussions confirm that theories such as Kantian deontology and rights' theories have been the most extensively used theories in the literature. Deontological theories suggest that the moral reasoning motivates participants' interests and any of their movement actions and decisions are epitomized by moral rules and duties. Precisely, Kantian deontology put emphasis on the moral principle and autonomy which prevents individuals from exercising any form of coercion within organizational settings (cf. Micewski and Troy, 2007). In other words, it focuses on principle obligation, i.e., to do the morally right, irrespective of the possible consequences.

Clearly, the utility of a Kantian perspective reflected in Jones' et al. (2005, p.45) suggestions that 'business practices under Kantian regime have only one ultimate reason for being: to develop the human, rational and moral capacities of people in and outside the organization'. This regime fosters individual autonomy (Bowie, 1998; 2000), ensures meaningful work, encourages leadership styles and enhances perceived fairness in the workplace.

Equally important for understanding substantial ethical issues about politics are the rights based theories which reject the view that business is amoral. They stress that human beings are self-interested and merely seek to maximize individual advantage and enhance value creation. For example, a working place that is socially embedded, self interest cannot be the only source of progress. But people who act selfishly are worse than if they act considering other's interests and goals (Freeman, 1994; Greenwood and De Cleri, 2007). Accordingly, the organization is responsible to provide specific moral obligations towards its members both as human beings and as stakeholders helping employees to act in an ethical way in conformity to the 'golden rule' i.e., to respect others' humanity by treating them just as we would wish to be treated (Freeman, 1994; Greenwood and De Cleri, 2007).

However, scholars recently have noted that politics as described by Machiavellianism dissociates from ethics and could be appropriate to be enriched with a moral perspective. Such a perspective can be supported and sustained by virtue ethics scholars (Bragues, 2006; Flynn, 2008; Moore, 2009). Ethical stances originate in an inward disposition to act fairly, to conduct a morally good life aiming at self-realization and fulfillment.

According to the existing evidence, the Aristotelian vision of the human excellence and good life emerge from '*ethos*' (ήθος) and a set of moral virtues are not ignored by literature. Generally speaking though, the Aristotelian framework suggests some criteria as the basis where ethical and non ethical politics have to be assessed: a) the civil virtues that obtain social and

interpersonal dimensions should be a necessary predisposition for positive political actions b) citizens seem to be motivated by pursuit of shared goals and ideals that reflect a sense of trust, mutual concern, and citizenship behavior (Alzola, 2008). Further, morality has been described as an integral part of human motivation, commitments and ideals that emerge in specific contexts, in which agents are related in their pursuit of shared values through reputation, responsibility, and trust-enhancing mechanisms (Park and Peterson, 2003).

Moreover, central to Aristotelian vision of moral community is friendship that does not direct toward furthering egocentric experience. The ethical attitudes originate in an inward disposition to act fairly; also these ethical stances facilitate a person to conduct a morally good life, of self-realization and self-fulfillment (Provis, 2006). For example, Davis (2003) proposed that individuals should be conceived as integral parts of groups that should conform to a system of rights (deontic principles) 'embedded in broad social commitments to such ideas as freedom, equality, fairness, human dignity, community and justice (p.178). Accordingly, members of organizational settings develop moral commitments based on shared principles, and may avoid acts that are not right in terms of moral obligations and of the desired outcomes for the group (consequential argument; Davis, 2003). For instance, if a politician (or an individual) is seeking for building alliances with view of particular individuals/groups solely of a particular objective, this might degenerate into its negative counterpart; antithetically, if politics is founded on human excellence of trust and friendship, integrity, honesty and civil virtue it could help overcome

the negativity. Some of these obligations are moral in nature (Crey and Sturdy, 2007).

Modern proponents of virtue ethics (Bragues, 2006; Flynn, 2008; Moore, 2009; Sison, 2006, 2008; Solomon, 1999, 2004) posit the application in business environments. They state a dynamic interplay between personal proclivities on the one hand that shape their character and social processes, circumstances on the other (Solomon, 2003) where shared values are the primary function of individuals' life. In this setting, individuals act in accordance with their established dispositions and practice of virtues[4]. For example, Vranceanu (2007) employs two Aristotelian virtues of responsibility and prudence in rational decision making. Similarly, Ardagh (2007) applies an ethical framework to evaluate codes for HRM professionalism based on the Aristotelian virtue of *'eudemonia'* (happiness) and sees it as an integral part of human motivation, and ideals to foster human excellence (as reflected in integrity, honesty, civil virtue). What is common in the aforementioned perspectives is the adoption and enactment of proper moral standards for valuating politics and assessing similar organization phenomena, such as political activities. Consequently, these observations also assist to enhance the understanding of politics and have been of paramount importance to individuals and organisations.

[4] (Moore, 2005b) Central to this way of conceptualising organsational life is the significance of virtues as constitutive and substantive elements of corporate character.

In a textbook on organizational behavior[5] there is an essential question of whether the politically right thing to do is also the ethically right thing to do. This reflects a long-standing tension in literature about the relationship between ethics and politics, ethical rightness and political rightness; it may do so rather by a way of suggesting that ethics and politics refer to different spheres of activities, a point which distinguishes political demands from ethical demands (Provis, 2005). Finally, ethical approaches have implications in the organizational politics except of the politics of nation-states.

[5] C. A. J. Coady, "Politics and the Problem of Dirty Hands," in *A Companion to Ethics,* ed. P. Singer (Oxford: Blackwell, 1991), 373-83, p. 373). For references to the extensive literature, see Coady's article and M. Stocker, *Plural and Conflicting Values* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1990), 9-10.

CHAPTER 2-*ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS*

Organizational politics may irritate us, but it also serves us
Mintzberg (1985, p.152)

2. 1 Introduction

Politics into workforce is widely talked about and is assumed to be an enemy for the organizations (Vigoda, 2010; Allen et al., 1979; Mintzberg, 1985). However, when it comes to specifying just what it means in an organizational context, vagueness creeps in. Although various approaches have arisen in explaining organizational politics based on psychology, sociology, organizational behavior and management, difficulties still exist among scholars to accept one common definition (Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Ferris, Adams et al., 2002) and little consensus has been reached across studies.

This chapter demonstrates the necessity of research in organizational politics. The most commonly used perspectives in researching organizational politics, including the theory of power dependence and relevant social interactions approaches, will be presented. The way energy and conflict deplete in relation to organizational politics will also be discussed.

2. 2 Theoretical perspectives in the study of Organizational Politics

A number of scholars illustrated that organizational politics is extremely important not only for the organizations but also for the employees' lives (Allen & Porter, 1983; Bacharach & Lowler, 1981; Farrell & Petersen, 1982; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981; Tushamn, 1977). The study of politics into organizational

sciences gained an identity by the contributions of scholars such as Leoni (1957), Weber (1947), Burns (1961), Pfeffer and Salancik (1978).

Particularly, Burns (1947) highlighted that individuals make corporations and often compete with the social systems for gaining rewards and advancement. Likewise, individuals are fighting for achieving objectives, and are often using others via more legitimate or uniquely individual means. Similarly, Emerson (1962) introduced the theory of power dependence which maintains the control for resources and judgments as the foundation of asymmetric dyadic interrelationships and consequently asymmetric power distributions. Analytically, individuals engage 'in balancing operations' (Emerson, 1962, p.34) such as organizational politics to neutralizing *power inconsistencies* that govern their social relations. Along with this perspective researchers (e.g., Blau, 1964; Jacobs, 1974) specifically argued that the resource interdependence is represented as a mandatory condition for political behavior.

Clearly, research in organizational politics has flourished during the late 1970's and early 1980's (Porter, Allen, and Angle, 1981). In Gand's and Murray's (1980, p.244) terms 'the existence of workplace politics is common to most organizations' gained support (93.2%) and acceptance. They characteristically proposed that 'organizational politics should be restricted to denote a subjective state in which organization members perceived themselves or others as intentionally seeking selfish ends in an organizational context when such ends are opposed to those of others' (Gandz & Murray, 1980, p.248).

In line with other researchers who made great efforts to discover organizational politics, Mintzberg (1983) claimed that organisations are

inherently political arenas. His view of organizations as political entities that reflect conflict over resources, ubiquitous and energy depleting (Mintzberg, 1985) has facilitated an era of interest in the empirical study of this phenomenon (Meriac & Villanova, 2006). Similar points were made by Schein (1977), who viewed political behaviors in organisations as 'an inadequately explored reality' (p.46).

Additionally, Pfeffer (1981; 1978) described organisational politics as a social activity that can contribute to the organisations' goals and objectives. He argued that 'organisations are influenced by those who control the resources they require' (p.44) and noted that the organisation's rules and structures reflect the political settlements that are associated to power building (March, Schulz, & Xueguang, 2000; Rao & Kenny, 2008). This approach has been influenced by authors (e.g., Allen, Madison, Renwick & Mayes, 1979) who linked politics with an intentional or discretionary behavior.

Expressly for Pfeffer (1987) like Schein (1977) organizational politics account for an exercise of power to obtain preferred outcomes in situations individuals have dissension on choices. The focus was on internal systems of power that control the behavior of organizational members (Gray, Arriss, 1985). They declared that "organizational politics consist of intentional acts of influence undertaken by individuals or groups to enhance or protect their self-interest when conflicting courses of actions are possible". These efforts within the realm of organizational behavior, have became particularly prominent in the organizational politics literature and reached a peak acceptance in 80s/90s.

Alternatively, Pfeffer (1981) as well as Bacharard and Lower (1981) viewed politics as a broad social phenomenon. Those who have espoused this approach have acknowledged that any form of social interaction is in fact a political relationship (Astley and Sachdera, 1984). Here, the exercise of power and influence provided the social energy that transforms the insights of individuals and groups into the institutions of an organization (Lawrence et al., 2005). Actually, it was reported that different forms of power inside organizations are linked to specific outcomes; for example, intuition is linked with discipline, interpretation with influence, integration with force, and so on (Lawrence, Mauws, Dycj and Kleysen, 2005). Hence, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) called out 'the organizations will tend to be influenced by those who control the resources they require' (p.44). Discussions have expanded on the social interactions among organizations and individuals where researchers (Astley & Sachdeva, 1984) have often treated social interactions as political relationships due to its mutual interdependence. Generally taking this approach organizational politics represents influence over others.

Further, Mintzberg (1983; 1985) suggested a multi-faced approach in the study of organizational politics. Besides, organizations are described as inherently political arenas. As a result, the workplace is viewed as a permanent political process where different actors try to influence structures of communication and regulations. It is even believed that ongoing strategic "power games" by the actors aiming to aid self-interests while colliding with the collective organizational goals. Finally, many academics have been influenced by that when examining organizational politics.

Overall, researchers have made great strides towards a better understanding of the concept of organizational politics. For example, one alternative conceptual definition listed organisational politics as self-serving and manipulative activities that are not perceived positive (Gandz & Murray 1980; Madison et al., 1980). Few more accordant voices (e.g. Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Cavenagh et al., 1981; Cropanzano and Kacmar, 1995; 1995; Dipboye and Foster, 2002; Drory, 1993; Fedor et al., 1998; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Vigoda-Gadot, 2003) highlighted that organizational politics demonstrate self-serving behaviour aiming at achieving self-interests, advantages, and benefits at the expense of others and contrary to entire organizations.

Moreover, these definitions assert the notion that organizational politics consists of informal actions that are not authorized by the organization and emphasized the usefulness of hidden intentions, respective motives and the behaviors of individuals behaving politicking within organizational settings (Coopey and Burgoyne, 2000; Diefenbach, 2007; Ferris et al., 1996a; Grossmann, 2006; Peled, 2000; Sussman et al., 2002). This theoretical approach had a huge impact on explorations of organizational politics (Cropanzano, Kacmar & Bozeman, 1995; Ferris et al., 2002). Though opinions differ on the conceptual definition of organizational politics nearly all politics' researchers have adopted aspects of this approach.

Similarly, Block (1988, p.5) defined politics in organizations as a negative process and argued that "if I told you, you were a very political person you would take it either as an insult or at best as a mixed blessing". Further,

Quinn (1980) suggested an agenda of political activities that increase an individual's and group referent or legitimate power.

It is worth mentioning that organizational politics, however, has been thoroughly understood through various explicating behavioral tactics in the form of classification taxonomies (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1979; Mintzberg, 1985). In terms of this formation, Hawley (1950) refers that influence tactics toward resource controlling represent one way to resolve inequities in dyadic asymmetric relationships. Moreover, discussions by Halbesleben & Wheeler (2006) informed that tactics in social systems help managing perceived inequities and controlling individuals. Such efforts have revealed that the contents of organizational politics rely heavily in strategic actions for the pursuit of atomic benefits. For example, Kipnis et al. (1980) insisted that organizational politics frequently associate with manipulation, defamation, subversiveness, and illegitimate ways of overusing power to attain one's objectives. Thus, the majority of the studies following this perspective focus on the negative side of organizational politics.

In general, apart from the above-mentioned perspectives people customarily speak of 'politics' and 'political games and plays' but which forms can it take? Descriptions of organizational politics in the literature indicate that it can take the forms of bypassing the chain of command to gain approval, going through improper channels to obtain special equipment, and lobbying high-level managers just prior to promotion decisions (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001). Such scholars demonstrate that the way individuals use information is a political tool, for example creating and maintaining a favorable image (impression

management), developing a base of support, ingratiating and praising others, developing power coalitions, associating with influential persons, and creating obligations and reciprocity (Kipnis et al., 1980). More precisely, the organisational members participate in coalitions building on the expectation of receiving rewards such as higher wages and promotion, or (can be less tangible) see it as an opportunity to advance a particular set of interests in the organization (Fischer, 2005). An illustrative summary of the most influential definitions in the area is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 *Definitions Of Organizational Politics*

Organisational Theorists	***Definitions***
Mayes &Allen (1977)	*Organisational politics is the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned influence means*
Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes (1979)	*Organisational politics involve intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self interest of individuals or groups*
Quinn (1980)	*Political behaviour consists of activities undertaken primarily to increase an individual's or group's referent or legitimate power. Achieving increased political power may or may not make not more people dependent on the manger, but it does give the executive a greater capacity to influence events*
Pfeffer (1981)	*Organisational politics involves those activities taken within organizations to acquire, develop, and use power and other resources to obtain one's preferred outcomes in a situation in which there is uncertainty or dissenus about choices*
Bacharach& Lawler (1981)	*Politics is the process whereby individuals or interest groups use power to obtain or retain control of real or symbolic resources*
	Organizational political behavior is defined as: (1) social influence attempts, (2) that are discretionary, (3) that are intended (designed) to

Porter, Allen & Angle (1983)	*promote or protect the self-interests of individuals and groups (units), and (4) that threaten the self-interests of others (individuals, units)*
Aryee, Chen & Budhwar (2004)	*Organizational politics consists of informal actions or behaviors not authorized by the organization that are performed with the intention of promoting an individual's goal*
Kurchner-Hawkins & Miller (2006)	*Organizational politics is ''an exercise of power and influence that primarily occurs outside of formal organizational processes and procedures.'' (p.331)*

Besides, some studies suggested that under specific circumstances organizational politics might be perceived as a form of anti-social behavior. Examples include blaming and attracting others, bypassing proper superiors, withholding information, ingratiating and praising powerful others, creating and maintaining a favorable image through impression management, attaching to senior management right before promoting decisions, and creating obligations (cf. Andrews and Kacmar, 2001, see also Gotsis & Kortezi, 2011, p.499). Likewise, strategic leader bullying behavior may be construed as a form of organizational politics (Ferris et al., 2007), the extra-role behavior may also be abusively manipulated (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007a), gossip which has self-interest as main motivation maybe assumed a 'political' function in the formation of inter-organisational power relations (Van Iterson and Clegg, 2008).

2. 3 Conclusions

Contributions to the organizational politics literature have flourished over the past three decades. In other words, much has been accomplished to understand its contents. As such scholarship suggests that organizational politics is ubiquitous in its nature (Gandz and Murray, 1980; Vigoda, 2003; Kacmar and Baron, 1999) and conceived as an intentional social influence process in which behavior is strategically designed to maximize short-term or long term self interest (Ferris et al., 1989). Actually, numerous studies showed how this can occur. For example, Kacmar and Baron (1991, p.4) described organizational politics as actions undertaken by individuals aimed at furthering their own self-interest without any regard for the well being of others or the organization. In these accounts, self-serving behavior (Beugre and Liverpool, 2006) has been the common basement and dominant orientation for explaining organizational politics. As noted by Vigoda (2006) those scholars have identified organizational politics according to the 'ends' where coupled with negative impacts such as behaviors contrary to organizational interests. In particularly, Darr and Johns (2004) claimed that 'organisational politics is generally understood as involving behavior that is directed toward furthering self or group interest at the expense of others well being' (p.171).

Though organisational politics appear in some positive forms including persuasion, development of coalitions and networking to the extent these behaviors coincide with primary organizational objectives, however, the majority of attempts to define organizational politics are imbued with negative connotations (Hall et al., 2004). For example, organizational politics is described as non-sanctioned behaviors which involve manipulation, control of

information, and intimidation aiming at pursuing self-interest and creating factionalized information (Gunn and Chen, 2006, p.223-224). As such organizational politics is treated as inherently unethical labeled 'self-interested' or 'covert and crafty' (Provis, 2006)[6] behaviors.

The views presented above seem quite restrictive so far and one question arises: What makes a political activity inside organizations in some cases to be viewed as positive while in other cases to be viewed as negative? How can employees distinguish between positive and negative sides of organizational politics? According to scholars the extent to which these behaviors are perceived as negative and unethical depends on the chief motivation of their actions: self-interest or not. After all, this dilemma leads to thoughts about moral evaluation and ethical assessment of political activities. However, existing research on organizational politics has not adequately differentiated between the two faces of organizational politics, the good and bad side. Interestingly, to this end, scholars (Hochwarter, 2012) have begun to support the positive possibilities of organisational politics adopting a 'politics is necessary', rather than a 'politics is evil' conceptualization (Ferris & Treadway, 2012).

To further illustrate this point Provis (2006, pp. 99–100) declared that there is a high level of ambiguity in distinguishing ethical from non-ethical in various political tactics and strategies, a fact that 'makes ethical appraisal of particular actions especially difficult'. Moreover, Provis (2005; 2006) provided

[6] The need for power, self-monitoring and Machiavellianism is considered among the possible antecedents of organizational politics (Dipboye and Foster, 2002, pp. 257–258; Valle and Perrewe/, 2000, pp. 375, 377)

fundamental complications for ethical issues in organisational politics and suggested an ethical dimension on which to base each decision and action. For example, behavior that weighs virtues such as the loyalty in friendship or commitment to organization ideals, address to what extent one ought to maintain commitment to a friend or loyalty to institutionalization unit.

Alternatively, Cunn and Chen (2006) proposed a set of criteria such as *morale* to be the foundation for ethically questioned organizational politics. Accordingly, negative politics consist of non-sanctioned behaviors including manipulation, control of information, and intimidation. In contrast, political behaviors which are morally acceptable reduce the unethical behaviors. In line with other researchers expressing the need to account for ethics in organisational politics, Freeman et al. (2007) rejected the view that business is amoral and suggested a set of principles for assessing political activities by acknowledging the role of making responsible decisions, avoiding harmful consequences, enhancing fairness, helping individuals act in an ethical way rather than 'relying on separate, relatively disconnected judgments in different cases' (Provis, 2006, p.103).

At this point, the ethics-based theoretical framework might provide the normative foundations for enhancing the positive aspects of politics while a Kantian or justice-based deontological theory might carry symbolic value by reducing negative political behavior. Specifically, scholars declared that virtue theory was obliging in enhancing positive psychological states and reducing frustration and negative emotions for instance reducing detrimental outcomes of employee perceptions of politics (cf. Rosen et al., 2009b). Thus, it might be of

value considering an ethics-based approach in the investigation of all political phenomena that enhances understanding of the complex topic of organizational politics.

In general, a vast majority of scholars, particularly within the realm of organizational politics, have referred organisational politics as a negative and only few researchers have adopted a more middle-of-the road perspective (Fedor et al., 2008; Buchanan, Claydon, & Doyle, 1999) according to which organisational politics is viewed into applied neutral settings. Indeed, it is defined as an important component of social environment. Simply stated, organisational politics is based on corporations made up of social systems. Then, individuals in order to achieve their objectives (rewards and advancements) which are often perceived as unattainable compete via more legitimate means. Consequently, it might be useful to examine organizational politics into neutral terms; what is implied, however, is that the item requires 'a shift in thinking and behaving' (Kurchner-Hawkins and Miller, 2006, p.332).

Throughout this section, I have presented the main theoretical approaches in organizational politics literature. Varieties of studies were conducted until the construct of organizational politics gained its identity. Further, the research in this field has grown dramatically since then. To sum up, politics as an organizational construct has been described as multifaceted, complex and analytical (Gotsis & Kortesi, 2011) and without doubt it is well embedded in all phases of organizational life. However, something far more reaching is being forgotten when such statements are being made, the fact that politics continues to be conceptualized as an individual level construct (Darr and

Johns, 2004). Toward this end, the subjective state of organizational politics, in other words perceptions of organizational politics, merits a full explanation.

*CHAPTER 3-**PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS (POPS)***

*"The laws of perception is to make your eyes say yes and your mind say no"-**Escher (1898-1972)***

*'Survival in organizations is a political act'-**Bacharach and Lawler (1980, p.1)***

3. 1 Introduction

This chapter discusses scholars' attempts to define and capture the notion of perceptions of organizational politics (POPS) over the last decades. It sets out to accomplish the following: a) demonstrate the necessity of research regarding POPS b) explore the conceptualization of POPS by presenting an overview of the POPS research including historical perspectives accounts for it and describing earlier work in the POPS model c) present a summary of the research aims. In addition, then, the model of POPS examined in this thesis is presented.

3. 2 A brief overview of the theoretical perspectives in the study of POPS

Plethora of scholars from multiple disciplines have made great efforts to decipher the concept of POPS and the vast majority agreed that political process within an organization is an extremely important matter (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). A long history of research suggests that POPS needs attention because it involves the observer's judgments about the intent behind an actor's behaviour. This perceptual/subjective approach has dominated organisational politics literature and concentrates on how individuals perceive the behaviors of political actors in working places by investigating the subjective interpretations and not the reality per se. That serves as a theoretical basis for most research conducted

in POPS (e.g., Byrne et al., 2005; Cropanzano, Kacmar & Bozeman, 1995; Ferris et al., 2002) and it is consistent with the phenomenological view that perceptions of and reactions to politics reside 'in the eye of beholder' rather than as an objective absolute' (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001) .Clearly, Kurt Lewin's (1936) argument that people respond to their perceptions of the reality, not to reality itself has inspired the researchers in this field. Among others, Gandz & Murray (1980) stated that organizational politics is best viewed as a state of mind rather than an objective state. In other words, that is the reason that makes this topic so significant to examine it.

Likewise, comprehensive reviews (e.g. Ferris et al., 2002; Kacmar and Baron, 1999) suggested that politics perceptions have an impact on a myriad of important work outcomes. More specifically, research found that employees who perceive politics tend to respond with negative workplace behaviors namely decreased organizational commitment, disciplinary problems, favoritism, disputes job dissatisfaction, job stress, neglectful workers, power struggles, resistance to change, vicious rumors, turnover, decreased productivity, and organizational inefficiency (Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996; Gilmore et al., 1996; Grote & McGeeney, 1997; Parker et al., 1995; Serven, 2002; Vigoda, 2000). Accordingly the extant literature utilizes various models to capture and investigate POPS-outcomes relationships; however, leaving the field with .a limited understanding of political phenomena (Ferris et al., 2002). Therefore, it is wise to make time to explore this.

Another reason why POPS is so important to situations within organizations is because it causes a number of negative outcomes to both

individuals and organizations. Typically, Rosen et al. (2009) noted that POPS is a key feature of the work culture and work context which shapes and is shaped by other organizational phenomena. Accordingly, it remains a valuable and challenging area to work. As such, understanding more about political environments may enable organizations to introduce new strategies for effectively navigating political activities, as well.

Furthermore, politics' researchers repeatedly have faced obstacles in order to offer a widely acceptance definition for perceptions of organizational politics. They characteristically claim that 'politics is a messy topic to research' (Frost, 1989, p.13; Gunn & Chen, 2006). To address these controversies scholars have developed two conceptualizations that have permeated the literature so far (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2010). The first conceptualization is characterized by a pervasiveness of self-serving behavior in organizations (e.g. politics; Ferris and Hochwarter, 2010), describing politics as purposeful influence activities aiming at enhancing or protecting egoistic ends (Allen et al., 1979), incorporating manipulation, defamation, and coercive tactics (Vigoda, 2000). Thus, POPS refers to descriptions of colleagues' or managers' self-advancing behaviors (Pfeffer and Moore, 1980).

For instance, Ferris, Harrell-Cook, and Dulebohn (2000) maintained that POPS involves an individual's attribution to behaviors of self-serving intent, and is defined as 'an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior' (p.90). Similarly, Treadway et al. (2005, p.872) defined POPS as the 'individuals observations of other self-interested

behaviors, for example the selective manipulation of organizational policies'. Moreover, Gandz & Murray (1980:248) claimed that POPS is "a subjective state in which organizational members perceive themselves or others as intentionally seeking selfish ends in an organizational context when such ends are opposed to those of others".

Indeed, as mentioned earlier the negative view that individuals usually develop towards organizational politics is summarized in the following statement: 'if I told you were a very political person, you would take it either as an insult or at best as a mixed blessing' (Block, 1988: 5). More specifically, this notion is well rooted in the literature which also suggests that researchers often try to force a negative perspective but do they not more often diminish the opportunity to identify the grounds on which politics is viewed as a force for **good**.

Analogous suggestions were made by Kacmar & Baron, (1999), who noted that POPS reflects employees' perceptions that coworkers' behaviors are motivated, by self-interest, with little attention paid to others' well-being. Ferris et al. (2000; 2002) also proposed POPS as an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate self-serving behaviors.

In summary, researchers have defined POPS as perceptions of self-serving activities not officially sanctioned by the organization that often have detrimental effects (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Randall et al., 1999). By not officially sanctioned by the organization scholars meant that these occurred outside the 'official' governance apparatus and procedures, or aimed at

gained power over the official apparatus of organization; Common in the aforementioned approaches is the idea that POPS (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Drory and Romm, 1990) reflects the involvement of manipulation which undermines official policies and directs toward selfish resources and power accumulations. It associates also with complex strategies and tactics over an extended period of time (James, 2003; Vigoda, 2006).

Compared to the political behavior, which seeks to identify what actors actually do (e.g., the behavior demonstrated), POPS shifts the emphasis on what actors subjectively experience, perceive, or feel (Ferris and Hochwarter 2010). Essentially, politics are best described in terms of the perception of the individuals' political behaviors as questionable, unethical and engendering feelings of inequity and injustice (Gandz & Murray 1980; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Zahra, 1985). In this fashion, Vigoda (2003) assumed that POPS and political behaviors are interrelated but the reality is more complex because POPS is built on previous experiences that are partially cognitive reflecting the degree of the individuals' perception of their relative power (Bottger, 1984) while political behavior represents the actual existence of others behavior and political intentions (Valle & Perrewe, 2000).

The second perspective describes politics in neutral or even favorable terms (Fedor et al., 2008; Hochwarter, 2003a). This conceptualization suggests that politics is a necessary component to the healthy functioning of organizations. Buchanan and Badham (1999: 625) prompted to conclude that politics is 'deployed simultaneously in the pursuit and defence of organizational goals as well as for personal and career objectives'. Others (Provis, 2004; Vigoda, 2003)

emphasized that not all organizational members will perceive the presence of POPS as a threat; further, POPS seems to be perceived in neutral terms. According to politics' literature POPS is described as ubiquitous with multiple meanings and concepts which do not only have dark aspects (Block, 1988, Ferris et al., 1993, Vigoda, 2003) but also positive sides (Ferris and King, 1991).

In this way, scholars who treat POPS in neutral or even favorable terms (Fedor et al., 2008; Hochwarter, 2003a) argued that politics is necessary to the healthy functioning of organizations. They suggest that POPS reflects an inescapable component of the entity's social life to conclude that 'politics in organizations is simply a fact of life' (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992: 93). Similarly, Rosen et al. (2009) described organizational politics as both omnipresent and functionally necessary component of the organization. Specifically, research has recognized the notion that POPS 'is deployed simultaneously in the pursuit and defence of organizational goals as well as for personal and career objectives' (Buchanan and Badham, 1999, 625).

However, considerable differences among approaches to politics fueled researchers to cooperate closely for a better understanding of the field (Buchanan, 2008). The widespread call to include ethics in the study of management, organizations, and society (Ashforth, Gioia, Robinson, & Trevino, 2008) has also influenced politics' scholars to speculate an ethical approach in the study of POPS. Recently, it was reported (Kacmar et al., 2011) that the state of the economy is in large part the result of the (un)ethical choices of leaders across a broad spectrum of industries and all hope that when businesses and managers start acting ethically, markets and societies will be transformed

(Kacmar, Bachrach, and Harris, 2011). In response to this view, scholars consider the role of ethical leadership in an effort to understand the ways in which POPS might benefit from ethics. Ethical leadership is typically sensitive to traits and behaviors such as integrity, trustworthiness, showing concern for people, and following ethical decision rules accordingly (Trevino, 2000). Kacmar, Bachrach, and Harris (2011) found that males' citizenship behaviors are associated with ethical leadership while depending significantly on POPS. Further, research supported the moderating role of gender and POPS in the association between ethical leadership and citizenship behavior.

In addition, scholars suggested that POPS needs to be enriched with the potential that only a moral tradition of virtue ethics should offer (Provis, 2006). In favor of constructive POPS, Kurchner-Hawkins and Miller (2006) suggested shifting the emphasis from negative to positive political action, a shift of thinking and behaving from 'dark side' (egocentrism, intimidation, manipulation, and lack to ethical standards) to 'bright' and positive aspects (collaboration and trust-building, achievement-oriented, adoption of ethical patterns, p.332).

Furthermore, a consistent theme throughout the literature to understand relations between ethics and POPS is that of fairness and organizational justice (Roch and Shanock, 2006). Although POPS and organizational justice have an underlying common idea that of fairness (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Liverpool, 2006) [7] ; however, these two constructs are conceptually distinguishable

[7] Similarly, both represent system-level appraisals that impact employees' reciprocation-based behaviors directed toward their organization (e.g., Aryee et al., 2004; Colquitt et al., 2001; Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000, Rosen et al. 2009, p.204)

(Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Byrne, 2005; Cropanzano, Kacmar, & Bozeman, 1995). For instance, POPS represents employees' perceptions of self-serving behavior 'to obtain some advantage, such as promotion, power, or better performance evaluation' (Beugre & Liverpool, 2006, pp. 125–126) while procedural justice reflects employees' perception of fair treatment regarding procedures and features of decision that underlies accuracy of information used to make decisions (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002).

Similarly, empirical evidences (Rosen et al., 2009) support the uniqueness of those constructs (POPS, procedural justice). Relatedly, Andrews and Kacmar (2001), in a study entails confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the independence of scales that measure procedural justice and POPS. Others, however, reveal the importance of examining all factors that cause them and found that politics and justice perceptions have unique antecedents (Aryee et al., 2004). POPS, therefore, is developed as a distinct, unique concept where many differences exist among these two constructs.

Additionally, theorists who are interested in comparing POPS to organizational politics have articulated few differences. Accordingly, the key factor that distinguish each construct from the other and therefore evaluated, is the way in which are viewed in the mind of the individuals. Organizational politics refers to the objective political behaviors in which organizational members engage in, whereas POPS involves the subjective evaluation of these political activities (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar and Baron, 1999; Vigoda and Cohen, 2001; Vigoda, 2003). Therefore, organizational politics is described as observable and objective while on the other hand POPS is the subjective

evaluation of those activities and varies substantially across individuals, situations and time (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992). As a result, it is indicated that POPS is conceptualized as an individual level construct (Darr and Johns, 2004). For instance, it has been linked with people's views and feelings when they receive preferential treatment over others and hold power resources (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2003).

To conclude, in the last decades various assets by different perspectives have helped to define and understand POPS better. However, most studies tend to suggest that POPS is a cognitive evaluation of perceptions of events that determines people's responses and the outcomes of those responses (e.g., Ferris et al., 1995). Finally, in the heart of the existent research lies the model of POPS which was firstly suggested by Ferris et al. (1989) and later developed by Ferris and Kacmar (1992). The following unit presents a detailed analysis of this model and begins with a general overview taking into consideration the previous statement.

3. 3 Model of perceptions of organizational politics (POPS)

Opposed to the politics tradition which concentrated on a pure ideology, Ferris et al. (1989) had the explicit aim to simplify politics narrow content by examining it empirically. They developed a scale to measure perceptions of organizational politics, the model of POPS. The past decade has been marked by this model (for a detailed review see Ferris et al., 2002) which has challenged the foundations of mainstream organizational thinking. Considering the scale of impact of this model, it becomes apparent why their POPS study remains one of

the classics in the Industrial and Organizational literature. Further, Ferris's work has inspired a number of scholars and since then various research efforts are consistent with his perspective (e.g., Drory & Romm, 1988; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Zhou & Ferris, 1995, Vigoda, 2005) in their study of work politics. Thus, it still remains the predominant model that scholars resist to change the way they view POPS so far.

Analytically, this model incorporates the causes and the attitudinal consequences of POPS in addition with variables that moderate POPS-consequences' relationships. Ferris, Russ and Fandt (1989) identified the following as antecedents of POPS: organizational factors (including centralization, hierarchical level, formalization, and span of control), job factors (autonomy, job control, feedback, promotion opportunities, skill variety) and individual factors (age, gender, Machiavellians, self-promoting). Consequences of perceived politics included: job involvement and satisfaction, increased anxiety and a greater likelihood of organizational withdrawal, with employee control over the work environment a potential mediator.

According to Kacmar & Carlson (1997) and Zhou & Ferris (1995) POPS is a multidimensional construct which is synthesized by different dimensions. At least three dimensions are measured in the POPS scale (Kacmar & Carlson 1997) labeled as: *general political behavior*, *go along to get ahead*, and *pay and promotions*. Clarifying further, the *coworkers' political behavior* involves behaviors exhibited by co-workers aiming at maximizing individual self-interest even at the expense of others for instance, backstabbing, subunits' power-building exercises, activities of interest groups (Ferris et al., 1989). *Pay and*

promotions refer to the extent that politics influence human resources functions such as the reward practices and organizational decision-making processes (Pfeffer, 1981; Ferris et al., 1989, 1991). The *going along to get ahead* dimension represents the tactics individuals use to achieve their aims such as ingratiating one by agreeing with those in power. *Coalition building* was held of getting benefits such as higher pay and faster promotions. The perceived existence of a dominant group leads to control resources allocation and influences the decision-making processes. Thus, POPS is largely based on the above dimensions and might be the means through which both individuals and groups seek to control the resources, policies and decision making (Ashforth and Anand, 2003). However, scholars have extended the dimensionality of POPS by including the examination of antecedents of POPS (Gandz and Murray, 1980).

Conversely, POPS model has been criticized on several grounds. For instance, some criticism addresses characteristics of the model itself. Here, the criticism concentrates on the levels of analysis, where POPS measure the views and behaviors of the political observers than political actors and analyze the employees' perceptions of the political behavior of the most powerful individuals (Harris et al., 2007, Silvester, 2007). It was found that individuals who believe they possess little power or ability to influence others then they might be more stressful (Harris et al., 2007) than others who do not. Other criticism relies on the research design and methodology (Ferris et al., 2002) employed for the examination of POPS. For example, Randall et al. (2002) has criticized this territory by the paucity of self-report measurements, the attendant risk of common methods variance and the lack of longitudinal studies.

3. 4 POPS and positive outcomes

Historically, POPS have been characterised as a negative process (Ferris & Treadway, 2012) including notions of self-serving and unsavoury actions for getting things done . Indeed, scholars and practitioners focused on the negative aspects of organisation politics so strong (Hochwarter, 2012) that often act as if the phenomenon "carries the imprit of the devil'' (Simpson, 1994, p.438). As such, research suggested that these acts lead to negative interpersonal and organisational outcomes (Ferris & Treadway, 2012).

However, very little attention has been given to the positive aspects of POPS (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2012), leaving the field with a limited understanding of political phenomena (Ferris et al., 2002). More specifically, discussions have begun to offer support for understanding and studying the positive possibilities of organisational politics (Hochwarter, 2012). As a result, only few scholars view POPS as a participatory, constructive, interactive process (Provis, 2006; Gotsis and Kortezi, 2011) which dominates the organization's life. For example, Ferris et al (1989; 1992; 1994) noted that POPS can account for job involvement when employees experience POPS as an opportunity stress. In favour of such cases, employees perceived organizational politics as an opportunity to capitalize on the situation and increased the time and effort put into their jobs which in turn, indeed (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Schuler, 1980) strengthening job involvement. Relevant to this approach, scholars contend that POPS leads to desirable management outcomes including lower strain (Ferris et al., 1993) and increased performance (Maslyn &Fedor, 1998; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2007).

In addition, it was suggested that POPS leads to enhancement of personal power, recognition from others, realization of personal and organizational goals, a feeling of achievement, nurturing of the ego, self-control and self-realization and contribute to the career advancement (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011). Similarly, Randolph (1985) reported that organizational politics provides employees with a crucial source of power to influence and promote a variety of goals. Employees use political events as a device to communicate, protect and enhance their self-interests and can be beneficial for them or their organization (Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, & Battenhausen, 2008). For instance, managers who are good politicians are able to develop strong network ties and increase their social capital in part because they create a large number of resources to their subordinates (Treadway et al., 2007).

The positive impact of POPS on leadership has also been investigated and results have been useful. Ammeter (2002) noted that POPS enable leaders 'to minimize the amount of ambiguity that occurs in organizations and to give meaning to organizational phenomena where uncertainty exists' (p.754). Vigoda (2006), Gunn and Chen (2003) proposed that positive POPS can be used to advantage strategic management processes. In this case, strategic management processes are inherently political and people engage in political, rational and technical processes to largely affect information services and project implementation. Furthermore, Gandz and Murray (1980), Bacharach (2005) proved that political behavior at work can be positive and necessary in many cases. Ferris and King, (1991) found that forms of political behavior at work is positively related to the manager's positive attitude toward his\her employees. Moreover, a recent stream of research recognized the importance of positive

aspects of political behaviour and proposed a framework of leader political support provided to the followers' utililizing a social capital perspective (Ellen III et al., 2013).

Relatedly, Wainwright and Waring (2004) emphasized also that information management services have a better implementation when taking into account political issues and power. Simultaneously they proposed that different leadership styles may affect organizational politics and eventually employees' performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007b) evaluations. Such analyses regarding POPS reveal a positive relationship with performance outcomes including productivity and work quality, decreased error rate, increased ability to achieve goals and objectives, and improved general performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2010). Overall, positive political behavior up to now has been limited to specific forms of organizational citizenship behavior (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b, Nelson and Cooper, 2007) such as (Graham and Van Dyne, 2006) proactive civil virtue (e.g., gathering information and exercising influence).

A limited number of studies have recognized important role issues such as empowerment (Chen et al., 2007), organizational democracy (Johnson, 2006) and employees' dignity (Sayer, 2007) which increase employees' positive political behavior. Scholars in this way, suggested that POPS needs to be enriched by a moral tradition of virtue ethics (Provis, 2006). In favor of such cases, Kurchner-Hawkins and Miller (2006, p.332) recommended that politics research begins to encompass a shift of thinking and behaving from a 'dark side' (egocentrism, intimidation, manipulation, and lack to ethical standards) to its

positive aspects (collaboration and trust-building, achievement-oriented, adoption of ethical patterns).

In employment settings, however, research maintains that such positive aspects of political behaviors have more to do with positivity-oriented theories (e.g., Luthans and Youssef, 2007). The value of positivity theoretically seems to be well conceptualized in literature (Cameron et al., 2003; Cazabarker and Caza, 2008). Therefore, literature emerges that it is this level of positivity (and dispositional factors) that solidifies people's perceptions and affords them to think POPSs as a threat or as opportunity.

The effects of POPS on HRM

Similar are the results regarding the effects of POPS on Human Resources Management. For example, research (Vigoda et al., 2008, 2000) suggested that many of the problems associated with the traditional functions of Human Resources are related to dysfunctional aspects of POPS. It was found that POPS introduces a serious bias into Human Resources Management (HRM) functions and potentially damages the selection, evaluation, and promotion processes (Vigoda, 2000). It seems that POPS evokes conflicts and power games among employees and high levels of POPS can be connected with high favoritism in HR decision making. As a consequence of this divisive component of politics, deconstructive HRM decisions may be enhanced (Vigoda, 2000). These assertions are consistent with the conceptualization of POPS that reflect purposeful acts to enhance one's egoistic standing (Allen et al., 1979). In other words, parties engage in political capacities and use them to advance narrow individual interests. Thus, in such conditions, organizations are characterized by

vague HR standards, unfairness in evaluating employees' performance (Tziner, Lathem, Price, & Haccoun, 1996) and biased performance appraisals.

However, it was also found that POPS (Zellars & Fiorito, 1999; Zivnuska, Kacmar et al., 2004) cannot always cause damage on human resources in terms of decision making, but it can bring also some meaningful positive outcomes. For example, when HR decision making is not enacted behind the scenes (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001) and the standards regarding recruitment, performance evaluation, training and promotion procedures are unambiguous, unfairness and injustice in HR processes are few and far between. Dipboye (1995:5, 2002) argues that in essence 'decision makers resort to political behavior in which they construct HRM procedures' (staffing, appraisal, compensation, and training).

4.6 Summary regarding the aims of this research

Overall this thesis defines POPS as the degree to which employees and their organizational members perceive their work environment as inherently political, by pursuing self-interest of those engaging in workplace politics (Conner, 2006; Dipboye and Foster, 2002; Ferris et al., 1998, 2002; Hochwarter et al., 1999; Rosen et al., 2006; Ladebo, 2006; Ma Chao and Fang, 2006; Valle and Perrewe, 2000). Specifically, I adopt the definition that '*POPS reflects an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work-environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior* (Ferris et al., 2000, p. 90). Accordingly, POPS reflects cognitive evaluations of activities and events that determine not only people's responses but also the outcomes of these responses (Ferris et al., 1995).

Yet, I test POPS on an individual level of analysis (not in a group level) and this thesis examines a model of antecedents and consequences of POPS. The model to be tested (Fig.1) poses personality traits as antecedents of POPS while the variables of Organisational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) toward individuals (OCB-I) and toward organisation (OCB-O), innovativeness behaviour (IRB), turnover intentions and affective commitment are proposed as outcomes. This thesis is designed to reinforce the understanding of the individuals' dynamics that foster POPS in organisations, and further explores the effects of POPS on those outcomes. In addition, the ideas of this thesis will challenge the current thinking of POPS research by developing the concept of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE). Moreover, it suggests that political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) to be tested as moderator between POPS-turnover intentions and POPS-affective commitment relations. The development of innovativeness related behaviour scale (IRB) is also presented.

Furthermore, I propose that Organisational cynicism associates with POPS and hypothesize that it will mediate the relationships between POPS and Organisational Citizenship Behavior (OCB-I and OCB-O), POPS and innovativeness behaviour (IRB). Similarly, I explore the hypothesis that the relationships between POPS and turnover intentions, POPS and affective commitment will be mediated by trust (organisational and interpersonal). Additionally, I examine the role of political influence behavior as mediator between POPS -affective commitment, POPS -turnover intentions relations.

Since the existence of changes within the financial institutions due to economic crisis in Hellas, an investigation with the agenda to learn more about

POPS over time seems fitted. Particularly, I investigate whether POPS measured at Time 1 predict the outcomes variables (i.e., OCB-I, OCB-O, innovativeness related behaviour, turnover intentions, and affective commitment) measured at Time 2. In light of such assertions, my general framework is presented in Figure 1. Such objectives should set the foundation for the aims of this thesis where the construct of political skill self-efficacy introduced and tested to the POPS-innovativeness behaviour , POPS- work outcomes relationship.

The purpose of the present chapter was to enrich the understanding about the perception of organisational politics, the rationale behind the chosen variable. Having achieved this understanding, the dissertation will now address the antecedents of POPS and each of the variables in the model to be examined as hypotheses are formulated.

CHAPTER 4-*THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT*

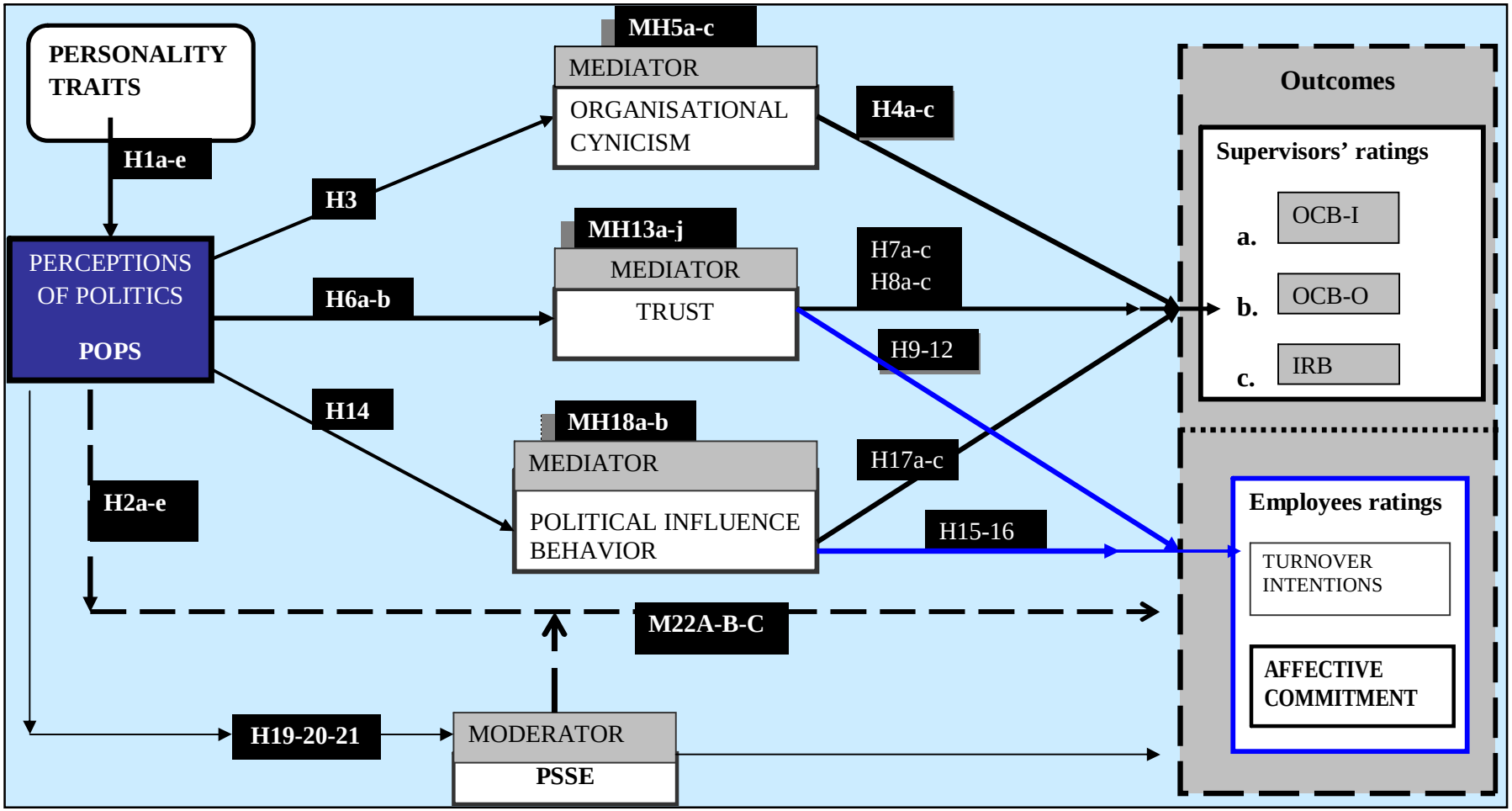
4. 1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the building of the hypotheses as they are included in the model of examination (Fig 1). First, it will summarize current research findings on antecedents of POPS (Fig.2) and explore how personality traits predict POPS. In addition, the associations between POPS at Time 1 (T1) and the outcomes variables measured at Time 2 (e.g., OCBs, Innovativeness, turnover intentions, affective commitment) will be described and greater details for the hypotheses will be addressed.

Next, following a review in the literature it will examine the association between POPS (T1) and organisational cynicism (T1) and investigate mediating and moderating variables that explain the relationship between POPS (T1) and these outcomes namely OCBs Innovativeness, turnover intentions, affective commitment. This part of the thesis seeks not only to expand the theoretical understanding of POPS, but also fill any gaps regarding its development.

The second part of this chapter introduces the political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) construct and investigates whether or not PSSE moderates employees' perceptions of politics to IRB, turnover intentions and affective commitment relations.

Figure 1*The Hypothesized Model Of Examination*



Note: *H=hypothesis, MH=Mediating Hypothesis, M=moderators*

4. 2 Antecedents of POPS: The introduction and examination of personality traits

As previously discussed, research regarding POPS has long recognized organizations as political arenas (Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981) and this idea has been around since the foundation of this phenomenon. As a result, of particular interest are factors that might lead POPS scholars to demonstrate a number of variables that serve as antecedents of POPS. While the results for antecedents of POPS have been useful, it still remains to be answered what finally drives individuals into POPS? How do individuals' characteristics contribute to that? The answer to these questions might be further developed through research on personality traits.

One model demonstrating the greatest amount of influence for the studies examining the causes of POPS is the model of POPS (Ferris et al., 1989). Accordingly, scholars as Ferris, Russ and Fandt (1989), Kacmar and Ferris (1991) have proposed and identified three groups of variables to be indicators of POPS. These are *a)* organizational factors (e.g., centralization, hierarchical level, formalization, span of control) *b)* job factors (e.g., autonomy, job control, feedback, promotion opportunities, skill variety) and *c)* individual factors (e.g., age, gender, Machiavellianism, self-monitoring). These researchers distinguish individual from other types of organizational antecedents by offering a detailed, in-depth, identification and categorical specification of causes.

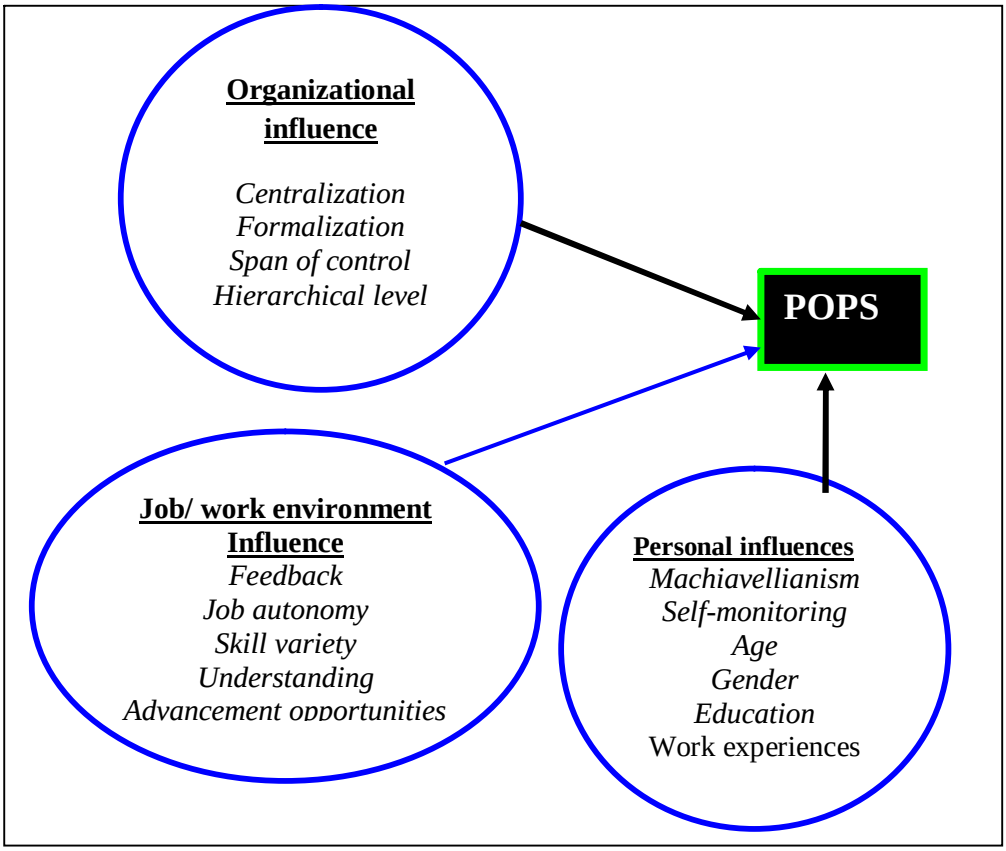
To further illustrate this point, research defines the contents of individual factors according to the dimensions of Machiavellianism, locus of

control, risk seeking propensity, individual's need for power and lack of personal power. It was found that, at least partially, those factors guide an individual's behavior to engage in political activities (Ferris et al., 1996; Kacmar, Bozeman and Anthony, 1999) and is associated with increased levels of perceived politics. In terms of this formation, Ferris, Fedor, and King (1994) placed Machiavellianism as one of the most important determinants of POPS. Others have concluded that individuals who exhibit Machiavellian orientations are more likely to be involved in politics, whereas they differentiate from those who do not. Furthermore, studies suggest that Machiavellians consider the ambiguity and unfairness inherently in political environments as supportive and advantageous to them. For example, it was highlighted that High Machiavellians (as measured by scale Christie and Geis, 1970; Fehr, Samson, & Paulhus, 1992) are talented people in using influence tactics including strategic self-disclosure, ingratiation, and intimidation (Dinger-Dubon and Brown, 1987, Harrell, 1980, Pandey and Rastogi, 1979) allowing them to engage in activities that promote and secure their positions.

Similarly, it was also suggested that the propensity to behave politically is determined by understanding with regard to the gaining of knowledge from familiarity within a given situation (e.g., Ferris, Frink et al., 1996; Ferris et al., 1994; Gilmore et al., 1996). Krell, Mendenhall, and Sendry (1987) asserted that POPS depends on the perceiver's understanding of the working settings. For instance, a person who routinely investigates and consequently understands the rules of his/her organization may view managing coalitions as normal. On the other hand, a person who doesn't understand these activities and the corresponding rules may feel uncomfortable and label this

behavior as illegitimate (i.e., outside the normal scope of the acceptable behavior) and, therefore, political. Accordingly, Gilmore et al. (1996) highlighted that the better the understanding of how a political process works the better will be the deal and adoption in the working environments. Hence, understanding averts many of the aforementioned individual level negative outcomes and an experienced person may more often deem what a less experienced person believes to be politics as legitimate organizational behaviour (Conner, 2006). Figure 2 presents a summary of the antecedents of POPS as they have been suggested in the literature.

Figure 2 *Antecedents of POPS*



Source*: Ferris et al., 1989; 2002; Kacmar and Baron, 1999*

According to the literature organizational/situational variables constitutes of centralization, span of control, hierarchy level are found to predict POPS. Centralization refers to the extent to which the power to make decisions is distributed throughout the organization (Hage & Aiken, 1967). Therefore, when this power is clustered at the higher levels then centralization is considered high and as a result political behavior appears also high for attempting to influence decision makers. Ferris et al., (1996), Eisenhardt and Bourgeois (1988), Welsh and Slusher (1986) found a direct positive relationship between POPS and centralization.

Furthermore, researchers (e.g., Harris & Kacmar, 2005; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006; Valle & Perrewe, 2000) demonstrated that specific job situations namely feedback, job autonomy, individuals skills variety, job opportunities, advancement of opportunities, and especially interaction with others, have an impact on employees perceptions of politics. In line with these, scholars have affirmed that limited advancement of opportunities at work mobilizes individuals to continually construe the situation as the product of organizational politics and is expected to increase POPS. Extensive research in this field reported similar results (Ferris & Buckley, 1990; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison et al., 1980). Indeed, it was claimed that the lack of sufficient feedback to formulate acceptable behavior encourages individuals to develop guidelines to favor themselves and when such actions occur then perceptions of politics are likely to increase (Ferris & Kacmar, 1990). Additionally, interactions with others have been examined as antecedents of POPS and it was concluded that employees who

have poor relations with co-workers and superiors tend to perceive higher levels of politics and vice versa.

As proposed by scholars (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Treadway & Watson, 2004) politics can be perceived differentially at multiple levels within the organization and the results regarding hierarchy levels are mixed. Few studies (i.e., Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) suggested that POPS was more prevalent at higher organizational levels while Drory (1993) argued that employees at lower (non-managerial) levels were more likely -than those at higher levels- to describe their organizational environment as political.

To sum up, most researchers in this area found a number of factors that serve as predictors of POPS, however, this previous evidence displayed two limitations. First, following the original work by Ferris et al. (1989) as well as Ferris and Kacmar (1992) significant amount of research (Kacmar et al., 1999; Parker et al., 1995) devoted in the examination of antecedents of POPS mainly focused on structural, job/work influences. Others have yet substantiated the pervasiveness of POPS in organizational settings (Cropanzano, Kacmar & Bozeman, 1995; Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter & Ammeter, 2002; Kacmar & Baron, 1999).

Second, researchers (Grams and Rogers, 1990, Vecchio and Sussman, 1991) pointed out that the above models regarding antecedents of POPS have been less than conclusive. They focused mainly on demographic variables such gender, age, organizational level or organizational tenure (e.g., Ferris, Fink, Bhawuk et al., 1996; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Ferris, Fink Galang et al., 1996) with only few exceptions those of O'Connor and Morrison (2001), Valle

and Perrewe (1992).Valle and Perrewe (2000) explored the relationship between personality-POPS by examining the mediating role of POPS between dispositions such as locus of control, self-monitoring, Machiavellianism, job satisfaction, intentions to turnover and job anxiety.

Despite findings dedicated to the causes of POPS as discussed above, the question of what is more crucial for guiding office politics generally remains incomplete. Indeed, Ferris et al., (1996, p.262) suggested that 'there is a vast area of social and political dynamics inside organisations that remain largely unexplored'. With regard to the latter, few studies have explored personal characteristics and a starting point for this research rests on the recognition of personality traits. The next section includes relevant findings as chains between personality traits and POPS.

4. 2. 1 POPS and Personality-Introduction

Scholars' efforts have been challenged for their inability to expand the domain of individual differences examined in relation to POPS (Ferris, Hochwarter et al., 2002; 2003; 2009). More specifically, this area is limited since the previous findings do not account for the full range of factors as potential antecedents. In addition, Valle and Perrewe, (2000) highlight the need for investigating further antecedents of POPS. In addition, a study by Christiansen, Villanova and Mikulay (1997: 710)[8] claimed that individual differences may operate with POPS to predict a host of work outcomes. In the

[8] Christiansen et al. (1997) asked, "Are all workers impacted by politics equally, or do organizational politics affect the attitudes of some individuals but not others?"

domain of empirical testing there is lack of knowledge concerning the extent specific personality traits are of potential use to predict POPS.

Alternatively, only few studies have assessed the moderating effects of some personality traits (Hochwarter, Witt & Kacmar, 2000) on POPS. Alongside, Ferris et al. (2008) have argued strongly for the importance of the extraversion and conscientiousness trait in their model of political skill, which has much in common with the notion of perceptions of politics. Furthermore, significant positive correlations between positive affectivity and political skill have been reported in two studies (Kolondisky, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2004). Hochwarter, Witt and Kacmar (2000) implicated that perceptions of politics moderated the conscientiousness-job performance relationships such that perceptions of politics were negatively related to the job performance of low rather than high conscientiousness employees.

Recently, Rosen et al. (2006) declared that our knowledge of the antecedents and consequences of organisational politics remains incomplete (Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999). Therefore, there is need to move our understanding in this area forward. In line with other researchers who expressed the need to account for other variables that serve as antecedents, this thesis aims to enrich the understanding in the field by acknowledging and examining the role of personality traits. I suppose that personality characteristics would help to explain why some employees perceive organizational politics at work and others do not

4. 2. 2 POPS and Personality-Hypotheses

Dispositional characteristics viewed (House et al., 1996) as tendencies to respond to situations in a particular predetermined manner as opposed to other objectively assessed characteristics of individuals. I focus on personality traits based on Big Five (BFM) model of personality because these are defined as the most stable individual dispositions over time and context (Adams, Treadway and Stepina, 2008; House et al, 1996; Weiss and Adler, 1984). In addition, given that the Big Five Model of personality predicts numerous work-related outcomes (e.g., job performance, deviance; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), it is believed that is likely to influence POPS.

To start with personality is defined as an "individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotions, and behavior" (Funder, 1997, p. 1). Compared with values, which can evolve over time (Chatman, 1991), personality indicates more stable patterns (Epstein, 1979; Fleeson, 2001, 2004). Judge and Cable (1997) noted that personality traits may be more observable than values and are used to predict future behavior (Kenny, 1994; Wiggins, 1979).

Specifically, I focus on the five-model of personality, frequently referred to as the Big Five personality dimensions (Goldberg, 1993; John & Srivastava, 1999; McCrae & Costa, 1999). The Big Five is currently the most comprehensive and widely accepted taxonomy of personality traits, and researchers interested in the organizational outcomes of personality have increasingly adopted the Big Five dimensions as the most useful framework (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hogan & Hogan, 1991; Judge, Bono, Ilies, &

Gerhardt, 2002). Given that research has supported the heritability of these fundamental personality dispositions (McCrae & Costa, 1987) therefore, I also use the five-factor model as a robust classification of personality (e.g., Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1987). In support, this well-accepted taxonomy enhances understanding of the relationship between personality constructs and important organisational criteria.

Therefore, the empirically derived five factor model of personality referred to as the Big Five (McCrae and Costa, 1987) contains a promising lead and it allows me to contribute to a pragmatic and accumulating body of findings building from prior research. As a result, this thesis will add uniquely to the growing body of the POPS literature by examining less researched dispositional POPS predictors over and above Machiavellianism, formalization (Fedor et al, 1998; Ferris, Frink, Galang et al, 1996), interactions with co-workers and supervisors (Ferris and Kacmar; 1992; Kacmar and Baron, 1999; Parker et al, 1995).

The construct labels and representative traits of Big Five Personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992) are named as following: *Extraversion* (sociable, talkative, active, and ambitious); *Agreeableness* (courteous, trusting, cooperative, and empathic); *Conscientiousness* (dependable, organized, persistent, and achievement oriented); *Neuroticism* (anxious, upset, emotional distress, and unstable), *Openness to experience* (imaginative, cultured, broad-minded, and flexible). Research has led to the recognition that the set of these five factors reflects the contents of almost every major personality inventory in the last two decades, supporting with strong evidence its robustness across

cultures and measures (e.g., Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1992 McCrae & Costa, 1987).

Extraversion This dispositional variable reflects an outgoing likeable and interpersonal pleasant orientation. Furthermore, it implies an "energetic approach to the social and material world and includes traits such as sociability, activity, assertiveness, and positive emotionality" (John & Stivarstava, 1999, p. 121). A person who is high on extraversion can be described as sociable, assertive, energetic, ambitious, and as someone who seeks excitement and generally tends to be in a good mood (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). Although unexplored its direct relation with organizational politics, the tendency to meet and socialize with others plays an important role in explaining individual perceptions of organizational politics.

As such, individuals with strong desires for excitement, social interaction and adventure tend to engage in social based activities and perceive political activities as attempts to maximize their visibility and be recognized. Chao et al. (1994) identified a dimension of organizational socialization they called "politics." Yet, it has been suggested (Baron & Markman, 2000; Burt, 1997; House, 1997, Luthans et al., 1988) that socializing and politicking is a dominant activity of managers. It refers to the formal conversations and 'chit-chat' that are used by managers to communicate and reflect in sharing gossips, rumors, passive or active impression management and influence behaviors.

Furthermore, extraversion was found to be positively associated to actual sales (Vincur et al., 1998) and more to job performance in occupations where interactions with others were a necessary component of their job

(Mount, Barrick, & Steward, 1998). Significant positive correlations found (Ferris et al., 2005) of the political skill composite with extraversion (r=.58). Similarly, extraversion found to relate strongly with the interpersonal influence and networking ability dimensions of political skill (Ferris, Zinko, Perrewe, Weitz, and Xu, 2009). One relevant theory suggested by previous scholars to explain these associations is the socio-analytic theory.

According to socio-analytic theory (Hogan 1983, 1996) there are two motives underlying personality traits: the first is to *get along* including cooperation with others in a friendly and positive way, and the second is to *get ahead* in order to achieve status and power. Hogan and Holland (2002) claimed that the motive to get along is expressed in the personality traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness. Alternatively, the motive to get ahead is expressed in the traits of extraversion and openness to experience. It should be noted that previous research suggested that the strength of these motives differs from person to person and work contexts.

In this way, these motives can largely impact on the formation of employee perceptions of politics at work. Equally, political contexts at work are ranging from extremely beneficial to exceedingly noxious (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Hochwarter, Kolodinsky, et al., 2006). For example, political environments characterised as inherently chaotic, pervasive associated with conflicts, coalition building where the distracting nature of political activity permeates employees' activities (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Hochwarter, Kolodinsky et al., 2006). In such contexts political behaviors described as egocentric actions without concern of others or organisations.

Based on the above socio-analytic theoretical approach and drawing from the expectancy theory of motivation, I suggest that the tendency of extraverts for active, socially responsive life leads them to perceive less unfavorable political environments. Accordingly, individuals who express extraversion have the tendency to seek interaction opportunities to express their extraversion. In these cases, POPS facilitates their aims and enhances their expectations to develop coalitions, interactions with others and accordingly, they might be less likely to perceive negatively the political behaviours. Moreover, as organisational politics has an egocentric orientation it becomes interlaced with extraversion because these activities are necessary for individuals with a strong interest in ongoing life (consequently political dynamics of the working organisations). Therefore, I proposed that these individuals believe that will benefit from political environments and the evidence provide a basis for explaining the relation of extraversion with POPS. Thus,

Hypothesis 1a: Extraversion (Time 1) will have a direct positive relationship with POPS (Time 1)

Agreeableness can be described as sympathetic, kind, altruistic, generous, fair and eager to help others (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). An agreeable personality reflects a personal disposition that captures friendliness, likeability, and the capacity for getting along with others in pleasant harmonious relationships. It stems from the temperamental self-regulatory system, involving control variables such as anger regulation and cognitive inhibition (Ahadi & Rothbart, 1994). Agreeable people tend to be

altruistic and cooperative, with an expectation that others will do the same (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Previous research that has examined the predicting role of agreeableness and performance outcomes offers some insights here. The relationship of agreeableness and performance outcomes (Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowildo, 2001) has been studied including Organisational Citizenship Behavior (Organ and Ryan, 1995) and a positive correlation between agreeableness and various measures of citizenship performance has been found. At this point, Mount et al. (1998) demonstrated that out of the five dimensions of personality traits agreeableness was the best predictor of performance, particularly in jobs which required team-based interaction. The results of meta-analysis (IIlies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller & Johnson, 2009) revealed that agreeableness had both direct and indirect effects on citizenship performance targeted at individuals.

Similarly, researchers argued that agreeableness concerns a person's motives for maintaining positive relations with others, and allowing individuals to minimize the negative effects of interpersonal conflict and get along in groups (e.g., Hogan, 1983). A number of studies suggested, however, that agreeable individuals are not motivated to attain power (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; Judge et al., 2002; Kyl-Heku & Buss, 1996; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990) are not more likely to strategically network (Kyl-Heku & Buss, 1996); nor to use power assertion tactics (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996) or influence tactics, such as inspirational appeal or ingratiation (Cable & Judge, 2003) to achieve their aims. Subsequently, it has been

claimed that agreeable individuals are predisposed to seek out interpersonally supportive and accepting environments (e.g., Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002; Wiggins, 1991).

As confirmed by Ferris et al. (1989) organizational politics can be an environmental distraction, particularly for individuals with little interest in ongoing political dynamics. In particular, when employees believe that organisational politics would not fulfil their expectations because they are not interpersonally supportive environments then they are likely to perceive them negatively. Furthermore, as agreeable employees show little interest in political dynamics, and contemplate the unfavourable interactions they have had with their colleagues and managers because of politics, such conditions are likely to influence people's POPS or possibly heighten them. Therefore, through that agreeableness seems to view the political environments unfavourable and no cooperative for themselves because these environments are not satisfying their expectations and tendencies. In other words, according to this piece of evidence I hypothesise that

Hypothesis 1b: Agreeableness (Time 1) will have a direct negative relationship with POPS (Time 1)

Openness to experience describes "the breadth, depth, originality, and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life" (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 121). Individuals who are high on openness are described as curious, creative, unconventional, and broad minded. They are motivated to become deeply involved in the fictitious world of characters in books, movies, plays, as well as to attend the moods and feelings that different environments produce

(Costa and McCrae, 1996), and are willing to engage in learning experiences (Barrick et al., 2001). Studies regarding the measurement of this factor (e.g., NEO PI-R, Costa and MacCrae, 1992 and IPIP, Goldberg, 2000) grouped openess to experiences into two sub-dimensions (so-called facets). One 'openness to internal experiences' contains the NEO PI-R facets of Fantasy, Aesthetics and Feelings and the other 'openness to external experience' the NEO PI-R facets of Actions, Ideas and Values (Griffin, Hesketh, & Grayson, 2004). However, openness to experiences remains the most controversial, least understood, and least researched of the five factors (McCrae, 1993, 1994).

In addition, Bing and Lounsbury (2000), Marsh, Kiechel Koles, Boyce, and Zaccaro (2001), and George and Zhou (2001) suggested that openness may only be relevant in certain situations or occupational groups, such as those characterized by novelty or complexity. In a meta-analysis by Barrick et al. (2001) it was found that of the five factors openness to experience has the lowest score correlation with performance across criteria and occupations. In support, scholars reported that behaviors within the domain of fantasy, aesthetic (internal openness to experience) is perceived as detrimental for a work context while those reflecting actions, ideas (external openness to experiences) are more likely to be perceived as beneficial (Griffin, Hesketh, & Grayson, 2004).

Specifically, perceptions of politics research employed openness to experience only as a moderator of the relationship between political skill and specific performance outcomes. For example, studies found weak and inconsistent effects of openness to experience on sales performance outcomes,

(Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001) however, others (Hogan & Holland, 2003) suggested how it influences a salespersons technical skill and found that salespeople with high scores on openness to experiences have the potential for considerable job knowledge, market savvy and innovative sales approaches. Their natural facility to use symbols and evocative-emotional language facilitates their job with potential customers, if they have uncertain, unstable or unidentified preferences, and if they seek to buy dreams and identities (Pfeffer, 1981). In addition, results of another body of research (Barrick et al., 2001; Blickle et al., 2010) suggest that those high in openness to experiences and political skill will have a positive relationship particularly to sales performance outcomes if symbolic benefits are desired by customers (e.g., status, identity, virtual group membership).

Therefore, it seems that high openness to experience individuals have the tendency to readily adapt to change, and creatively solve complex problems (LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000). Additionally, they are described as being imaginative, tolerant of ambiguity, and amenable to new ideas, experiences and perspectives. According to these scholars, employees who score high in openness to experience tend to be tolerant to ambiguity. Yet, as their desire to solve creatively complex problems increases when they are being faced with political situations they might be more likely prone to interpret these events as and opportunity of pursuing their curiosity. Then, as a result, it is reasonable to assume that political activities are likely to be seeing as something bringing the expected outcomes for them.

Obviously, political environments are described by scholars as complex in which individuals do not understand exactly what is being valued or ignored: their performance, their relationship with their manager, their influence in the workplace, or other factors. The perceptions of politics model of Ferris, Russ and Fandt (1989) included understanding as an antecedent to POPS formation while POPS is generally viewed in a negative light (Buchanan & Badham, 1999). A useful also framework to explain the relationship among POPS and openness arises from the control theory.

The control theory has been used in many management studies to explain situations where employees recognize an asymmetry in their exchange relationship with their organization and engage in negative behaviors (Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). According to control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982) individuals assess their present conditions and attempt to reduce imbalances when they occur. Taking into account the idea that employees engage in political events in an attempt to restore balance with their working place, could help explain why employees with the traits of openness to experience in fact attribute to politics. Thus, individuals high in openness to experience are more likely to view POPS as an opportunity to restore imbalances with their organization.Therefore, formally I propose

Hypothesis 1c: Openness to experiences (Time 1) will have a positive relationship with POPS (Time 1)

Conscientiousness It refers to "socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task- and goal-directed behavior" (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 121). Conscientious individuals are characterized as efficient, detail oriented,

thorough in their work, hardworking, self-disciplined, and achievement oriented (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). This characteristic appears to capture the personal qualities of dependability, and the extent to which one is generally hard working, detail-oriented, and responsible (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). That is, individuals high in conscientiousness put great effort to complete tasks and are generally rule-abiding. Finally, conscientious persons focus on achievement rather than on interpersonal relationships (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and they likely motivate employees to fulfill their job duties more diligently and with more effort (Peterson et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996)

Prior research examining conscientiousness and its association with a variety of performance outcomes offers some insight. It appears that conscientiousness provides the strongest relationship of the other personality traits with job-performance, namely Organisational Citizenship behaviors, generalizes across a range of positions (Organ and Ryan 1995) Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997). Lapierre and Hackett (2007) found that conscientiousness increases Organisational citizenship behaviors (OCB), which enhances leader– member exchange quality, leading to greater job satisfaction. However, it has long been suggested (Barrick & Mount, 1993) that the effects of consciousness on performance were primary mediated by exogenous variables as expectancy or accomplishment striving (Gellatly, 1996); Barrick, Steward, and Piotrowski, (2002). Barrick & Mount (1993) concluded that autonomy is one important moderator of this relationship and Witt (2002) considered extraversion in an effort to better comprehend

mechanisms underlying performance and social skill. One is well advised to include the nature of political skill (Witt and Ferris, 2003) as a moderator between conscientiousness interpersonal facilitation and contextual performance.

Furthermore, conscientious individuals tend to be organized, achievement oriented (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and they are likely to engage in citizenship behaviors because these behaviors contribute to their personal sense of achievement on the job (LePine et al. 2002; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller and Johnson, 2009). High conscientiousness was found to facilitate task performance across organisations (Barrick et al., 2001) and research on "situation trait relevance" (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000) has suggested that conscientiousness should affect performance most strongly in environments that require attention to detail, precision, and high-quality task completion such as the engineering department. Extending this to political work contexts, conscientiousness tends to influence the nature of the attributions individuals make to perceived external factors such as organizational politics (Henle, 2005).

As it has been previously discussed, POPS is associated with observations that the social environments are dominated by self-serving activities that are not officially sanctioned by the organisation (Ferris et al., 2002). Common characteristics of political workforce include powerful coalitions, favouritism-based decisions. In organisations wherein political activities are normative, management is often perceived as likely to favour more subjective means of making employment decisions (Hall, Hochwarter,

Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). In such work contexts political activities are viewed as behaviors that fail to follow the organisational rules, or are against the organisation's actions. As a result, individuals high in conscientiousness are submissive to rules and obligations and likely to avoid these behaviors that harm their organisation as a whole. In keeping with expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) these activities perceived in a negative light because are not pursuing their expectations and goals within work.

Therefore, I posit that conscientious employees might feel as though their relationship with their organisation is unfavourable because of favouritism based political activities; so they might experience also self-serving political activities negatively and such conditions do foster POPS. Based on the above, I assert the following

Hypothesis 1d: Conscientiousness (Time 1) will be negatively related to POPS (Time 1)

Neuroticism is a central dimension of the (BFM) model of personality and is defined as the extent to which one experiences negative emotions (e.g., anger, anxiety, frustration, depression) across a wide range of situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). In particular it refers to a person's tendency to be tense, defensive, thin-skinned, and worrisome (McCrae & John, 1992; Peterson et al., 2003).

More specifically, highly neurotic individuals 'tend to focus on the negative side of others and are less satisfied with themselves and their lives' (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989, p.235). As a result, neurotics view their lives in

a largely negative manner and research has demonstrated that they tend to make attributions to negative stimuli and to perceive negatively external forces which affect their organisation (Golin, Terrell, and Johnson, 1977; Sweeney, Anderson, and Bailey, 1986; Staw and Barsade, 1993).

In addition, it was found (Hochwarter et al., 1996) that individuals who scored high in negative affectivity were likely to perceive inequities in job outcomes and were more likely to perceive the impact of negative events such as politics in their working places (Adams, Treadway and Stepina, 2008; Watson and Pennebaker, 1989). Specifically, POPS represents perceptions of unfavorable treatment at work and frequently, although not always are associated with detrimental outcomes (Miller et al., 2008) at individual level. POPS has been typically conceptualized and measured as a negative environmental force (Harris et al., 2005) whereby individuals and/or groups act in political manners to the detriment of other individuals, groups or the organization as a whole (Ferris et al, 2002; Pfeffer, 1981).

Consistent with the signal sensitivity research of Larsen and Ketelaar (1991) as well as Perrewe's and Spector's (2002) findings, individuals who score high in negative affectivity are increasingly sensitive to negative environmental signals such as organizational politics. Similarly, research has suggested (Zellars et al., 2007) that individual differences can create greater vulnerability to the strains associated with chronic stressors such as POPS. The most researched vulnerability factor is negative affectivity (NA), which refers to the predisposition to experience aversive emotional states across time and situations (Waskon & Clark, 1984). It was also suggested that individuals view

the world with pessimistic and negative lens, interpreting many stimuli as threatening (McCrae & John, 1992). Generally, research maintains that neuroticism is associated with negative outcomes (George, 1992; Tellegen, 1982).

Examining organisational politics, in line with other researchers, Mintzberg defined organizational politics as "individual or group behavior that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in a technical sense, illegitimate—sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise although it may exploit any one of these" (1983: 172). Furthermore, research emphasized that POPS signal the dysfunctional side of organisational behavior (Ferris & Judge, 1991) viewed as inherently disruptive, distressing for most individuals

Accordingly, neurotic individuals are more likely to react more negatively in political environments given their heightened receptivity to stimuli which encourages negative emotions (Hochwarter and Treadway, 2003). As a result, I posit that highly neurotic employees are likely to interpret political activities as threats and distracting events which burden them with stress. Thus, from a signal sensitivity approach (Perrewe and Spector, 2000), I suggest that individuals who scored high in neuroticism are predisposed to experience negative emotions when they perceive POPS because they are inherently concerned with negative events. Therefore, it is expected

Hypothesis 1e: Neuroticism (Time 1) will have a direct positive relationship with POPS (Time 1)

4. 3 CONSEQUENCES OF POPS

The consequences of POPS have been described in the politics literature mainly as detrimental at the individual and organizational level. Moreover, scholars (e.g., Drory, 1993; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999; Valle & Perrewe, 2000; Vigoda-Gadot, 2003; Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006) found that POPS lead to negative effects on various job outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) affecting performance. To illustrate, in their original model Ferris et al. (1989) argued that POPS adversely influences turnover intentions, job stress and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Ferris et al. (2002) added in the discussion as consequences of POPS organisational job performance, the organizational citizenship behaviors, justice reactions, and organisational commitment.

Equally, considerable research efforts have proven that POPS has a direct and inverse effect on job satisfaction [9](e.g., Cropanzano et al. 1997; Ferris et al. 2000; Harrell-Cook et al. 1999; Kacmar et al. 1999; Valle and Perrewe/, 2000), affective commitment (Breaux et al., 2009; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Randall et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2001). However, Miller et al. (2008) noted that the extremely wide range of correlations between POPS and job satisfaction, POPS and affective commitment indicate that moderators of this relationship may exist because the true score correlation is far from settled.

[9] Job satisfaction is ‘‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’’ (Locke 1976, p. 1300).

Following prior research, the objective of this unit is to investigate the direct impact of POPS on various employee outcomes (as depicted in Fig.1). Therefore, this unit presents an overview concerning relationships between POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2), POPS (T1) and affective commitment (T2), POPS (T1) and organisational citizenship behavior (OCB-I, OCB-O) as well as POPS (T1) -innovativeness (IRB).

4. 3. 1 POPS and turnover intentions

It was found that POPS was significantly related to turnover intentions (Ferris et al., 1993) and literature has been shown that turnover intentions are strongly related to actual turnover (e.g., Tett & Meyer, 1993). A meta-analysis of outcomes of POPS (Miller, Rutherford and Kolodinsky, 2008) reported that the relationship between POPS and turnover intentions has shown a positive effect (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997, Study 1; Hochwarter et al.,1999, Study 2; Kacmar et al., 1999; Valle and Perrewe/, 2000), or no effect at all (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997, Study 2; Harrell- Cook et al,. 1999; Hochwarter et al., 1999, Study 2; Randall et al., 1999). Analytically, it was reported that the correlations between POPS and turnover intentions have ranged from -.05 (Larwood et al., 1998) to .60 (Vigoda, 2001).

Only few have exposed a negative relationship between POPS and turnover intentions (e.g., Larwood et al., 1998). Those who continue to examine further these relationships consider the role of employees' cognitive evaluations on their job and their levels of job satisfaction as mediators for explaining POPS and turnover relationships (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Harrelll-Cook et al., 1999; Randall et al., 1999). At this point, Maslyn and Fedor (1989)

found that perceived organizational politics predicted increased turnover intentions after controlling the effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship. Another body of research attempted to explain supervisors' evaluations on their employee intentions to turnover (Rosen et al., 2009).

Organisational politics researchers have attempted to explain the relationships among POPS and turnover intentions according to the types of organizational resources are exchanged between employees and their organisations and how the resources are perceived by employees. This is based on an social exchange theoretical framework and on Shore et al. (2006) propositions that exchanges at work incorporate organizational economic exchange resources (e.g., pay for the performance) and organizational social exchanges (e.g., socio-emotional resources such as emotional attachment to the workplace). For example, I may develop intentions to turnover my employer as he does not recognize my hard work in the department, he does not invest resources in my area, and appropriately does not offer me any opportunity for socialization in the department. Accordingly, under conditions of uncertainty as POPS are, I might respond in return as same way as my employer did by demonstrating my desire to stay out.

An alternative assertion aligns with the aforementioned relevance of POPS as a component of stressful events (Ferris et al., 1989; Chang et al., 2012). Accordingly, stressful events at work are related to turnover intentions, because if many political activities occur then the disillusionment that accompanies such an experience is likely to result in higher levels of stress

which lead to turnover intentions. Following the above approaches I hypothesize that

Hypothesis 2a: POPS (Time 1) will be positively related to turnover intentions (Time 2)

4. 3. 2 POPS and Job Performance

Job performance has been defined as 'employee behaviours that are consistent with role expectations and that contribute to organizational effectiveness' (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). In addition, job performance is composed of task performance, **citizenship behavior**, withdrawal/counter-productivity, and **creative performance'** (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p.348). It was also highlighted that job performance can be measured as either maximal **("can-do") or** typical **("will-do"),** with clear distinctions between the two categories (e.g., Dubois, Sackett, Zedeck, & Fogli, 1993; Klehe & Latham, 2006; Sackett, Zedeck, & Fogli, 1988, for review).

Moreover, scholars have identified two different performance based forms as the most frequently used in the literature a) task performance or in-role performance and b) contextual performance or extra-role performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994). Contextual performance (Van Scotter and Motowildo, 1996) is divided into job dedication and interpersonal facilitation, each uniquely contributing to overall assessments of job performance (Conway, 1999). Specifically, job dedication, refers to "self disciplined behaviors such as following rules, working hard, and taking initiative to solve problems at work'' according to

Van Scotter and Motowildo (1996, p.526). They also support that interpersonal facilitation is concerned with 'interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment'' (Ibid., p. 526). The interpersonal facilitation like job dedication includes acts that assist in the building and mending of relationships, putting people at ease, encouraging cooperation, increasing consideration of others, including the expression of compassion and sensitivity (Conway, 1999). Conversely, in-role performance encompasses the technical duties necessary for the successful completion of the job. In the majority of research scholars have examined in-role and extra-role performance as two separate constructs of job performance (Ferris et al., 2002).

In summary, job performance is a broad construct with different facets. Taking into account the aforementioned definitions and suggestions regarding job performance, this thesis specifies and examines two of its key dimensions Organisational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) and Innovativeness behaviour (IRB). In particular, this clarity in thinking about a concept is often recommended in social sciences (Bollen, 2002). Although the relationship between POPS and job performance has been empirically reported however, we still know very little about the exact nature of POPS and OCBs, POPS and innovativeness relations. It seems imperative, therefore, to explore these relationships.

POPS and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)

As noted previously, past research has revealed that there are three facets of job performance, such as task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, Rich, 2012). More specifically, Organ defined organizational citizenship behavior (1988; 1997) as the "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (p. 91). Similarly, Podsakoff et al. (2000) in reviewing the dimensionality of citizenship behaviour highlighted the importance of distinguishing different forms of OCB.

Generally, a plethora of studies confirmed that Organizational Citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have received empirical attention more than any other construct (Podsakoff et al., 1993; 2000) in the organizational literature. Scholars unanimously argued also that citizenship behaviors like any job attitude (Olson & Zanna, 1993) matter to the extent that predict important behavior and impact on people's health and to their evaluations of their lives (Judge et al., 2012).

Furthermore, scholars suggested a variety of conceptualizations and measurement scales for organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988; Graham, 1989; Podskaoff et al., 1990; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Moorman and Blakely, 1995) and concluded that thirty forms abound (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). However, in the majority of studies the measurement scale for organizational citizenship behaviors falls into two categories: (a) organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization

and benefiting it **(OCB–O)** (b) organizational citizenship behavior directed toward specific individuals **(OCB–I**) and, consequently, indirectly contributing to the organization (e.g., Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Empirical research (MacKenzie et al., 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 1999; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997) has generally confirmed that these various forms of assisting behavior load on a single factor.

Moreover, Williams and Anderson (1991) highlighted that similarities exist among **organizational citizenship behaviors** and types of performance **in-role** and **task performance**. For example, OCB-I was found to be conceptually similar to interpersonal facilitation dedicated to the benefit of others, whereas OCB–O is conceptually similar to job dedication as it is performed for the benefit of the organization. Implicit to this research, Organ et al. (1983) proposed that organizational citizenship behavior is conceptually the same as the contextual performance because individuals in both cases tend to provide help and assistance that is outside an individual's work role, not directly rewarded, and conductive to effective organisational functioning (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Additionally, scholars emphasised the value in distinguishing the various sub-dimensions of OCBS' (Bergeron, 2007; Organ et al., 2006). Therefore, an understanding of this distinction provides the basement for examining the outcomes accompanying POPS. Consequently, taking into account these suggestions in the literature, I include two specific forms of Organisational citizenship behavior (OCB) namely OCB directed to

individuals (OCB-I) and OCB directed to organization (OCB-O). I have purposefully included both organizational citizenship behavior directed to individuals (OCB-I) and to organizations (OCB-O) to avoid confusion created by concept dichotomies.

In fact, studies by Ferris et al. (2002) demonstrated that a negative relationship exists between POPS and in-role job performance. Also, significant research concludes that even the selection interview may be politically charged (Bozionelos, 2005) let alone political alteration in performance appraisals (Curtis et al., 2005). Other findings have negatively linked POPS with task performance and Organisational citizenship behavior (Ferris et al., 1989; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Considering this insight they posited that employees are likely to exhibit reduced levels of organizational citizenship behavior (Randall et al., 1999), and overall organizational performance (Vigoda, 2000) when they perceive excessive organizational politicking (Poon, 2003). Nevertheless, not all researchers found a negative correlation. For example, Vigoda (2000) and Hochwarter et al. (2006) found a positive relationship among POPS and job performance.

Others, however, suggested a non-significant (e.g., Randall et al., 1999) correlation. Thus, the correlations between POPS and job performance in the literature have ranged from negative (-.32; Witt, 1998) to positive (.12; Hochwarter et al., 2006). To illustrate further the positive link of the relationship between POPS and job performance they emphasized (Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Duhlebohn ,1999) that political behaviour processes can be an ideal response to the organizations in which self-promotion and ingratiation

may be necessary. For example, employees are going through personal conflicts and in order to keep the harmony and peace into their group they engage in multiple citizenship activities.

Whereas much of the studies examined the effects of politics at a work on job performance concluded that less favourable outcomes tend to ensue, however, few researchers have shifted their focus on the factors that mitigate these negative effects (e.g., Ferris et al., 1996a; Hochwarter, Perrewe/, Ferris, & Guercio, 1999). For example, scholars (Breaux, Munyon, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2009; Cheng, 2009) suggested that POPS has also indirect effects on performance through immediate outcomes as strain and morale. In light of this, Chen et al. (2009) employed the stress in their analysis and reported that POPS is associated with ambiguity and uncertainty in the work environment that result in psychological strain and low morale. More specifically, it was suggested that strain and morale mediate the effects of POPS on important employee reactions such as job performance (Chen et al., 2009).

Accordingly, it was suggested that when politics exist, the rules and decision-making procedures are ambiguous or alarming (Ferris, Frink, Beehr, & Gilmore, 1995). Thus, individuals who perceive negative politics tend to minimize their efforts toward their organisation due to their assessment that performing in a political workplace is a risky investment (Randall et al., 1999). One explanation relies on the social exchange theory which is widely accepted as a framework for understanding the employment relationships (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003) particularly those referred to as employee-organisation

relationship (EOR) (e.g., Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Robinson & Brown, 2004, Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009).

The social-exchange perspective provides an insight into the effects of POPS on organisational citizenship behaviors (OCB-I, and OCB-O).Thus, according to social exchange theory, (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) individuals care about their colleagues when they know that their organisation conveys through fair treatments and not favouritism consideration. In such conditions exchanges form a positive relationship between employees with their colleagues and their employing organisation. On the other hand, it was reported that when the exchange resources with their employer are perceived negatively and the other part does not reciprocate, then their relationships will fail and reciprocity acts will be hindered.

Further, in the case of POPS, consistent with previous findings (Chang et al., 2009; Rosen and Levy , 2012) employees who know that their behaviors are not explicity recognised according to a rewards system by their employer they will be unlikely go the extra mile helping others at work (OCB-I) which ultimately leads to their contributions to their organization (OCB-O). It assumes, for example, that those employees are locked within the boundaries of specific parameters of their core tasks while cooperation with others may be met with rejection and hostility. Therefore, based on the above I suggest that POPS (T1) minimizes organizational citizenship behaviors (T2) toward individuals and organisations (OCBs) and the greater

the POPS over time the less the contributions toward working environments would be. Thus, I hypothesise the followings

Hypothesis 2b: POPS (Time 1) will be negatively related to the supervisors' ratings of OCB-O at Time 2

Hypothesis 2c: POPS (Time 1) will be negatively related to the supervisors' ratings of OCB-I at Time 2

The greater the increase in POPS (T1), the greater the decline in OCB-I and OCB-O will be at time 2.

4. 3. 3 POPS and Innovativeness related behavior

Studies of organizational politics suggest that the occurrence of POPS is responsible for a variety of organizational outcomes whilst the foregoing discussion (Ferris, Perewe, & Douglas, 2002; Harris and Kacmar, 2006) reflects the view that POPS is a stressful, detrimental event with the potential to have more negative than positive effects on employees and organizations. But what reactions occur when employees perceive that their work environment embodies a wide range of political alliances but also they engender in innovative acts? How is POPS linked to innovative behaviors inside a dynamic business environment? Notwithstanding, this question, however, has not received the attention of researchers it deserves.

Despite the publications dedicated to the topic of POPS including reviews of POPS (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris and Hochwarter, 2010), an edited book (Vigoda-Gadot and Drory, 2006) and the meta-analytic studies of POPS

(e.g., Miller, Rutherford and Kolodinsky, 2008) studies have not investigated broadly the direct effects of POPS on employee innovation. Taking this into account, I address the relationship between POPS and innovativeness behaviors.

Researchers highlighted that an employee's innovative behavior (e.g., developing, adopting, and implementing new ideas for products and work methods) is an important asset that enables an organisation to succeed in a dynamic business environment (Kanter, 1983; West & Farr, 1990a). The truth is that innovation plays a dominant role in organisational effectiveness and this idea is widely accepted among scholars (Janssen, Van De Vliert, & West, 2004; Van de Ven, 1986; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). Therefore, it is worth exploring whether or not POPS is associated with innovativeness by incorporating into discussion the social exchange perspective.

However, studies revealed inconsistent and contradictory findings regarding the relationship between conflict and political activity in cross-functional exchanges (Loverance et al., 2001; Vigoda and Cohen, 2002). Similarly, evidence highlights the role of task conflict and innovation (e.g., Kratzer, Leenders, & Van Engelen, 2006; West, 2002). For example, the evidences regarding the relationship between task conflict and innovation are both positive (r=.56; Chen, 2006) and negative (r=-.41; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001).

In addition, scholars pointed out that task conflict referred to favorable situations which promote innovation. It has been repeatedly discussed that such factors as goal interdependence facilitate the communication which is

linked to team innovation (Woodman et al., 1993, West 2002). Innovation researchers De Dreu (2006), Jehn (1995), and Pelled et al. (1999) added the relationship conflict to the list of variables that predict innovation. In work situations when employees have the ability to discuss opposite ideas, they integrate divergent viewpoints; hence communication conflict in work settings contributes to the innovation.

In line with that, it was reported that innovation is refraining from political manoeuvring environments that emphasize own function interests rather than the general good of the firm (Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Functional political activity refers to the extent to which the behavior of functional managers results from the interests of their own area rather than those of the firm as a whole (Kacmar and Baron, 1999). It was reported that these activities stimulate workers to question the *status quo* by allowing them to engage in innovation. It has been also found, that intrinsic task motivation is a necessary condition (Shalley et al., 2004) for innovation to occur in organizations. Accordingly, research suggests that innovation flourishes in environments that provide opportunities for involvement in work and enhance employees' motivation to engage in behaviors that add value to the organization (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Conversely, researchers have shown that dysfunctional political activities may hinder the effective implementation of an innovative strategy (Dean and Sharfman, 1996; Ruekert and Walker, 1987). For example, the unfair allocations of physical or monetary resources across departments, which are stemming from dysfunctional political activities, were found to prohibit

employees from implementing an innovation strategy. They posited that this occurs because of individual attempts to withhold or distort crucial information or even attempt to block successful launching of products where they were not involved (De Dreu et al., 2006). Therefore, these environments are viewed to have detrimental effects on the implementation of an innovation strategy.

Again, following the social-exchange approach I suggest that an environment fraught with self-serving activity that threatens reward allocation (Rosen et al., 2006) is expected to distract employees from engagement in innovative behaviors. Furthermore, scholars noted that the ambiguity surrounding politics is related to performance evaluations, rewards, and disciplines. Thus, one can imagine that relationships between employee and organisation are valued negatively by employees when negative experiences outweigh. Hence, I expect that employees, who perceive their working places as political, then feel that they are unvalued, under-appreciated and negatively considered by their employer and, consequently, are more likely to reciprocate with negative reactions in their exchange relationships with others and their organization. As a result, they are unlikely to engage in innovativeness related behavior at work because they expect such behavior to be valued negatively. Consequently, when assessing POPS-innovativeness relationship in this study I expect that

Hypothesis 2d: POPS (Time 1) is negatively related to supervisors' ratings of employees' innovativeness behavior (Time 2)

4. 3. 4 POPS and Organizational affective commitment

Organisational commitment is a central theme in psychological research. Researchers identified affective organisational commitment as the emotional attachment of an employee, or his/hers identification with an employer (Allen and Meyer, 1996). They emphasized that there are multiple components of organizational commitment but none has received as much attention as affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Matthieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer &Allen, 1991; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

In addition, Angle & Lawson (1998) have distinguished the psychological attachment to the organisation from the affective commitment. The psychological attachment reflects the employees' identification with and involvement in the organisation (e.g., Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) while affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Whitener & Walz 1993) refers to the desire employees have to maintain membership in the organisation which is reflected as an assessment of the exchange between the employee and employer. Similarly, scholars (Redman & Snape, 2005:302) indicate that commitments directed to specific targets such as to supervisor or co-workers (proximal commitment) are better predictors of certain behaviors in organisations than the 'global' forms of commitment (organisational-focused).

A number of studies have explored the relationship between POPS and organizational commitment. A meta-analysis by Miller at al. (2008) reported that this relationship was tested empirically in 25 independent samples where the total number of participants in these samples was 7,237 (mean = 289), the corrected correlation was -0.41 (mean uncorrected r = 0.37), and the 95%

confidence interval after corrections ranged from -0.68 to -0.14. The conclusions drawn here were analogous to the effects of POPS on turnover and job satisfaction as proposed by Ferris et al. (1989, 2002). In general, it appears that high levels of POPS have deleterious effects on workers' commitment.

However, in order to understand these relationships it might be useful to integrate the social exchange and stress based framework (Chang et al.'s 2009). Work stress researchers (Schaubroeck et al., 1989; Mobley, Horner, and Hollimhsworth's, 1978) specified that role stressors (i.e. role ambiguity and role conflict) have a negative impact on employees' reactions associated with low affective commitment. Grounded in these assertions POPS represents unique hindrance stressors which refer to the constraints that impede upon individuals' work achievements (LePine et al., 2005) such as reduced morale, motivation, and performance, and increased employee withdrawal (Chang et al., 2009, Boswell, Olson-Buchananm & LePine, 2004; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling & Boudreau, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2007). As the strain increases, the employee's morale and sense of obligation decline (Cropanzano et al., 2003) and this is associated with lower employee morale (Voyer, 1994), and reduced organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Nye & Witt, 1993; Randall et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2000).

Accordingly, I suggest that when POPS is viewed as stressors, usually distracts the exchange relationships (i.e., economic, social) between employee and his/her organization. As the organisations do not provide some benefits to their employees (because of the existence of POPS) then (s)he invokes an obligation to reciprocate by the same way in return. This evidence can be used

to facilitate further social exchange. Therefore, I propose that POPS relates negatively to organizational affective commitment as such when POPS heighten over time, whereas affective commitment is likely to decrease.

Hypothesis 2e: POPS (Time 1) will be negatively associated to organizational commitment (Time 2).

The greater the increase of POPS over time, the greater the decline in affective commitment will be.

In conclusion, in some cases POPS may be viewed as a double-edged sword, because individuals explain it as a state of mind rather than an objective reality according to Lewin's (1936) 'eye of the beholder' assumptions. Importantly, this perspective argued that POPS is an aspect of external working environment and individuals need to cope with a number of threatening and ambiguous events in their workplace. As mentioned previously, these events might take the form of detrimental consequences of POPS or fail to develop encouraging reactions. In this discussion particular interest is paid to instances of organisational cynicism.

4. 5 ORGANISATIONAL CYNICISM

4. 5. 1 Introduction

Relevant literature described politics perceptions as an omnipresent component of all social fabric particular in contemporary organisations. As a result of the pressures of globalization, the international competition, increased utilization of information and the use of high- technology communication,

working places have been associated with changes at a radical pace (Kompier, 2005). A significant increase in mergers and acquisitions alongside the downsizing of many organizations with economic recessions has also been witnessed (Cartwright and Holmes, 2006; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). Altogether, these reported changes have made working places less stable and secure for individuals (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). As a result they exercise an impact on employee attitudes and engender a rise in employee cynicism relevant to the workplace (Pate et al., 2000).

Given the proliferation of research in modern organizations and the pervasiveness of political behavior (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011), it is important to include into discussion employee cynical attitudes toward their organisation. However, do individuals who hold a cynical attitude ascend POPS more steeply or have greater adverse reactions to their organization as well? The aim of the next section is twofold, first to present key findings on organizational cynicism and, secondly, explore the relationship between POPS and organizational cynicism.

4. 5. 2 A brief overview of the organizational cynicism theory and research

One way that individuals express their thinking and evaluate their lives is through attitudes. Scholars defined attitudes as "psychological tendencies that are expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). For example,

our disfavor toward our company represents our attitude and impacts on our relationship with our company. Organisational cynicism, has been described as a type of negative attitude directed toward one's employing organizations (e.g., Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar 1998; Stanley et al., 2005; Wanous et al., 2000, 2004).

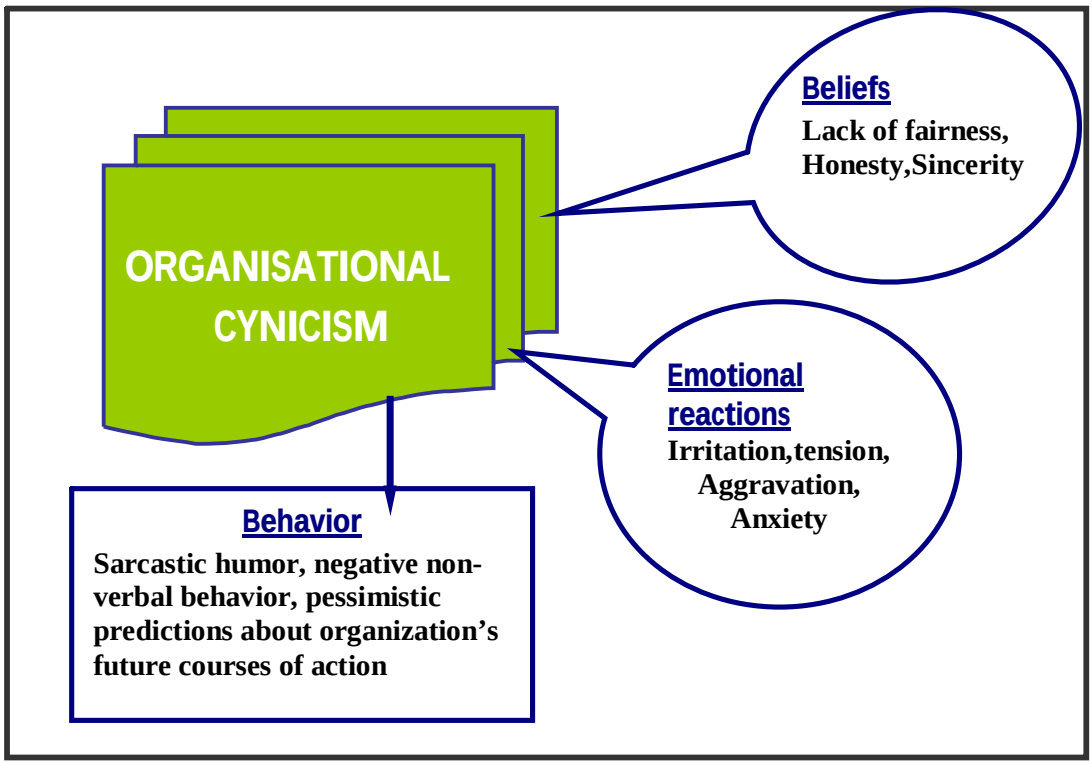
Furthermore, organisational cynicism is an attitude which primarily evolves 'from a critical appraisal of the motives, actions, and values of one's employing organisation' (Bedeian, 2007, p.11). Similarly, Wilkerson's (2002) cumulative work echoes that organisational cynicism is not only encountered for the employing organisation but also toward its procedures, processes, and management based on a conviction that these elements generally work against the employee's best interests.

At this point, scholars (e.g., Abraham, 2000) have demonstrated the uniqueness of organizational cynicism as a construct and its distinctiveness among other types of cynicism as the social cynicism and personal cynicism. Characteristically, social cynicism refers to a negative view individuals have for some social groups, a mistrust of social institutions (i.e., worldviews), and a disregard of ethical ways for achieving ends (Li and Leung, 2012). Likewise, personal cynicism as measured in the Minnesota Multiphase Personality Inventory (MMPI) involves a general suspicion of the motives of others and observes them as self-views (Graham, 1993; Pope, Butcher, & Seelen, 1993). It differs from organizational cynicism which is concerned with beliefs, emotions, and behaviors about working organizations.

To date, however, organisational cynicism has been analyzed purely in attitudinal terms. Most significantly, in their discussion Dean, Brandes, and Dharwadkar (1998) proposed the tripartite nature of attitudes—affect, cognition, and behavior— (e.g., Fazio & Olson, 2003), as the main components of organizational cynicism. They named the cognitive (what employees think about their management), affective (what their feelings are) and behavioral (how do they react when experiencing organisational cynicism) side. In line with this view, organisational cynicism is comprised by *a)* a belief that the organisation lacks integrity *b)* a negative effect towards the organisation, and *c)* tendencies to exhibit disparaging and critical behaviors towards the organization that are consistent with these beliefs and affect (Figure 3).

For example, when employees hold a cynical attitude toward their company as a whole this means that they have experienced frustration, disillusionment, contempt and distrust of business organizations, executives, managers and other objects in the workplace (Andersson, 1997; Dean et al., 1998). Therefore, most of the researchers tend to treat organisational cynicism as a three-dimensional attitude and this approach has been the most influential in relevant literature (Tesluk, Farr, Mathieu, & Vance, 1995; Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2002, 2004; Kosmala et al., 2006).

Figure 3 *Attitudinal dimensions of organizational cynicism*



Source: *Dean et al. (1998) the attitudinal stage of organisational cynicism*

Generally, attitudes vary among many dimensions, most notably their target. Given the multiplicity of attitude objects (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012) scholars consider that organisational cynicism may also focused on specific entities. Some of these cynical attitudes may be related to a variety of targets such as people who typically represent agents of their organizations and are in different hierarchy (Reichers & Wanous, 1997), for example, cynical attitudes about colleagues, supervisors, and upper-level managers, cynicism about organisational change (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005; Wanous et al., 2000), and cynicism about environmental factors (e.g., high executive compensation; Andersson and Bateman, 1997). Furthermore, cynicism towards leaders has been evident for decades (Gardner, 1990) and

found to be widespread among employees' (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989) whilst reported particularly highly in the followers (Brush, 2006; Schwab, 2007) of the leaders.

Antecedents of organizational cynicism

Literature demonstrates that specific types of work environments and adverse conditions explain the rise of organisational cynicism. For example, Abraham (2000) proposed that when organizational change efforts by the management fail, then employees are likely to become disappointed, frustrated, and, therefore, cynical about their management. Similarly, Naus, Van Iterson, and Roe (2007) proposed that organisational cynicism is likely to occur because of adverse conditions which violate employee expectations including high role conflict and low autonomy. In addition, Andersson and Bateman (1997) reported in a scenario-based experiment that white-collar employees when they read work scenarios describing harsh layoffs triggered by poor firm performance they become more cynical toward their management. Also, Wanous, Reichers, and Austin (2004) suggested that organisational cynicism is more likely to occur during the times of management's failure to perform organisational changes. In such instances, a study by Bateman, Sakano, and Fujita (1992) showed that participants who watched the film *Roger & Me*, which depicted the heartless layoffs at General Motors, exhibited very high levels of cynicism about their own company.

Alongside, researchers (e.g., Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003) have explored a variety of important events taking place inside companies which predict organizational cynicism. For example, a leader's hypocrisy concerning

corporate scandals depleting the retirement accounts, a perceived lack of assistance by supervisors and an overriding concern for employee's well-being, all of them contribute to the growth of cynicism. Additionally, studies have demonstrated that long working hours, work intensification, ineffective leadership and continual downsizing (Bunting, 2004; Feldman, 2000) work as a paradigm of engendering employee cynicism toward management. Moreover, Naus et al. (2007) displayed that high levels of role conflict and fewer opportunities for autonomous behavior predict organizational cynicism.

Outcomes of organisational cynicism

In the literature, it was suggested that organisational cynicism has a negative impact on employees' behaviours. More analytically, as far as the individual is concerned, empirical evidence has shown that organisational cynicism is related to feelings of hopelessness, frustration, disillusionment, and distrust directed towards those with the ability to distribute rewards and punishment (Anderson and Bateman, 1997). Further, organizational cynicism has been associated with poor performance, low morale, high absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993), disillusionment (Pugh et al., 2003), distrust (Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2003) and fewer citizenship behaviors (Hochwarter et al., 2004). In general, employees who hold generally negative attitudes toward their managers and jobs tend to exhibit more negative behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) than others (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

Similarly, evidence reported that organizational cynics are unlikely to complain to management (Wilkerson, 2002) or otherwise display in public an

action that would typically be deemed an organizationally deviant or socially undesirable attitude (Anderson, 1996) such as badmouthing. Badmouthing represents a social cue with respect to organizational cynicism (Wilkerson, 2008). Not surprisingly, research demonstrated that (Andersson and Bateman, 1997) employee intentions to comply with unethical requests were positively related to cynicism addressed to human nature, but negatively related to cynicism toward the requesting company.

In general, organizational cynicism elicits negative feelings and causes employees to question their company's decisions. Research on stress (e.g., Maslach & Leiter, 1997; 2005; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993) demonstrated that the development of cynical attitudes toward the organisation is associated with increased burnout which leads to withdrawal behaviors. Burnout within a workplace is recognised as a three dimensional concept namely exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment. Consequently, cynicism is regarded as a defensive coping response to exhaustion (Li and Leung, 2011; Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Leiter, 2005).

Unfortunately, despite the above findings, we know very little about the ways in which individuals deal with POPS when they hold a cynical attitude toward their organisation. It is still unclear, however, whether POPS enhances organisational cynicism or the effects of POPS are influenced by it. A greater understanding of POPS-work outcomes as a result of organisational cynicism is also examined. The next section aims to investigate these relationships.

4. 5. 3 Organisational cynicism and POPS

Research involving POPS advocates that it represents the extent to which the behaviour of individuals is intended to maximize their self-interest and may be consistent with, or at the expense of the interests of others (Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy, 1989). As discussed previously (Chapter 2), political work environments are characterised as unfavourable, unjust and unfair working places where guidelines of appropriate conduct are fluid; while uncertainty exists employees efforts will be either valued or ignored (Ferris et al., 2002). On the other hand, prior research in organisational cynicism suggests that turbulent and threatening organisational environments promote ascription of cynical attitudes toward management and to the organisation as a whole (Cartwright and Holmes, 2006).

Therefore, political workplaces provide ample cause for cynicism among its employees, especially as the characteristics of the business environment (e.g., lack of alignment between policies and practices, inequitable compensations policies) and the nature of the job (e.g., role conflict, and role ambiguity) lead to psychological contract breach violation. The psychological contract refers to "an individual's beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party" (Rousseau, 1989, p. 123). The psychological contract breach involves an individual's perception of unmet obligations by the other party (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Abraham (2000, p.271) noted that cynicism may be defined as "the breach of the social contract between the individual and society".

Accordingly, unfavourable political conditions foster unfair treatments for their employees. Hence, their organisation lacks integrity and violates their expectations and it is this form of disfavour that solidifies their exchange relationship and, therefore their attitudes (a working place affords individuals to think and behave in a certain negative way) about their company. Specifically, working in political organisations, employees do not understand exactly what is being rewarded or ignored and as a result they are likely to be disappointed or feel betrayed. Drawing from psychological contract framework (Andersson, 1996; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Herriot, 2001) and social exchange theory, I propose that when POPS exists then individuals perceive that their organisation has violated fundamental expectations of values such as sincerity, justice, and honesty (Andersson, 1996; Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998) and as a result it has failed to fulfil its obligations. Accordingly, they tend to exhibit high levels of cynical attitudes toward their firm. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: *POPS (Time 1) would be positively related to organizational cynicism* (Time 1)

4. 5. 4 Organizational cynicism and Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs)

Although the majority of studies assessed the relationship of organisational cynicism with employee attitudes as discussed earlier, however,

how does organizational cynicism relate to a broad class of performance in the form of organizational citizenship behaviors? Prior research (e.g., Anderson and Bateman, 1997) has confirmed that when employees are cynical about their organisation, organizational citizenship behaviors (OBCs) are reduced significantly.

Specifically, cynical employees are less likely to perform extra-role behaviours on behalf of their organisation (Andresson, 1996; Andresson & Bateman, 1997; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Pugh et al., 2003). In addition, results supported the negative association of organisational cynicism, job performance, work motivation (Wanous et al., 2000) and the affective commitment Kim et al. (2009). However, Brandes et al. (1999) observed no empirical support for the relationship between organizational cynicism and job performance.

In order to explain the relationships between organisational cynicism and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB-I and OCB-O), I used the social expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) to bear relevance to research. Essentially, expectancy theory is a process theory in which motivation is thought to result from an individual's perception of the environment and expectations based on these perceptions (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999; Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). Employees with high levels of expectancy believe that if they put forth enough effort, they will be able to perform in the desired manner (Mitchell, 1974;; 2001 Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996) and be rewarded for their performance.

According to this theory, if people hold a cynical attitude toward their organisation then they experience frustration and disappointment (Wilkerson, 2008) and these feelings underscore their expectations to fulfill performance; thus, results of organizational citizenship behavior are getting low.

In addition, Andersson (1996) has addressed instances of organisations which failed to meet obligations and individual expectancies (expectancies sustain characteristics of organisation including poor communication, management incompetence in change implementation, and lack of employee involvement). Research in this area emphasised that whether or not a person engages in OCB highly depends on the extent to which previous experiences within the organisation have been negative or positive. For instance, employees were less likely to perform OCBs when they accumulated negative experiences and feelings. These include poor-relations with their supervisors, lack of fairness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), and pay inequities (Scholl et al., 1987).

As such, when employees possess high levels of organisational cynicism their faith in others is challenged, and their expectancies would be violated (Rousseau, 1989) and, accordingly, they would find themselves fighting with brutal realities. Furthermore, they deem their psychological contracts with their organisation have been violated (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) and they know that the organization has and will continue to act ineffectively (Andersson & Bateman, 1997). Therefore, initiate negative feelings and experiences suggest that individuals might less likely involve in OCB-I and are more likely to have ill will to do extra things (OCB-O). In other

words, I suspect that organisational cynicism is likely to diminish organisational citizenship behavior. Thus, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 4a: Organisational cynicism (Time 1) is negatively associated to supervisors' ratings of OCB-O (Time 2)

Hypothesis 4b: Organisational cynicism (Time 1) is negatively related to supervisors' ratings of OCB-I (Time 2)

4. 5. 5 Organizational cynicism and innovativeness-related behaviour

Research in innovation is critical to the growth and competitiveness of organizations (e.g., Roth & Sneader, 2006; Tellis, Prabhu, & Chandy, 2009), and as a consequence, it has been the topic of rigorous debates. Further, scholars argued that it is a sophisticated issue (Scott and Bruce, 1994), which encompasses the generation and implementation of new ideas (Amabile, 1996; West & Farr, 1990; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). Following this principle, I created the innovativeness related behavior construct (IRB) to pertain the introduction of new ideas for securing resources and the implementation of new ideas regarding working methods in financial institutions.

Antecedents of innovation

Researchers have examined a variety of factors which are antecedents of individuals' innovation such as the relationship with their supervisors (e.g., Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004), job characteristics (e.g., Oldham & Cummings,

1996), social/group context (e.g., Munton & West, 1995). They also concluded that individual differences (e.g., Bunce & West, 1995) serve as important factors to predict innovation into workforce. In addition, scholars (e.g., Keller, 2001; Payne, 1990) have reported communication as a major source of innovation. In a similar vein, interactions with people outside one's own organisation (e.g., external communication, a social networks perspective, (Perry-Smith and Shalley, 2003; Perry-Smith, 2006) within other functional areas is a necessary vehicle used by individuals in order to obtain new knowledge, which sparks the development of new ideas or the adoption of new ways to do things. Generally, evidence demonstrated a positive relationship between external communication and innovation (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992b; Andrews & Smith, 1996; Denison, Hart, & Kahn, 1996; Keller, 2001; Payne, 1990).

Similarly, a body of research has provided indispensable insight into other factors that shape the production of innovation. For example, relationships characterised by emotional conflicts involve negative psychological reactions which often cause strain, fear, anger, and frustration. These negative moods found to distract individuals to perform their tasks because their energy is absorbed (Jehn, 1995; Hulsherger, Anderson and Salgano, 2009) to resolve the conflicts. However, previous research has demonstrated that negative moods can generate active attention and critical thinking required for creativity (George & Zhou 2002).

In particular, research suggested that innovation in workplace is more likely to occur when the work environment as perceived as open to change,

recognises and rewards new ideas, and managers and co-workers support publicity the implementation of new ideas (Amabile et al., 1996; Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Shin & Zhou, 2003). A theory that is very relevant to situations involving innovation is the expectancy theory suggesting that employees are innovative (Yan and Woodman, 2010) because they believe that will obtain performance benefits. Alternatively, as noted previously, work environments characterised by poor communication, management incompetency in change implementation, and lack of employee involvement violate employee expectations (cynicism is a result of the psychological contract violation, Andersson, 1996) and promote organisational cynicism.

As a result, based on this discussion, I posit that in the employment settings and stemming from organisational cynicism, people's efforts and performance are not recognised, rewards are not given as it is expected, and poor communication encourages employees to experience unpleasant events and negative moods. Therefore, to this end, research suggests that they are more likely to decline to come up with new ideas because of fear and anger (see Anderson, De Dreu, and Nijstad, 2004; Hulsheger, Anderson, and Salgado 2009; for recent reviews). More specifically, anger and frustration as a result of cynicism only impede effective communication which is a necessary condition for innovation. Therefore, I expect that they should be more likely to withhold than to speak up and contribute to their viewpoints during a development plan. Overall, then, these arguments suggest that

Hypothesis 4c: Organisational cynicism (Time 1) is negatively related to supervisors' ratings of innovativeness related behaviour (Time 2)

5. 5. 6 The mediator role of organizational cynicism in POPS-Outcomes relationships

Part of the reason why politics perceptions count for negative consequences for workplace attitudes[10] (Ferris et al., 2002; Kacmar & Baron, 1999) happens due to the threatening and aversive work environments they often provoke (Ferris et al., 1989). As it stands, the literature discusses namely the mediating effect of morale (Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006) and psychological contract breach (Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009) on POPS and work outcomes relationships. Rosen at al. (2009) moved the ongoing discussion further by adding how precisely POPS is shaped by other phenomena within organizations. Moreover, researchers noted (Breaux, Munyon, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2009; Chen & Fang, 2008) the need to examine intervening factors among POPS and work outcomes relationships for a better and deeper understanding of POPS. Still, however, it is unclear why such behaviors are generated. To fill this gap, I incorporate the mediating role of organizational cynicism among POPS and OCBs as well as POPS and innovativeness behaviour relations.

[10] Job satisfaction and work tension represent the most frequently studied attitudinal outcomes of politics perceptions (Ferris et al., 2002)

Scholars reported that those political environments are often associated with unfair and unjust reward allocations which cause discontent (e.g., higher anxiety) and lower satisfaction. Therefore, when employees feel unfairly treated, they are likely to avoid any cooperation with the organisation (OCB-O) and go beyond the call of duty to help it achieve its goals. Likewise, they are unlikely to devote time and effort assisting another individual with an organizationally relevant task or problem (OCB-I) or invest in innovative activities which will benefit their organization (innovativeness behavior).

Consistent with this theme, Anderson (1996) defines organisational cynicism as both a general and specific attitude characterized by the attribution and assumption that institutional processes operate based on self-interested behavior and a management that will not change. According to this, cynical attitudes stem from the expectancy that individuals responsible for change will be unable to achieve it successfully (Wanous et al., 2000). POPS conditions such an uncertainty about organisational decisions, ambiguity about expectations, and competitions for scare resources (Miller et al., 2008; Kacmar and Baron, 1999) and enhances organisational cynicism by affecting individual thinking and boosting feelings of frustration and disillusionment.

As I have argued previously POPS would be negatively to job performance (OCBs) and Innovativeness. Furthermore, drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), I suggest employees who exhibit high levels of organizational cynicism feel less obligated to reciprocate with behaviors that tend to increase OCB's performance. Accordingly, it seems likely that organizational cynicism reflects judgments that procedures and reward

allocation processes are unfair and affects the exchange relationship between the employee and his/her organisation. In support research suggests that organisational cynicism entails negative thoughts and feelings and, based on the norm of reciprocity, (Gouldner, 1960) they are likely to reciprocate in kind by engaging in less OCBs and innovativeness when POPS is perceived to be high. That is, employee's perceptions of organisational politics, as influenced by organisational cynicism, ultimately determine their job performance. Therefore, taken together these arguments I hypothesize that

Hypothesis 5a, b, and c: Organisational cynicism (Time 1) will mediate a negative relationship between a) POPS and OCB- I (Time 2), b) POPS and OCB-O (Time 2), and c) POPS and innovativeness behaviour (Time 2)

4.6 TRUST

> *Trust…tends to be somewhat like the combination of a weather and motherhood; it is widely talked about, and it is widely assumed to be good for organisations.*
>
> *Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975*

4. 6. 1 Introduction

The aims of this section are twofold: Firstly, to present an overview on previous theoretical findings on trust and to set the foundations for the introduction of the hypotheses. Secondly, to address the hypotheses as depicted in the model of the examination (Fig. 1). The relationships between individual perceptions of organizational politics and trust both organizational and interpersonal trust are explored. I investigate the role of trust as mediator in the relationship among POPS and turnover intentions, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and innovativeness behavior. In doing so, this thesis integrates the social- exchange theory and aims to fill any gaps regarding these relationships.

4. 6. 2 Previous research on trust

Trust has been the centre of eclectic discussions from a range of disciplines resulting in numerous definitions with different foci. For example, scholars from management, psychology, philosophy and economics offer many insightful views on trust and they elucidate its importance in every aspect of individual life. Generally trust has attracted the interest in ancient Western and Eastern civilizations (Aristotle, Socrates, and Bhagavad Gita) and it is a standard topic of concern of the forefathers of modern social sciences including philosopher David Hume, sociologist George & Simmel and psychologist Erik Erikson (Gulati and Sytch, 2008; Gulati, 1995).

Additionally, psychologists consider the role of trust in interpersonal dynamics, the attributes, and individual cognitions, and, more recently, its relationship with emotions (e.g., Lount & Murnighan, 2007; Rotter, 1967). On the other hand, sociologists underlie the social as well as institutional factors that shape trust among individuals and collectives (e.g., Coleman, 1990; Dore, 1983). Trust has also been embraced by organizational scholars who have sought to investigate its role in the internal functioning of organizations (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Gulati, 1995). For instance, Mayer and Gavin (2005), Argyris (1964) proposed that trust in management remains central for organizational performance and it is "central to all transactions" (Dasgupta, 1988: 49) and at least in part has the potential to yield performance benefits (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009).

Moreover, research has provided evidence for the components of trust. Accordingly, scholars in their attempt to better understand it have identified trust as a trait, as an emergence state, and as a process (Burke et al., 2007). A significant amount of knowledge has been accumulated within each approach. Specifically, trust as trait refers to the individual characteristics which are developed during childhood. When an infant seeks and receives help from the beloved ones this results in a general tendency to trust others (McKnight et al., 1998; Shapiro, 1987; Zucker, 1986). In particular, Personality-based trust approach proposes that each individual has some level of trust and tends to extend it when s/he interacts with others and such characteristics lead to positive reactions, to make positive contributions about the other's intentions (Rotter, 1954, 1967).

On the other hand, trust as an emergency state has been described as the combination of cognitive, motivational, or effective state and these led scholars to propose that trust varies because it is a function of contextual factors (inputs, processes, outcomes) (e.g., Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). This perspective considers trust as an attitude which can develop over time quickly (swift trust; Coppola, Hiltz, & Rotter, 2004; Iacono, &Weisband, 1997; Jarvenpaa, Knoll, &Leidner, 1998; Jarvenpaa, & Liedner, 1999) due to particular interactions in specific situations. Finally, trust is viewed as an intervening mechanism process through which other attitudes are weakened (Khodyakov, 2007).

Consistent with the above trust perspectives, scholars (Kramer, 1999b) specified that two different traditions have emerged in trust research. One is the behavioural tradition wherein trust is viewed as rational-choice behaviour, such as the cooperative choices individuals make in a game (Hardin, 1993; Williamson, 1981). Alternatively, the psychological tradition focuses on the complex intrapersonal themes such as expectations, intentions, affect, and dispositions (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). Rousseau et al. (1998) defined trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395). Furthermore, in psychological approach one of the specific conceptualizations of trust development is the unidimensional model (Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995).

Specifically, central to this model lie the multilevel theory developed by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), where trust and distrust have been appraised as bipolar opposites. Accordingly, trust is defined as 'the willingness to be vulnerable to another party when that party cannot be controlled or monitored' (Mayer & Gavin, 2005, p.874). It was reported that this model of trust made a commendable contribution to the literature and has gained increasing attention across levels of organizational analysis concerning individual, group and organization levels. Moreover, it has also (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; Schoorman et al., 2007) described antecedents of trust namely *ability, benevolence* and *integrity,* and, as suggested by scholars these three categories of antecedents have an impact on how much trust the individual can garner. As a result, they influence the extent to which the other party will be trusted.

Additionally, Mayer and colleagues (1995) framed these concepts as the facets of trustworthiness—attributes of a trustee that inspire trust. Analytically, *ability* reflects the trustee skills, efficiency competencies and dedication. Supporting this perspective in trust research Hackman (2002) has pointed out that the leader's ability is a compelling direction which affects trust in leadership. On the other hand, *benevolence* refers to the trustor's perception that the trustee cares about the trustor. For instance, benevolent leaders are those perceived as genuinely caring about their subordinates and conveying authentic concern in their relationships (Galdwell & Hayes, 2007; Burke at al., 2007). Finally, *Integrity* has been defined as the 'trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustors find acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995, p.716). As Burke et al., (2007) noticed it is the

perception that the trustee (e.g., manager) adheres to a set of principles that the trustor (e.g., employees) finds acceptable. Thus, Mayer and Gavin (2005) contended that these three factors can contribute to the understanding of trust by incorporating the dispositional trustworthiness characteristics. To sum up, these three elements of trust are proposed by scholars (see Table 4) as the components of trustworthiness while Mayer and Davis (1999) suggested that ability, benevolence and integrity contribute to the prediction of trust.

Table 4 *Elements Of Trust*

TRUST	*Willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party*
Perceived Ability	Does the manager have the skills and ability and judgment to solve key challenges?
Perceived Benevolence	Does the manager care about me?
Perceived Integrity	Does the manger have strong values (integrity, fairness, reliability, dependability)?
Propensity to Trust	Baseline level of trust, e.g. toward strangers

Source: Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. Academy of Management Review, (1995), 20: 709-734.

Following a recent meta-analysis that examined ten models of trust (Ebert, 2007) scholars argued that this categorization (proposed by Mayer et al., 1995) has been the guide which has influenced the examination of trust as this can been seen in the prevalence of the citation (CI: 334). However, Davis, Schoorman, Mayer and Tan (2000) revealed that, although all three factors

correlated to trust in a regression analysis, only benevolence and integrity were correlated significantly.

Therefore, the aforementioned approaches support that trust is predicted based on feelings of vulnerability, uncertainty and risk (Albrecht, 2002). Researchers have also highlighted that the common theme in every definition of trust is perception of vulnerability (Dirks, 2000) which is identified as the assessment of others' intentions, sincerity, motivations, character, reliability and integrity (Butler, 1991; 2007; Mayer and Davis, 1999; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Gamerer, 1998)[11].

Above and beyond trust literature is dominated by the transformational model which asserts that trust has different forms that develop and emerge over time (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin, 1992). With regard to this view, how then, does trust grow and decline over time? In light of this, researchers portray trust as a result of the other's choice to reciprocate cooperation. They suggested that it is building incrementally over time and declining drastically when others choose not to reciprocate (Lewicki, Tomlinson, and Gillespie, 2006; Axelrod, 1984; Deutsch, 1958, 1973; Lindskold, 1978; Pilisuk & Skolnick, 1968). For example, it was argued that trust is developed over time because of a number of interactions between leaders and its members. As such, it enhances cooperation among them and their understanding of leaders' ability, benevolence and integrity. Further, trust theorists (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone,

[11] See also for a trust review in Butler et al., (2007), The Leadeship Quartely 18 (606-632).

1998) found that trust varies in different hierarchical levels within organizations and among individuals and across relationship. In line with that, several other theorists have identified differences in trust for single referents at different hierarchical levels within an organization or a group (e.g., Cook &Wall, 1980; Driscoll, 1978; Scott, 1980).

The extant literature in this area has been concerned with the two-dimensional model of conceptualisation trust including the relationship between trust and distrust. Studying this approach of trust, Schoorman et al. (1996b) defined the mistrust as the absence or lack of trust, in other words 'to have no trust in'. At this point theorists (Lewicki, McAllister, and Bies, 1998) argued that trust and distrust are two distinctly differentiable dimensions that can vary independently (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998).

Researchers also suggested a variety of factors as antecedents of trust. For example, they (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner, 1998; 2001) claimed that cross–level phenomena including the perceived similarity and competency, propensity to trust and task interdependence have an impact on managerial behavior and employee trust perceptions. Additionally, there is evidence that (Albrecht and Travaglione, 2003) employee willingness to act on the basis of words, actions and decisions of organisational decision makers under conditions of uncertainty or risk predict trust. Similarly, Waldman and Yammarino (1999) proposed that trust increases when uncertainty is inherent in the relationship of the trustee and trustor. Therefore, the voluminous research on the definitions and examination of the

determinants of trust concludes that trust has entered a stage of maturation (Gulati, 2008).

4. 6. 3 Measurement issues of trust

As previously discussed, traditional definitions of trust in organisational contexts have focused on its dispositional and trait-like aspects (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). In addition, scholars have investigated trust as an aspect of the relationship between individuals and much like 'relationships are multifaceted or multiplex' (McKnight and Chervany, 2001). To conduct research has developed measures of trust in organizational contexts.

Alternatively, Mayer and colleagues' (1995; see also Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007) followed their conceptualisation of trust as willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee on the basis of the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action, irrespective of any control mechanisms, to develop a measure of trust. This scale included these trust items and measures by asking respondents about their willingness to allow a trustee to have significant influence over their working lives (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Schoorman et al., 2007). Thus, Mayer and colleagues (1995) framed as facets of trustworthiness the attributes or characteristics (namely ability, benevolence and integrity) of a trustee that inspire trust. Mayer & Davis (1996a) measurement scale of trust is shorter than other traditional measures. Although this scale has been widely used it has not being without limitations. For example, scholars have questioned the extent to which this scale is able to capture mutuality of trust due to inconsistency in the

interpretations of context and experiences. Moreover, Brower et al. (2000) noted that individuals who are in different places within hierarchical relationships evaluate signals of trust from others through attitudes and behaviors such as information sharing and perceived quality of relationship. Again, trust has been a construct much depending on context and experiences (Mayer et al., 1995). More specifically, trust's nature is dynamic and factors as the policies and procedures external to the dyad as well as the perceived similarity (gender ethnicity, credentials) between the trustor and trustee can influence the levels of trust (Burke at al., 2006).

Overall, then, other existing scales of operationalization of trust measure the confident and positive expectations on trustee's conduct, motives, and intentions in situations entailing risk (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; Gabarro & Athos, 1976; Lewicki & Bunker, 1995).

To this end, Rotter's (1967) constructed a multidimensional 25-items measurement of trust which has been assessed by others (Driscoll, 1978; Scott, 1980) as a very long scale. The most common operationalization of the multidimensional version of trust remains McAllister's trust scale. These scales have been used in two studies integrating justice and trust and exhibited that it captures not only the affect-and cognition-based trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003) but the collapsed affect-based trust altogether (Stinglhamber et al., 2006).

Recently, Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) expanded original measures of trust of Mayer et al. (1995) to design and develop a validated 7- items scale of trust which has overcame the concerns with Cronbach's alpha levels

(Schoorman, 2007). In addition, no published measures of Lewicki and Bunker's trust types remain. Criticism arose because trust scholars often adopt a casual or simplistic approach conceptualizing trust (Lewicki et al., 2005). Similarly, it was reported that the existing scales of trust enhance reliability difficulties (e.g., Davis et al., 2000; Mayer & Davis, 1999).

4. 6. 4 ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND POPS

This thesis defines trust as 'the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party' *(*Mayer at al., 1995, p.608). The central theme is the willingness to be vulnerable (Butler, 1991; Burke et al., 2007) to another party. Some studies have specifically speculated two forms of trust, the organizational (trust in management) and interpersonal trust (trust in fellow workers). As such, this thesis unfolds and examines trust in this way

.

As noted by scholars trust in organisations has been investigated in many different ways (Hackman, 2002; Salas, Burke, & Stagl, 2004; Zacarro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Indeed, trust in organisations is also frequently associated with the perceived fairness of leadership actions. For instance, transformational leaders may build trust by demonstrating individualized concern and respect for followers (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Others (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) using the group value model have interpreted the procedural justice as a

source of trust because it demonstrates respect for the employee and a signal for the nature of the relationship with the character of the leader. Consequently, prior research has investigated the relationship between trust in leadership and different forms of organizational justice.

Although the definition and associated outcomes of trust have been well documented, there are still unanswered questions and relatively little empirical efforts regarding the way in which POPS is associated with the trust. Albrecht (2006) examined the effects of POPS on organizational trust, organizational support and affective commitment. The relationship between POPS and organizational trust was not as strong ($r=.-0.18$, $p<0.01$) as the relationship between POPS and organizational support. The results demonstrated that the more employees perceive that POPS dominates their working lives they are more likely to feel vulnerable and less exposed to risk.

Moreover, political environments are described in the literature as environments where only influential groups can have access to information and only those particular 'groups' can gain benefits and rewards. In addition, considerable research on POPs has recognized the fact that in those environments decisions motivated by self-interests without taking into consideration the collective goals of the work or the organisation as a whole. Furthermore, it was reported in the literature that employees perceive prejudice and inequity in resource distribution, and managers' decisions are reflecting unjust and unfair treatment.

Consequently, most research suggested that dimensions of POPS provide the basis for the genesis of employee perceptions of fairness, equity and justice in organizations (Adams, 1965; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 1995; Ferris, Russ, and Fandt, 1989; Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006, Vidoda-Gadot and Talmud, 2010). Further, when POPS exists employees are treated as scapegoats, i.e. symbolic victims, and it seems that their contributions are not appreciated when their organization is unlikely to meet its exchange obligation (Hall et al., 2004). Such unfair treatments coupled with the lack of organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenbergers, 2002) could help explain why they are likely to invest their energy and resources to defend themselves and to lessen the negative effects of politics. One self-defence mechanism reaction would be reduction of their vulnerability to the managers (Rousseau et al., 1998; Ashforth, 2005) and, therefore, their trust.

In addition, POPS flourishes in situations where ambiguity along with unfairness exist (Buchanan, 2008) and theorists have generally argued (Ferris, King, Judge, and Kacmar, 1991) that in highly ambiguous situations, employees feel unsure about their work requirements. Often they involve in actions not sanctioned by the organization to secure rewards, regardless the cost these actions have on others and the organization (Ferris, Russ, Fand, 1989; Hochwarter, 2003). Further, research (Ferris et al., 1996) suggested that employees who perceive a lack of clear behavioral expectations will likely exhibit negative effects on their psychological states. Cropanzano, Prehar, and

Chen (2002) endorsed the importance of social exchange relationships in explaining justice and fairness in workplace politics.

Therefore, in cases where political work environments accumulate unfair treatments and employees are not shielded against the tyranny of influential others, then the exchange is unfair and employees work in exchange of these. According to social exchange theory, trust requires repeated interactions and a history of reciprocity (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998) in order to operate. Accordingly, in his thesis I predict that when the repeated experiences and exchanges employees have with their organization are dissimilar to what they have come to expect, and negative then employees will assess the relationship negatively. Trust thus could not emerge between two parties conditions and as it was suggested in the literature it will be damaged in a politically charged organizational environment (Parker et al., 1995).

For example, if an employee believes that the work setting suppresses his/her ability to gain sought-after rewards such as approval and other related rewards, then, the employee will rate the relationship with the organization unfavorably. Therefore, I suspect that these workers are unlikely to be vulnerable to their management because their organization is dissimilar to their schematic view. Thus, POPS will once again

Hypothesis 6a: POPS (Time 1) will be negatively related to Organizational trust (Time 2)

4. 6. 5 Interpersonal trust towards co-workers (Cognition-based and affect-based trust) and POPS

Whereas the overwhelming majority of trust research is focused on leader–subordinate relations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) when investigated organisational trust research evidence supported also the existence of multiple forms of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996; McAllister, 1995). Last but not least, the concept of interpersonal trust has been used and adopted by scholars from different literatures and they have further argued that in practice many contemporary workplaces are characterized as having flatter structures and fewer managers, which carry important implications for co-worker relationships (Dirks and Skarlicki, 2008). In fact, interpersonal trust is an essential function for life inside organisations.

Thus, in this section I shift from the focus of using trust relationships with the organisation to the importance of having trusting relationships with co-workers. I explore how the two principal forms of interpersonal trust, the affective-based and cognition-based, are associated with POPS.

Therefore, relying solely on findings in organisational trust might limit our ability to distinguish it from other types of trust. For example, a number of scholars offered empirical support for this distinction of trust and many others included the two distinct levels of trust in their studies claiming that each type of trust has unique antecedents (Fryxell, Dooley, & Vryza, 2002; Holste & Fields, 2010; Levin & Cross, 2004; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995; Ng & Chua, 2006; Webber & Klimoski, 2004; Wilson, Straus, & McEvily, 2006). In addition, the utility of trust in the context of co-

worker relationships is supported by many journals and recent studies have proven that these two elements of interpersonal trust can lead to different outcomes (Levin & Cross, 2004; McAllister, 1995; Ng & Chua, 2006).

Equally important, this distinction in affect-based and cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1995) reflects a confidence rooted in emotional investments and in someone's reputation for acting with reliability and professionalism. It is worth noting that criticism has arisen because trust scholars often use a casual or simplistic approach to conceptualize trust (Lewicki et al., 2005).

Indeed, scholars such as Porter, Lawler, & Hackman (1975) noted that trust gives people the feelings that others have their best interests at heart. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) defined interpersonal trust as ''the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party'' (p. 712).

Similarly, research by McAllister (1995) has proposed the *affect-based* and *cognition-based* elements of interpersonal trust that can operate in a relationship with co-workers. Specifically, the affect-based trust reflects the levels of confidence rooted in individuals' emotional investments, in their expressions of genuine care and concern for their welfare partners, and their beliefs that these sentiments are reciprocated. This form often describes the emotional bonds between individuals (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985; Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987; Rempel et al., 1985). Contrary to this, the *cognition-based* elements of trust refer to someone's available knowledge and reputations for

dependability, reliability and professionalism. As such, it outlines certain components of interpersonal trust are driven by the work context and the individual experiences. In harmony with this, scholars recommended the (Mayer et al., 1995; Burke et al., 2007) examination of trust in dyads where trust perceptions may be shared by the trustor and the trustee. Trust ratings should be provided by asking of how much trust and what type of trust the trustor places towards trustee.

Important implications of interpersonal trust are expanded on social network research. For example, scholars (Chua et al., 2008) suggested that specific types of networks such as friendship or task advice networks are associated to interpersonal trust. Research also provided evidence of managers' experienced types of trust in members of their networks and trust in their professional relationships (e.g., Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006; Levin & Cross, 2004) to be the bases on which interpersonal trust develops (Chua, Ingram, & Morris, 2008; Kramer, 1999; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Zucker, 1986; Levin & Criss, 2004). For example, the research for professional social networking (Chau et al., 2008) has shown that managers develop friendship ties, caring altruistic behaviors which are the foundations upon which affect-base trust is founded (McAllister, 1995; Rempel et al., 1985).

Some studies have explored the determinants of interpersonal trust in organizational settings. In particular, it was proven that a variety of factors can uniquely affect citizens' initial willingness to trust another person including the trustor or the trustee dispositions (e.g., Righetti & Finkenauer, 2011),

reputation (Tinsley, O'Conner, & Sullivan, 2002), cognitive processes outside one's awareness (e.g., being subliminally primed with a positive interpersonal association cue, Huang & Murnighan, 2010) and an individual's physical appearance (Krumhuber et al., 2007).

In addition, it has been highlighted that beyond the trustor or trustee parameters the social context can play a part (Lount and Pettit, 2012) on the prediction of interpersonal trust such as roles, expectations, or schemas-that are often based differences between individuals and groups (see Kramer, 1999; Kramer & Lewicki, 2010). Finally, another study focused on the analysis of group membership and the results indicated high levels of trust between strangers who share the same membership (e.g., Foddy, Yamagishi, & Platow, 2009; Meyerson et al., 1996), whereas distinctions between in-group versus out-group tend to weaken trust (e.g., Insko, Kirchner, Pinter, Efaw, & Wildschut, 2005; Tanis & Postmes, 2005).

4. 6. 6 Interpersonal trust and POPS

Organizational theories that attempted to comprehend interpersonal trust have speculated relevant theories that might explain it. Lewicki, Tomlinson and Gillespie (2006), in a review of trust, indicated the behavioural and psychological approach and proposed three different models within the psychological approach. The unidimensional model emphasises that trust is composed of two separate dimensions, the cognitive and affective processes (e.g., Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2002). Findings suggest that cognition-based elements of trust precede affect-based trust (McAllister, 1995). Trust includes "expectations, assumptions or beliefs about the likelihood that

another's future actions will be beneficial, favourable or at least not detrimental" (Robinson 1996: 576). Therefore, these perceptions determine the trustor's willingness to take risks in the relationship with the trustee (e.g., initiating in an exchange relationship). Similarly, an examination of interpersonal trust focuses on motives toward others and on attributions of the other's qualities, capabilities and personalities. Scholars who studied trust and the threat of opportunism have adopted the agency theory.

As noted, scholars (Lewicki et al., 2006) stated that the cognitive sub-factor of interpersonal trust emphasizes beliefs and judgments about another's trustworthiness "We cognitively choose whom we will trust in which respects and under which circumstances, and we base the choice on what we take to be 'good reasons, constituting evidence of trustworthiness' (Lewis and Weigert 1985: 970). Thus, the cognitive element of trust provides a foundation from which evaluations are made of how the trustee will respond. Also, the emotions one experiences in trusting relationships are likely to help in the contribution of trust between parties. In close interpersonal relationships there is often an emotional bond (Lewis & Weigert, 1985) and the way individuals feel determines if they will reinforce or change cognitions about the other's party trustworthiness. However, it is worth noting that several authors (e.g., Kramer, 1994) have argued that people experienced remarkably high levels of trust from each other even early in a relationship. Fukuyama (1995) contends that some societal cultures tend to be more trusting than others.

However, despite the above findings the relationships between POPS and trust in co-workers have been equivocal. Vigoda-Gadot and Talmud

(2010) suggested that when trust in co-workers and social support dominates the intra-organisational climate then the negative effects of POPS can potentially be reduced.

Individuals are portrayed into workforce not as entirely atomistic agents (Gotsis and Kortezi, 2010) but as integral parts of groups that require exchange and sharing intentions with others in interactive games. However, POPS breeds conflict among employees for limited resources (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989) of pay, plans and equipment. When ego-centric politicking actions dominate the work places individuals are more likely to have negative beliefs and judgements about another's trustworthiness and to experience fear and anger. Thus, the more POPS arises the more difficult is for trust ties to be established among employees and the harder for trust among peers to develop.

Based on social exchange and social reciprocity theory scholars (Blau, 1964) argued that the development of positive employee attitudes and behaviours depends on the display of similar positive attitudes and behaviours by other peers of the organisation. Thus, as found in past research, I suggest that when POPS is pervasive the employee perceives that the other individuals engage in self-serving political behaviours at the expense of other goals and seem unlikely to support each other. They feel that good deeds will not be rewarded and one party will not reciprocate because there are not assurances from previous efforts that have done so. Additionally, scholars (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, Toth, 1997) maintained that there is some inherent risk that one party will be

negligent and the psychological investment is risky and becomes more risky when environments are perceived to be political.

Therefore, I propose that high levels of POPS imply low cognitive and affect based trust to other parties; conversely, low perceptions of political actions imply a greater perceived trust to other co-workers. As such, I predict the following:

Hypothesis 6b: POPS (Time 1) will be negatively related to Interpersonal trust (Time 2)

4. 6. 7 General Organizational outcomes of Trust

Many benefits stem from a trusting relationship such as greater cooperation (e.g., Coleman, 1990; Dawes, 1980; Messick & Brewer, 1983) and richer information exchange (Uzzi, 1996) than would otherwise occur. These benefits of trust are frequently invoked in network theorizing to account for network effects on important managerial outcomes such as job mobility (Podolny & Baron, 1997), job and life satisfaction (Helliwell, 2007), and knowledge sharing (e.g., Abrams, Cross, Lesser, & Levin, 2003).

In addition, researchers who examined trust in leadership within organizational context indicated that trust influences communication, cooperation, and information sharing (Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2003; Rempel, Holmes, &Zanna, 1985; Burke et al., 2007). In this light trust is also associated with satisfaction and perceived effectiveness of the leader (Gillespie & Mann, 2004), increased organizational behaviors, increased upward communication,

decreased turnover (Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), improved team (Dirks, 2000) and organizational performance/stability (Shaw, 1997).

For example, sharing information often brings a feeling of vulnerability (Argote, Gruenfeld, & Naquin, 2001) and if there is lack of trust people may actually withhold information and this diminishes performance. An interesting finding (Mayer et al., 1995) showed that people are prone to lie when trust is absent and benevolence is inversely related to the motivation to lie (Burke et al., 2007). Therefore, trust is associated with this diverse and impressive array of outcomes predicting individual-level outcomes and also positively associated with revenue and profit at the organisational level of analysis (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Simons, Tomlinson, & Leroy, 2011). Moreover, research has failed to integrate trust in POPS literature and examine trust as a mechanism that explains connections between POPS and these outcomes. To elaborate this assertion, I refer to the relevant aspects of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and generate hypotheses accordingly.

4. 6. 8 Trust and organizational citizenship behavior (OCBs)

Several studies revealed that individuals are more willing to strengthen their desire to participate in OCBs (perform OCBs) after experiencing trust. Interestingly, they suggested that trust is positively associated with both 'in-role' (formally defined as part of one's job responsibilities) and extra role

performance. Further, Dirks (2000) found trust in coaches related to the performance of basketball teams while, Davis and colleagues (2000) found trust in restaurant general managers was related to the facilities' sales and profits. Also, Zaheer et al. (1998) showed that trust was related to the performance of inter-organizational relationships.

Overall, most of the findings display a positive relationship between trust and job performance (Deluga, 1995, Earley, 1986; Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997; Podaskoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Rich, 1997) while only few indicate no relationship at all (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 1999; Konovsky & Cropanzando, 1991; MacKenzie, Podaskoff, & Rich, 2001; O'Reilly & Anderson, 1980). In other words, such studies show trust to lead to increased OCBs. There are different explanations about the processes through which trust affects OCBs. Social exchange theory plays a pivotal role in describing them.

According to social exchange theory transactions in an exchange relationship between individuals can evolve and change over time. Blau (1964) provides several examples of distinguishing between a) economic exchange relationships based on strict, quid pro quo exchanges, and b) social exchange relationships, which are based on long-term and unspecified exchanges of tangible and intangible obligations (Colquitt, Scott and LePine, 2007). In the heart of social exchange relationships and mutual exchange of resources lies trust "since there is no way to assure an appropriate return for a favour, social exchange requires trusting others to discharge their obligations" (Blau, 1964: 94). In other words, managers may demonstrate high levels of assistance on

one day and then bolster the employee on the next (i.e., fair treatment), which is a necessary condition to promote trust on the part of the employee. Thus, trust enhances the employee's motive and his/her willingness to reciprocate to these rewarding actions "the gradual expansion of exchange transactions promotes the trust necessary for them" (Blau, 1964: 98).

Likewise, these individuals accept to be vulnerable to their supervisors on the basis of the expectation that an action will occur by them (e.g., assistance, advice) irrespectively of safeguards (Colquitt et al., 2007). In circumstances when a supervisor provides resources such equity, consistency, bias suppression, voice, respect, and justification (exchange currencies, Foa & Foa, 1980) these experiences are likely to impair an employee's ability to trust his/her managers and increase their Organisational Citisenship behavior. As a result, the fair actions on the part of a supervisor could motivate individuals for engaging in citizenship behavior (Organ, 1990) (OCB-I and OCB-O).

On the other hand, employees who have experienced the cognition-based and affect-based trust typically feel care and consideration by their co-workers and experience pleasant and satisfying rewards which the supervisor holds, or will offer. In return to these rewarding and positive actions they are likely to foster positive outcomes for their organization. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) suggested that a high quality exchange relationship encourages individuals to go above and beyond their job role, to help others and spent more time in required tasks. Importantly, I assert that they could comprise the sort of rewarding favors to other individuals (organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals) and elicit citizenship behaviors towards their

organization. Consistent with previous research, therefore, I hypothesize that organizational and interpersonal trust may impair employee in high OCB-I and OCB-O

Hypothesis 7a: Organisational trust (Time 2) is positively related to supervisors' ratings of OCB-I at Time 2

Hypothesis 7b: Organisational trust (Time 2) is positively related to supervisors' ratings of OCB-O at Time 2

Hypothesis 8a: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) is positively related to supervisors' ratings of OCB-I at Time 2

Hypothesis 8b: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) is positively related to supervisors' ratings of OCB-O at Time 2

4. 6. 9 Trust and turnover intentions

Trust is also linked to intentions to resign. It was found that trust indirectly affects turnover intentions through perceptions of justice and fairness (Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006). Perceptions of justice and fairness exist when employees feel they are treated fairly and equally and are more salient when power discrepancy in the dyadic relationship exists (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Drawing on the social exchange perspective as outlined earlier, Mayer's et al. (1995) model proposes that when employees believe that their managers (or co-workers) have integrity, capability or benevolence, then they will be more comfortable engaging in risky behaviors (e.g., sharing sensitive information, Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). As a result they will have fewer

intentions to leave because of the trust in the other party and their likely future behaviors.

In addition, Mayer and Gavin (1999) suggested that trust also involves concerns over vulnerability. For example, an employee may perceive a co-worker or supervisor's actions not to have integrity, fairness and honesty, and then he/she believes that this person cannot be trusted. Thus, in light of these findings I expect that employees are more likely to use their energy and efforts 'to covering their backs' for the fear of putting oneself at risk. In addition, when they experience low levels of trust in organisation and co-workers, they are more likely to detract from their jobs and increase their intentions to leave. Therefore,

Hypothesis 9: Organisational trust (Time 2) will be negatively associated to turnover intentions (Time 2)

Hypothesis 10: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) will be negatively associated to turnover intentions (Time 2)

4. 6. 10 Trust and Affective commitment

Trust is also linked to important attitudinal outcomes such as affective commitment. Trust or a willingness to be vulnerable on the basis of positive expectations of others (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998) showed to have a positive impact on organizational commitment. A process to explain this relationship is grounded on the cognitive resource theory (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). According to this theory, individuals who trust their managers (vs. those who do not) expend

most of their cognitive resources and their attention to their organisation and their performance and only fewer cognitive resources covering their backside. On the one hand, those who do exhibit trust spend their cognitive resources with non-productive issues, especially activities focusing on self protection (Deming, 1994) or defensive strategies (Ashforth & Lee, 1990) and are less involved in organisational activities.

With social exchange recommendations in mind, as described in the previous section, I expect trust to have a positive affect on affective commitment. Trust involves beliefs about the abilities, honesty, and integrity of a manager about the extent to which he/she will make decisions for the employee's benefits. This is likely to affect the extent to which individuals are willing to feel attached to their organisation. For example, a research (Rich, 1997) discussing trust in leadership and job satisfaction reported that trust in leadership was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, because managers are responsible for many duties (performance evaluations, assistance with job responsibilities) and when their behaviors appear to be consistent with what their employees expect (i.e., consider fairly other's viewpoints providing feedback, promotions) then individuals are likely to develop a positive exchange relationship with their organization. That is, they are accepting some degree of vulnerability in the hope or expectation of obtaining a benefit over time. In addition, believing that their organisation has something valuable to offer, which could be either social or emotional (Foa & Foa, 1974) at the discretion of organisation (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998), they feel more positive and safe about their

manager's decisions and more willing to commit without the fear of putting themselves at risk.

In direct contrast, Dirks and Ferrin (2001) argued that when a leader is not honest, fair and caring they are unlikely to commit to the goals set by the leader. Therefore, when employees trust their managers they should display more favorable attitudes toward the exchange relationship and be more willing to maintain it (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). As a result, when one trusts others, he seems to become the recipient of more favorable benefits (Pierce & Gardner, 2004) and is likely to be motivated to perform well and be committed to his/her employer. Thus, based on this discussion I predict that

Hypothesis 11: Organisational trust (Time 2) will be positively related to affective commitment (Time 2)

Hypothesis 12: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) will be positively related to affective commitment (Time 2)

4. 6. 11 Trust and innovativeness-related behavior

Up until now, the majority of studies regarding the outcomes of trust have enjoyed a long history focusing on job performance, job satisfaction, goal commitment, organisational commitment (meta-analyses, Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Looking across existing studies, interpersonal trust promotes cooperative problem solving and negotiation behaviors (e.g., Zand, 1972; Ross & LaCroix, 1996). The outcomes accompanying trust relationships, however,

are far scant and more issues remain to be determined: for example how does trust relate to innovation at work? The ways these relationships are connected have not been investigated exhaustively. In addition to this question, this unit seeks to explain and examine the effects of interpersonal (affect and cognitive-based) trust on innovation. However, in order to understand them, it might be useful to look at the antecedents of innovation.

As such, the following section articulates the theoretical justification for considering innovation and elaborates on how the outcome variable is considered. A body of research has described a wide range of factors that may promote or discourage innovation. First, it was reported that innovation fostered when contextual factors such as psychological safety (Baer & Frese, 2003), participative safety climate (Axtell et al., 2000) socio-political support (Spreitzer, 1995a) and open group climate (Choi, 2004b) offer a positive, open, safe and supportive work environment. Second, job factors as well as social/group factors (e.g., Munton & West, 1995) have been proven to be determinants of innovation at the individual level. For example, job autonomy, role requirements and more challenging jobs may promote idea generation (Amabile, 1988). Several others like Shalley et al. (2004) suggested that the relationship with supervisors (e.g., Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) especially the supervisory support influences individual innovative performance. As suggested above, McAllister (1995) determined that trust has both a cognitive and an affective component. These components of interpersonal trust are pertinent to predict whether or not subordinates trust their managers (McAllister, 1995).

Nonetheless, little research (Yuan and Woodman, 2010) has examined intermediate psychological processes that explain how and why individual and contextual antecedents explain innovative behavior (Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004; West & Farr, 1990). To answer to this call, this thesis highlights the role of trust.

According to the social exchange principle, if the authority adheres on fairness and principles, then employees perceive that others show concern, loyalty and care these are viewed as signals to trust them. In line with that, research reported that trust enhances willingness to be vulnerable and people who trust take risks on the basis that a positive action will occur. An actor who has high trust perceptions of a partner will be more likely to engage in risky cooperative behaviors than will an actor who has low trust perceptions of the partner (Mayer et al., 1995; Ferrin et al., 2008; Pruitt, 1981). These facets of trust can be viewed as currencies capable of fostering innovativeness behavior. For example, when a manager provides support and assistance to his/her employees these rewarding actions obligate the employee to reciprocate in kind (see also Gouldner, 1960) or even with his/her brand of assistance by contributing in innovativeness behaviors. Hence, acknowledging favor to someone is likely to enhance citizens' motivation to contribute to innovativeness by identifying solutions to complex problems and devote all their resources attention to implement new ideas, products creativity and effort to job requests (West and Farr, 1989, 1990b).

Therefore, building on Blau's arguments scholars (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Iau, 1964) suggested that individuals who perceive that their

employer is valued and honest are likely to reciprocate with emotional engagement and trust in their exchange relationships with them. Because of the norm of reciprocity (Cialdini, 2001) individuals try to repay, in kind, what another party has provided them. Such favourable situations encourage innovative behaviors within organisations.

Extending this logic into innovativeness behaviour (as reflected in IRB scale) I expect that when employees are treated positively with interpersonal care and concern by another party such as co-workers, they are likely to think and feel that the other party is worthy to trust. Accordingly, upon reviewing they find in their track record favorable interactions with others (especially an organizational figure authority or co-workers) and they tend to make greater positive contributions to their organization as part of the social exchange (Mayer and Gavin, 2005). In addition, individuals hold expectations of what their employers owe them in return (Rousseau, 1989; 1995). Consequently, in these organisations, individuals who hold favourable behaviors that are reflective of sincerity, which brings forward pleasant emotions with their co-workers, enhance their willingness to engage in innovation. Based on these previous efforts in the literature, I suggest that the value of pleasant emotions will reinforce people's beliefs that new ideas about process and products will bring performance gains leading to more innovative behaviors. Likewise, I expect that trust in its more emotionally based dimension to be connected positively with innovation.

As noted above, individuals strive for contributions to the organisation's goals when they have confidence that their participation in

organisational activities will not undeservedly be penalized but will receive appropriate rewards for doing so. Therefore, I propose that trust in organisation and trust in co-workers will enhance their innovativeness at work

Hypothesis 7c: Organisational trust (Time 2) will be positively related to supervisors' ratings of innovativeness related behavior at Time 2

Hypothesis 8c: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) will be positively related to supervisors' ratings of innovativeness related behavior at Time 2

4. 6. 12 The mediating role of trust on POPS-Work outcomes

Studies showed that organizational members, when POPS is persistent, are unlikely to believe that their organization is just, equitable, or fair (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). For example, when political work environments are described as having unfair process in reward allocation, then its members feel less obligated to reciprocate with behaviors that enhance the well being of the organization (Chang, 2009; Aryee et al., 2004; Cropanzano et al., 1997). Similarly, lack of procedural justice (Vigoda-Gadot and Dryzin-Amit, 2006) in systems causes stronger POPS and impaired organizational outcomes. Such environments create feelings of fear and frustration that may trigger a desire to reciprocate in kind by retaliating against the source of injustice (Murphy et al., 2003; Simon and Eby, 2003). Therefore, as I suggested earlier employees are more likely to exhibit less OCBs, innovativeness, affective commitment and more intentions to turnover.

Further, as I posited above trust is "the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party" Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995: 712). Then trust is related to a host of positive outcomes such as more employee satisfaction (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Gulati & Sytch, 2007), leadership effectiveness (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004), entrepreneurship (Blatt, 2009), and more teamwork (Sargent & Waters, 2004; Simons & Peterson, 2000). The social-exchange logic further demonstrated that when psychological contracts are breached, adverse consequences arise (Johnson & O'Leary- Kelly, 2003; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1996; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Based on this logic it was hypothesised that trust is likely to have significant influence on employee's affective commitment, turnover intentions, innovativeness and OCBs.

Overall, then, meta-analyses have linked trust to citizenship behaviors and counterproductive behavior (Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Additionally, research indicates that a significant relationship exists between the extent to which a trustor perceives a co-worker or organizations to be trustworthy and his or her performance (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Research also suggested that trust in organisations mediates the relationship between psychological contract breach and loyalty and withdrawal behavior (Lo & Aryee, 2003), between perceived organizational support and commitment and performance (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005; Whitener, 2001),

between workgroup incivility and burnout and turnover intentions (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010).

From a social exchange perspective it follows that individuals who are perceived as highly trusted (having a certain set of skill, benevolence, competency) have the potential to receive more performance ratings-related than do individuals who are perceived to be less trustworthy (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009), because trust reduces uncertainty about a partner's reciprocation while fostering a sense of obligation (Blau, 1964).

Accordingly, I posit that in order to discharge that obligation employees reciprocate with (favorable behaviors) compliance to their organization and one of them would be citizenship behaviour and engagement in innovative activities (IRB). Taken together, I also assume that low organisational and interpersonal trust may, in turn, lead to feeling less attached to one's organisation, having more thoughts about leaving the organisation and less thoughts of undertaking innovative behaviors. Based on these reasoning I propose that

Hypothesis 13a, b, c, d, e: Organisational Trust (Time 2) will mediate the relationship between a) POPS-OCB-O, (Time 2) b) POPS-OCB-I c) POPS-innovativeness behavior (Time 2) d) POPS-turnover intentions (Time 2), and e) POPS-affective commitment (Time 2)

Hypothesis 13 f, j: Interpersonal trust (Time 2) will mediate the relationship among f) POPS-affective commitment (Time 2), and j) POPS-turnover intentions (Time 2)

4.7 POLITICAL BEHAVIOR

4. 7. 1 Introduction

Since politics has been stated as simply a fact of organisation life, and subjectively perceived in the workplace, I believe it's the combination of these perceptions, in addition to the specific behaviors by specific individuals that play a role in determining attitudes and behaviors. Otherwise stated, it is the political behaviours a theme that is prevalent in the politics research- that serves as a basis for understanding POPS (Zanzi & O'Neill, 2001) and guides people's responses to that. More recently in the management literature political behaviour has emerged as a prominent construct in the POPS literature and has demonstrated significant interest especially after 1990's.

Therefore, in the next section I will present a brief history of the relevant theoretical findings about political behavior and I will examine the lower half of Fig.1 which outlines the way in which POPS relates to political behavior and mediates the relationships among POPS and attitudinal outcomes including affective commitment, and turnover intentions.

Different theoretical perspectives have arisen about the concept of political behavior and to address this theoretical diversity, I distinguish between two perspectives that appear in the literature. One approach is consistent with traditional claims that political behavior is inherently self-serving (Ferris et al., 1989; Porter et al., 1981) and an organisationally non-sanctioned behaviour (e.g., Ferris, Russ and Fandt, 1989; Gandz and Murray, 1980; Porter, Allen and Angle, 1981) which may be detrimental to organizational goals or to the interests of others in the organization (e.g., Ferris

et al., 1989; Gandz and Murray, 1980; Porter et al., 1981). This approach on political behavior has influenced fundamentally contemporary organizational scholars.

Examples of these political behaviors include activities such as taking credit for others' successes, working behind the scenes to secure not available results using less legitimate means, and stabbing others in the back to get ahead (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Hochwarter, 2003). Such political behaviors can be characterized by an emphasis on the intentions of those activities that are assumed to be concealed and self-serving in nature.

Some of the researchers following this approach have described political behavior as 'the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organisation or to obtain sanctioned ends through non sanctioned influence means' (Mayer and Allen, 1977, p.675). Followers (Katz and Kahn, 1978) who have used this perspective have defined political behavior as the calculated persuasion which could favorably alert an organisation's status quo.

Consistent with this notion, organisational researchers have also recognized that political behaviors which govern institutions are a social disease (Chanlat, 1997) and this could provoke the need of eradication (Buchanan, 2008; Voyer, 1994). Such voices are among the strictest views to be found in the literature.

In short, commonalities have been identified in the above definitions regarding political behavior (Buchanan, 2008; Fairholm, 1993). For example, scholars articulate the role of power struggle over work assets (Vigoda-Gadot,

2003) for capturing the nature of political behavior. They argued that power and conflicts usually handle with working environments portrayed as highly ambiguous, and uncertain. These working conditions appear to be aligned with the antecedents of political behavior. Similarly, it is believed that the lack of clear rules motivates individuals to engage in unsanctioned behaviors regardless of the cost to others in the organization (Ferris, King, Judge, and Kacmar, 1991). Others have determined the bureaucratic working settings (Gandz and Murray, 1980) as antecedents of political behaviours.

A second perspective focuses on the positive aspects of political behaviours. Instead of describing political behavior as unsavory, undesirable activities or struggles over resources, scholars are shifting their attention on positive sides of political behavior (Sederberg, 1984; Pfeffer 1981). For example, Vigoda-Gadot (2003) formulated political behavior 'as a socially acceptable phenomenon' (p.10). In addition, Pfeffer (1981) defined it as social activity that contributes to the organization's goals and objectives. Further, Ferris et al.,(2002) stated that "*political behavior deals with influence attempts that occur at the individual and group level, while organizational politics examines the extent to which such behaviors are pervasive in the work, decision making, and resource allocation"* (2002:183). Although, these perspectives assess positive and negative aspects of political behavior these definitions are largely one-sided. In other words, they fail to recognize that employees could potentially experience various degrees of both.

Therefore, in direct contrast to the above perspectives is a middle-of-the road perspective which directs scholars to describe political behavior as

the ‘two-edged sword’ (Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980, p.93). Importantly, Buchanan’s (2008) review about political behavior splits into functional and dysfunctional antecedents devoting a ‘balancing’ principle in the way they treat political behavior which is neither inherently positive nor inherently negative (Fedor et al., 2008; Pfeffer, 1981). Similarly, Sederberg (1984) assumed that ‘political behavior is a social activity designed to generate, maintain, or alter shared meaning, which is neither inherently constructive nor destructive’ (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011, p.437). Table 5 illustrates a summary of the definitions of political behaviour in the literature.

TABLE 5 *Definitions Of Political Behavior*

Relevant Citations	*Definitions of political behaviour*
Allen et al., (1979)	*Intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups*
Gandz & Murray (1980)	*Self-serving behaviour that is deviation from techno-economic rationality in decision making* *The pursuit of self-interest at work in the face of real or imagined opposition*
Ferris et al., (1996)	*Behaviour not formally authorized, officially certified or widely accepted by the organization-efforts to maximize self-interest, perhaps at the expense of others and\or the organization*
Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Duhlebohn (1999)	*Self –serving behaviour involving tactically assertive behaviours*
Valle & Perrewe (2000)	*The exercise of tactical influence by individuals that is strategically goal directed, rational, conscious and intended to promote self-interest, either at the expense of or in support of others' interests*
Treadway, Adams & Goodman (2005)	*Behaviour not formally sanctioned by the organization, which produces conflict and disharmony in the work environment by pitting individuals and/or groups against one another, or against the organization*
Andrews, Witt & Kacmar, (2003) **Hochwarter,Witt Kacmar (2000)** **Witt, Andrews & Kacmar (2000)**	*Behaviors designed to foster self-serving taken without regard to, or at the expense of, organizational goals*
Andrews & Kacmar, (2001) **Harris & Kacmar (2005)**	*Actions by individuals directed towards the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization*

Byrne (2005)	*Intentional actions (covert or overt) by individuals to promote and protect their self-interest, sometimes at the expense of and without regard for the well-being of others or their organization*
Kurchner-Hawkins& Miller (2006)	*Political behavior consists of ‘‘influence tactics designed to further self and/or organizational interests, and its basic aim is to reconcile and effectively manage such potentially competing interests’’(p. 331)*

Although empirical evidence seems to consistently demonstrate the negative impact of political behavior on employees' negative psychological states (Ferris et al., 1996, Kacmar, et al., 2005), few concluded that there are several interpersonal and organizational benefits for someone to engage in political behavior activities (Mayer and Allen, 1977). For instance, research suggested that political behavior improves leader-member relations (Wayne & Green, 1993), career mentoring (Aryee, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996) and customer satisfaction (Yagil, 2001). Key findings also documented political behavior as a necessary component of processes for successful innovation (Hargrave and Van De Ven, 2006) and creativity (Buchanan & Badham, 1999). Under these circumstances, political behaviors seem potentially as an opportunity (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Hochwarter, 2003) rather than a threat for organizations and employees.

To date, previous and recent efforts in the conceptualization of political behavior illustrate a continuous interest by scholars and practitioners suggesting that this concept is still under transition. Specifically, Kacmar et al. (1990, p.385) argued that 'the investigation of political behavior in

organizations is of extreme importance if management theory and research are to provide relevant information and sound prescriptive advice about dealing effectively with politics in organizations to business practitioners'.

However, the majority of studies have neglected to assess political behaviors beyond the definitions proposed by Treadway et al. (2005). Scholars, for example, assert that organizations adopt a variety of impression management tactics to create an image in the eyes of constituencies (Bolino et al., 2008; Highhouse, Thornbury, & Little, 2007; Mohamed, Gardner, & Paolillo, 1999).

Therefore, relying solely on current perspectives to understand political behavior might limit our ability to distinguish political behaviors from other types of social influence tactics. Although the constructs of political behaviors have been used to capture mostly negative aspects of POPS, they do not, however, offer the opportunity to discern whether or nor variety taxonomies of political behavior exists. With respect to influence attempts, political influence tactics are not fully captured through these approaches. As such the next unit presents the literature regarding variety taxonomies of political behavior and incorporates a portfolio of influence tactics in order to account for employee political behaviors in this research. In doing so, it hopes to use an influence tactics lens to explore the aforementioned deficiencies in political behavior assessment. It examines employee political influence behaviors (political influence behavior is coded into nine influence tactics that are thought to encapsulate the majority of political behaviors) and its relationship with POPS.

4. 7. 2 Taxonomies, antecedents and consequences of tactics of impression management

Since many of the influence tactics are driven purely by self-serving objectives and are depending on how they are being used and whose interests are being considered, an investigation to learn more about the types of political behavior and how these influence organizational and attitudinal outcomes seems fitted. Therefore, it is useful to exhibit these political behavior categories.

Politics scholars (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995) have investigated social influence processes by concentrating on impression management and influence tactics. Further, they would suggest that these influence tactics might foster or hinder employees' interests to further their own agenda. For example, Goffman (1959) firstly set out the conceptualization of the impression management and addressed the role of dramaturgy in order to understand the social interactions into working lives. He emphasized that inside organizations people can be linked to 'actors' (e.g., employees) who strive to control their images directed to the 'targets' (e.g., supervisors). In addition, the actors' images depend on the audience and the situation; for example, an actor engages in behavioral repertoire toward the target by creating a favorable image (e.g., a persona) aiming to maximize personal gains –which may be social, psychological, or material.

Accordingly, impression management has been defined as a specific form of social influence behavior applied by an individual in various contexts

(Tadeschi and Melburg, 1984; Rosenfeld et al., 2002; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Jones and Pitman, 1982) attempting to control or manipulate others' impression of him/her (Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). Interestingly, many researchers (Bolino, 1999; Jones and Pitman, 1982) have used various categories of impression management behaviors across a broad spectrum of organizations. For example, Jones and Pittman (1982) identified five impression management tactics: supplication, intimidation, ingratiation, self-promotion and exemplification. This five dimensions taxonomy has been empirically validated (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) and measures a wide variety of impression management behaviors.

Specifically, intimidation tactics (Jones, 1999) constitutes of threatening or intimidating activities toward colleagues. Research has shown that individuals who employ such a forceful manner are intellectually aware that their attempts will be viewed as negative, because they try to create an image of danger in the eyes of others while at least the outcomes would be considered positively for them. In the same spirit, supplication tactics involve broadcasting one's shortcoming behaviors in which people incline to be given the view that are needy.

Thus, in addition to more traditional categorization of tactical-assertive behaviors are the ingratiation and self promotion behaviors. For example, Ferris, Russ and Fandt, (1992), Tedeschi and Melburg, (1984) claimed that ingratiation and self-promotion are the most cited typologies of influence behaviors into political research, whilst John and Pitman (1982) have

distinguished between the ingratiation, whose intent is to be liked, and the self-promoter, whose desires appear competent.

In particular, ingratiation is defined as influence behavior attempts that are intended to increase liking up, or similarity to a target individual (Blackuburn, 1981; Jones, 1964). It is largely based on the individuals' attempts to appear likable by a target audience (Ralston, Elsass, 1989; Regan, Strauss and Fazio, 1974, Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). According to Jones (1964) there are three types of ingratiation styles: self-presentation (false modesty, smiling, rending favors), opinion conformity (i.e., voicing values and beliefs that are similar to those of the target individual), and other enhancement (i.e., flattery). Scholars (e.g., Burn et al., 1974) adopted the social psychological paradigm of similarity-attraction to explain why individuals are attracted by those who are similar to them (Byrne, 1971; Clore & Byrne, 1974; Pandey & Kakkar, 1982). They found that the ingratiation types of influence increase liking and opinion conformity which lead to similarity, and ultimately attraction among individuals.

Alternatively, *self-promotion* is thought to be related to one's personal accomplishments, characteristics or qualities with the intention of presenting one's self in the most favorable manner (Ferris & Judge, 1991). These attempts can have two basic forms: entitlements (e.g., verbal claims of responsibility for positive events) and enhancements (e.g., attempts to exaggerate or make more of one's accomplishments than is justified). On the other hand, exemplification is a form of assertive tactics and refers to people's efforts to do more or better

than is necessary designed to appear dedicated or superior (Bolino et al., 2008; Jones & Pittman, 1982).

Other taxonomies of impression management which have been proposed focus on defensive-assertive strategies (Bozeman and Kacmar, 1997; Mohamed et al., 1999; Tedeschi and Melburg, 1984; Wayne and Liden, 1995), self or job-focused tactics. According to this taxonomy, self-focused tactics are characterized by behaviors intended to create the impression that the subordinate is a nice and polite person. Similarly, defensive strategies feature activities when subordinates' poor performance is claimed whilst assertive strategies are responsible for establishing a particular reputation with a specific target audience, and are not merely a reaction to situational demands (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Examples included: excuses, apologies, self-handicapping, self-deprecation, and learned helplessness.

Therefore, much like the above, job-focused tactics comprise these behaviors and verbal statements intend to enhance employee performance by creating a positive image in the eyes of the supervisors (Wayne & Liden, 1995). In line with that, supervisor-focused tactics have been referred as verbal and non-verbal behaviors directed toward the supervisor; Wayne and Ferris (1990) proposed that assertive tactics might be both supervisor, self, and job-focused.

Antecedents of political behavior

Researchers have also investigated the determinants of individual influence in organizations and stated that contextual factors are responsible including political norms (Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1981), the affect or liking (Ferris & Judge, 1991) characteristics of the influence target (Mowday, 1978) and direction of the influence (Yukl & Fable, 1990). Indeed, Snyder (1974) noted that individuals who are high self-monitors, and sensitive to social cues were likely to engage in the manipulation of information, because of the need to fit their behaviors into social situations. Additionally, Fandt and Ferris (1990) examined the role of ambiguity and accountability in the expression of a positive image and argued that employees might manage information to present a high positive image when ambiguity is low and accountability high. In such cases, individuals may consider more strategic ways to achieve the desired end.

In another study by Kacmar, Carlson, and Bratton (2004) the role of situational and dispositional antecedents of impression management tactics was examined For instance, favour rendering was found to positively relate to self-esteem, need for power, and job involvement. Interestingly, evidence indicated that Machiavellianism is also likely to impact tactics of impression management. Bolino and Turnley (2001) pinpoint that high Machiavellianians tend to display relatively high levels of all the impression management tactics. Their findings further suggest that women relative to men exhibit low levels of self-monitoring impression management tactics. Furthermore, studies noted that influence tactics are the result of the context the status of the target

(Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl and Tracey, 1992) of influence, and the functional areas of the organization. For example, even though two individuals have the same level of influence towards other individuals they might differentiate on *when* and *how* they use these tactics.

Outcomes of political behavior and influence tactics

A large body of research committed to the study of impression management tactics suggests that various impression management tactics influence an array of behaviors and occur at multiple levels. In general, the existence of these behaviors is focused on either looking good or avoiding looking bad (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 2002) to obtain valued and desirable outcomes such as job offers (Leary & Kowalski, 1990) and career advancement (Feldman & Klich, 1991).

In some cases, supplication and intimidation have shown to have either positive or negative effects on performance ratings (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Wayne & Liden, 1995). For example, when a distasteful chore arises employees are likely to engage in supplication tactics for convincing others that are incapable of performing such a task. Alternatively, it was suggested that intimidation tactics will occur when the scope is to create an image that will bring high performance evaluations (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) than others do. Finally, employees who apply high levels of tactics, without a discriminate or polished manner run a risk to be viewed as less competent workers by their supervisors (Crant, 1995).

However, in some cases, ingratiation, self-promotion and exemplification tactics lead to positive outcomes (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003) for the individuals. As such, when an individual uses these tactics for developing his/her reputation inside the company and building his image as a competent professional then he/she might receive high performance (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001) ratings. Wayne and Kacmar (1991) in a laboratory experiment measured a significant positive relationship between the number of criticism offered by supervisors in the performance appraisal interview session with a number of compliments, recommendations, and jokes. Therefore, the results of influence tactics on performance appraisal ratings are mixed for all parties involved (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Wayne & Liden, 1995).

4. 7. 3 Measures of influence tactics of impression management

Bacharach and Lawler (1980:154) defined influence tactics as behaviors that can change power relations, whereas Kipnis et al. (1980) argued that influence tactics lies in the heart of organizational politics. Also, influence tactics aims at accomplishing certain goals for the individual who applies them and changes the actions of others in some intended fashion (Dahl, 1957; Mowday, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).To conduct the research on tactics in organizational contexts previously described, researchers have developed various measures (Jones and Pittman, 1982; Kipnis & Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). For example, Gunn & Chen (2001) constructed a scale of measure management tactics from three

different perspectives: the boss, the coworkers, and the subordinates; whilst Schrisheim and Hinkin's (1990) scale measures tactics used by subordinates targeted at their superiors. Additionally, Wayne and Ferris (1990) developed a measure of influence tactics that included items that focused on only one target, either the supervisor or the job.

Additionally, Kipnis et al. (1990), as well as Yukl (2005) provided taxonomies that measured the type of behavior an agent uses to influence the attitudes or the behavior of the target. Analytically, Kipnis et al. (1980) original set of eight influence tactics contains measures of assertiveness, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward-appeal, blocking, and coalition. This measurement scale represents operationalizations of political behavior and remains the most detailed quoted analysis in the politics literature. Although, their scale has been widely used, it has not distinguished influence tactics concerning the employees' hierarchy, and does not capture different organization sizes, culture, and sector orientation.

Moreover, Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) provided the 24-item measure of ingratiatory behaviors to measure how frequently employees engage in ingratiatory behaviors (MIBOS). In particular, Kacmar and Valle (1997) and Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe, and Ralston's (1998) were unable to confirm the scale's factor structure.

Notably, researchers have often adopted only one or two of the components or only a subset of the original items within each component (e.g., Barsness et al., 2005; Bolino et al., 2006; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Therefore, measures have been inconsistent while they rarely

use the full supervisor-focused tactics scale developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). With one exception, the majority of studies investigate the characteristics of the target in relation to the actor's influence tactics (Hazer and Jacobson, 2003; Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley and Gilstrap; 2008). Furthermore, defensive tactics such as excuses, justifications, self-handicapping and apologies have been ignored in the literature (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Also, it was recommended that scales such as MIBOS should be modified and further tested. Scholars have thoroughly examined (overemphasis on) ingratiation or supervisor-focused tactics and self-promotion or job-focused tactics to the exclusion of others (Bolino et al., 2008). These scales, however, are not without limitations.

Conversely, scholars have highlighted the need to find ways to incorporate tactics that may reside at individual and organisational levels of analysis. For example, they suggest researchers to combine a group of different impression management tactics (Bolino & Turnley, 2003b) or to measure separately the way according to which characteristics of influence tactics targets might affect the effectiveness of such behaviour (Hazer & Jacobson, 2003). Likewise, previous research (Ferris, Hochwarter et al., 2002, p.438) has confirmed the need of politics literature to comprise in its agenda altogether the effects of portfolios' multiple compatible influence tactics which more closely reflects the actual political behavior in organizations.

In light of these findings, the next section of the thesis commences with the Yukl and Tracey (1992, 1995) taxonomy of tactics as measured in the IBQ questionnaire (Yukl, 2003). This taxonomy had been largely ignored in

the past. These tactics are labelled as: *rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, ingratiation, exchange, pressure, legitimate tactics, and coalition buildings* and I define them as tactics which represent either sanctioned or non-sanctioned political behavior. Such tactical behaviors, especially inside organizations, are particularly important, because they carry a strong motivation to ensure how positive/negative is the political behavior which is directed to it.

Therefore, I respond to a call by Harris et al. (2007) for the implication of different foci of influence tactics into the study of POPS. Table 6 presents a list the forms of influence tactics as proposed by Yukl (1992). To fill this void, I incorporate the above list of political influence behaviors in my study (Table 6) and explore its relationship with POPS. This agenda is thought to be a very fertile area for exploration due to its positive implications for individuals (and for the multiple uses they have) when POPS dominate the working -place. This thesis is designed to challenge the current understanding by exploiting the types of political behavior used by individuals within work.

Table 6 *Forms Of Influence Tactics By Yukl Et Al. (1992)*

Rational Persuasion	You use logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade the person that a proposal or request and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives
Consultation	You seek the person's participation in planning strategy, activity, or change for which you desire his/her support and assistance, or you are willing to modify a request or proposal to deal with the person's concerns and suggestions
Inspirational appeals	You make a request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to the person's values, ideas, and aspirations, or by increasing the person's confidence that he or she would be able to carry out the request successfully.
Personal Appeal	You appeal to the person's feelings of loyalty and friendship toward you when you ask him or her to do something
Ingratiation	You seek to get the person in a good mood or to think favorably of you before making request or proposal (e.g., compliment the person, act very friendly)
Exchange	You offer an exchange of favors, indicate willingness to reciprocate a favor at a later time, or promise the person a share of the beliefs if s/he helps you accomplish a task
Pressure	You use demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders, to influence the person to do what you want
Collaboration	You offer to provide any assistance you need to carry out a request.
Apprising	You describe benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learns new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).
Legitimate Tactics	You seek to establish the legitimacy of a request by claiming the authority or right to make it, or by verifying that it is consistent with organizational policies, rules, practices, or traditions

Coalition Tactics	You seek the aid of others to persuade the target person to do something, or use the support of others as a reason for the target person to agree to your request

Note: *'Actors' refers to the person who exhibits influence tactics behaviors. 'Target' refers to the person or group of people at whom the behaviors are focused. The type of behavior one person (the 'agent') uses to influence the attitudes or behavior of another person (the 'target') is called an influence tactic (Yukl at al., 2005)*

4. 7. 4 POPS and Political influence behavior

Given the large number of investigations on political behavior and impression management tactics it is quite surprising that there are relatively few (e.g., Kapoutsis et al., 2012) which have actually focused on the relationship between an individual's perceptions of organisational politics and his/her subsequent attempt to employ specific political influence behavior.

More noteworthy, traditional examinations of influence tactics into organizational contexts reveal that they are silent into organizational politics and Vigoda (2003) confirmed how specifically designed types of activities such as political tactics help employees to maximize their self-interest, to satisfy their needs and to arrive at the promised-land (e.g., success, money, satisfaction). In addition, Rosen et al. (2009) suggested that managers who are good politicians routinely exert political influence to acquire things for their groups, to promote initiatives that they believe will benefit the firm, and to enhance employees motivation for performance.

Judge and Bretz (1994) proved that ingratiation and self-promotion may account for POPS in organisations. For instance, ingratiation is a

supervisor-focused tactic intending to increase liking by, or similarity to, a target individual. Relatedly, scholars argued that self-promotion reflects the act of highlighting one's personal accomplishments, or characteristics, or qualities in order to present them in an acceptable and favorable manner.

Therefore, the most relevant categories of influence tactics related to POPS in the literature are those proposed by Wayne and Ferris (1990) (a) *supervisor-focused tactics*, (b) *job-focused tactics*, and (c) *self-focused tactics.* There is room to debate, however, whether this proposal captures the fullness of strategies of political behaviors. Irrespectively, scholars (Mayes and Allen 1977; Farrell and Petersen 1982) have classified political behaviors as either legitimate or illegitimate. Similarly, others (Zanzi and O'Neill, 2001) have identified differences between sanctioned and non-sanctioned political tactics. For example, the legitimate (sanctioned) influence tactics include acceptable or often encouraged behaviors that individuals exert openly to promote themselves as well as organisational objectives (e.g., image building, inspirational appeal, persuasion). Further, it was noted that individuals tend to view these political tactics favourably and as necessary parts of their jobs (Vredenburgh and Maurer 1984; Kapoutsis et al., 2012) because organisations tolerate such tactics.

Conversely, non-sanctioned political tactics refer to behaviors such as blaming and attacking others, and control information that is not socially desirable and deviates from the organizational goals (Gotsis and Kortezi, 2010). This work suggests that individuals can use them off-stage, because they fear that their exposure could result in stigmatization (Ammeter, Douglas,

Gardner, Hochwarter and Ferris, 2002) and severe consequences such as withdrawal or career stagnation (Ferris et al., 2000). Similarly, a recent study (Kapoutsis et al., 2012) distinguishes sanctioned and non-sanctioned political behavior and investigates its role in career success. They found that non-sanctioned political behavior suppresses the relationship between POPS and career success.

According to Zanzi et al. (1991) as well as Zanzi and O'Neill (2001) organisational politics represents the tactics individuals use to influence the perceptions that others have on them. For instance these influence tactics can take the form of legitimate actions such as sanctioned including positive, tolerating, expecting or even encouraging organisations-or non sanctioned-including unacceptable, undesirable, and negative. Thus, this treatment of influence tactics opens new paths of thinking contradictory to the previous definitions of political behaviour.

For a group of theorists POPS is synonymous with manipulation, coercive influence tactics, and other subversive and semi-legal actions (e.g., Ferris & King, 1991; Mintzberg, 1983, 1985). For few scholars, when POPS is perceived as something positive it often leads employees to engage in behaviors such as influence tactics (e.g. Higgins, Judge and Ferris 2003). However, it is believed that it forges subsequent rewards upward regardless of the cost to others in organisations (Ferris, King, Judge, and Kacmar 1991; Breaux et al., 2009).

Further, Vredenburgh and Maurer (1984) reached the conclusion that political behaviour at work is undertaken by individuals or interest groups to influence directly or indirectly target individuals, roles, or groups toward the actor's personal goals, generally in opposition to others' goals. They also reported that POPS consists of goals or means either non-sanctioned by an organization's formal design or sanctioned by unofficial norms. More specifically, scholars explained that illegitimate (non-sanctioned) political tactics refers to not socially desirable behaviors that (e.g., blaming and attacking others, manipulation, coalition building) deviate from organizational goals (Gotsis and Kortezi, 2010) and norms (Vredenburgh and Maurer, 1984).

Overall, derived from previous research (e.g., Ferris et al., 1996) political organizations described as working places governed by non-sanctioned norms and rules and uncertainty of how others are going to act are associated with increased levels of influence. Therefore, corresponding with this ideology and assuming that organisations are political arenas that present opportunities or barriers wherein participants can use a number of influence tactics over problems and compromise their differences. As such, Kipnis et al. (1980) emphasize that political behavior is built up by intra-organisational influence tactics used by organisational members to promote self-interests or organisational goals in different ways. For example, an employee who perceives his/her working environment as political may use influence management tactics to enhance or protect his share of organisational resources and benefits to the extent that such conduct becomes purely self-serving.

Essentially, these organizations do not provide befitting recognition for individual efforts and based on the theory of social exchange resources (Robinson et al., 1994) between employees and their organizations, I also propose that employees seek to re-establish balance with their organization by using specific types of behaviors to influence people's attitudes or to have a favorable evaluation. Furthermore, in many contexts individuals attempt to enhance their powers within organizations and increase their likelihood for getting their way in organizational decisions (Pfeffer 1983, 1994) by using specific types of behaviors. For example, a worker can mobilize capacities and mean tactics to influence managers or other professional associations in support of achieving promotion by influencing the decision making.

Therefore, I suppose that the political environment which was perceived as supportive enhances employee motivation to use legitimate influence tactics (such as inspirational appeal, persuasion and consultation) and reciprocated analogically (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin 1999; Chang, Rosen and Levy, 2009). This felt obligation will be an important element for members to compensate beneficially their organisation and they are likely to strengthen the bond with their organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Thus, I suspect that these enactments are likely to be operationalized as political influence tactics and employees are likely to use them while gaining self-interest.

Hypothesis 14: POPS (Time 1) is positively related to the use of political influence behavior (Time 2)

4. 7. 5 The effects of political influence behavior on affective commitment and turnover intentions

So far, scholars echoed (Chang et al., 2009; Ferris et al., 2007) that political behavior is vaguely related to the problems confronting employees and managers and predominantly stressed the negative consequences of political behavior on post layoff regret (Sullivan, Forret, & Mainiero, 2007). They also suggested that political behavior takes the forms of bulling in settings perceived as unfair and it appears to be a running resentment (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2007). However, a minority of studies (Gunn and Chen, 2006) provided evidence that a set of tactics which represents politics namely persuasion, reference to super-ordinate goals, development of coalition, and networking are necessary ways that enhance the effectiveness of the organization (Zanzi and O'Neill, 2001; Gunn and Chen, 2006). Furthermore, it is documented in the literature that effects of political behavior on emotional exhaustion, and job performance, when associated with positive levels of reputation (Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnell, & James, 2007). All researchers sought to challenge and replace the standard conception of political behavior, namely as a negative construct that has unfavorable outcomes.

Interestingly, what is really the impact of political influence tactics on employees' affective commitment and turnover intentions? The answer may lie on both the social exchange and management impression theory. Drawing on a social exchange theory perspective, researchers argued that an organization with high levels of political tactics has been described as

inherently an unpleasant environment which results in psychological strain, decline of morale, and disequilibrium in the exchange relationship (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Hsiung, Lin and Lin, 2012). As a result, individuals follow the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964) and try to reciprocate with those who expect at least benefits. For example, research shows that psychological stressors such as ambiguity and conflict elicit negative emotions and reduce the likelihood that employees correspond with negative feelings of attachment to their organisations.

According to these accounts, employees view their manager as a representative of the organisation and generalize their exchange relationship from the manager to the organisation. Initially, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982: 31) stated that "it would appear that commitment to the organization can be bolstered to the extent that employees see the organization as a source of need satisfaction." For example, an employee's manager does not encourage her, refuse to offer her training and always say negative things about her performance. Thus, one can imagine that the relationship with the organisation will be evaluated negatively when employees outweigh negative experience.

Much in the same way, the political influence behavior will have a suppressive effect on affective commitment. Researchers identified affective organisational commitment as an employee's emotional attachment to, or identification with, an employer (Allen and Meyer, 1996). In support, there are multiple components of organizational commitment but none has received as much attention as the affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Matthieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer &Allen, 1991; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Therefore, based on this discussion, employees view their valuation by the supervisor as indicative of their valuation by the organization (Eisenberger, Aselage, Sucharki, & Jones, 2004; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995). Then, I suggest that employees are aware that the supervisors' political influence behavior and the ego-centric functions of these behaviors lead them to the generalization of their unfavorable treatments as an unfavorable exchange relationship with the organization which ultimately makes the employees dislike them. Thus, I propose that employees are likely to increase their intentions to leave this uncaring organization and decrease their commitment to it.

Hypothesis 15: Political influence behavior will be negatively related to affective organizational commitment (Time 2)

Hypothesis 16: Political influence behavior (Time 2) will be negatively related to turnover intentions (Time 2)

4. 7. 6 The effects of political influence behavior on OCBs and innovativeness-related behaviour

Research suggests that people use tactics of impression management in order to land jobs (e.g., Ellis, West, Ryan, & DeShon, 2002). Accordingly, scholars have explored the ways in which such tactics influence supervisors' evaluations of their employees (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Though these consequences are important for

organisational outcomes, it is also essential to examine political influence behavior beyond its forefront consequences.

Although research has provided evidence that a subordinate's upward influence tactics result in favorable performance ratings from supervisors (Ferris, Judge et al., 1994) researchers have yet to examine the ways in which tactics might affect supervisor ratings of OCBs (Bolino et al., 2006). Though studies contributed in part to this interest we still know little about how political influence behavior (testing thirteen sanctioned and five non-sanctioned strategies as I measured by Yukl's IBQ scale) might contribute to the supervisors ratings of OCBs (OCB-I and OCB-O) and innovativeness.

Looking across existing studies and a broad classification of influence tactics most but not all influential tactics are equally affective for employees to achieve desired outcomes. For example, co-workers who exhibit political types of behaviors receive favorable treatments from supervisors (Zhou et al., 1995). Others found that both the ingratiation and rationality types of strategies associate stronger than extrinsic success (e.g, salary and promotions) with performance assessments. This happened because performance assessments are within the direct control of the typical target of these tactics. Similarly, findings indicated that individuals who exhibit high ingratiatory behaviors appear to have a greater chance of succeeding in their careers than those who use these tactics to a lesser degree (Ferris, Judge, 1991). In line with that, the upward appeal influence tactics are designed to motivate the supervisors to promote subordinates' desired outcomes (Higgins et al., 2003) while assertiveness is associated positively with extrinsic success.

Overall, Ferris and his colleagues (e.g., Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994) were among the first to indicate the potential overlap of impression management tactics and OCBs (Bolino et al., 2008). Bolino (1999) claimed that impression management tactics motives account for citizenship behaviors through specific ways and certain times. For example, individuals use influence tactics when they are closer to their performance review to increase their OCBs or use OCBs to impress influential others. More specifically, scholars indicated that some employees may use strategies appealing to convince their managers that they are willing to go the extra mile for their organization. In other words, one can imagine that a person's attempts to present her/his self as dedicated and nice, as one who makes compliments, and offers exchange favors to accomplish a task, is likely to engage in positive behaviors.

That is, supervisors tend to form generalized impressions of their employees and often rely on these schemas when evaluating them (Ilgen, Barnes-Farrell, & McKellin, 1993; Vandenberg et al., 2005). According to this process, it was suggested that individuals recall behaviors that would be characteristics of a prototypical employee, regardless of whether the behaviors were actually observed (Foti & Lord, 1987).

Impression management scholars, therefore, have noted that when employees have cultivated favourable impressions they are viewed favourably by their supervisors who tend to remember positive subordinate behaviors. As a result, a 'halo' effect (Bolino et al., 2006) is likely to occur in

the appraisal process and may also make employees seen as engaging in organisational citizenship behaviors frequently.

In addition, Ferris et al. (1994) argued that, the supervisor-focused behaviors are the ones most similar to acts of citizenship among the three. It is also supported that individuals who engage in ingratiatory behaviors appear as helpful and considerable according to Jones and Pittman (1982). Moreover, in a meta-analysis of social-psychological and organizational studies Gordon (1996) suggested that ingratiation tactics generally have a positive effect on performance evaluations and judgments of interpersonal attraction.

Likewise, the use of sanctioned tactics (collaboration, apprising, exchange, ingratiation and personal appeals consultation, inspiration) by employees should be positively related to supervisors' evaluations of employee OCBs. In short, based on previous findings in the literature I suggest that those individuals who engage in ingratiation, inspiration, and apprising acts tend to be seen as considerable, dedicated, helpful, inspirational individuals and impress others who possess authority.

However, when their impressions are evaluated negatively, supervisors recall employee behavior that is less positive (Ferris et al., 1994). Furthermore, (Bolino et al., 2006) it was argued that a 'horns' effect has created less positive images and might be seen as engaging in OCBs less often (Fisicaro, 1988). In this regard, use of job-focused tactics which involve the presentation of employee performance on the job or self-promotion tactics (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001) often result in

very negative outcomes. For example, Judge and Bretz (1994) suggested that these were inversely related to career success.

It is expected, therefore, that employees who utilise pressure to their supervisors, coalitions, persuasion, legitimate tactics to do their jobs, would be more likely seen by their supervisors as less negative than they truly are. In particular, employees who engage in pressure coalition to impress, appear to be more competent but are unfavourably regarded by their colleagues. As such, I suggest that they should be less likely to be seen as good citizens.

An alternative perspective to understand these relationship variations derives from the social influence theory. According to this theory, people's lives are largely building on interactions in the social environment at work and researchers have paid great attention to social influence theory in order to explain the ways in which influence tactics affect evaluations of performance in the workplace. Researchers have also found that individuals use specific forms of influence tactics (e.g., ingratiation, intimidation) when examining organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Bolino, 1999; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007).

Like others that have attempted to unravel issues in the impression management tactics and social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998) I propose that individuals rather than being inconsiderate about their influences toward others are more apt to employ various forms of behaviors and tactics in order to influence other parties' (peers or supervisors) perceptions and decisions (Levy et al., 1998) for their benefits. For instance, influence behaviors are

used as plausible instruments for those aiming to achieve their goals (Fischer, 2005). Furthermore, these individuals do care about the specific image of themselves at work which in turn influences favourably their performance (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995) rating, the allocation of work tasks and extra responsibilities. In other words, specific types of political behaviors help or hinder individuals' attempts to create, or alter their image in the eyes of others in the organisation.

Put another way, while it may be conceivable that an employee's favorable image influences the performance ratings that he/she receives (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995), scholars suggest that it has more related to the degree they are viewed as good citizens by their supervisors. That is, based on these strong 'image influence' mechanisms, employees are likely to be seen by managers as good in the organisational citizenship and continually contribute to those behaviors that will advance their organization (OCB-I and OCB-O).

Moreover, based on the expectancy theory as well as Gandner and Martinko (1983) actor's performing idea, I expect that individuals who engage in sanctioned/non-sanctioned strategies are also likely to be seen as innovative employees. Consequently, I posit that employees are likely to be innovative in their jobs because of their beliefs and expectations that these actions will be rewarded by their managers. In other words, such strategies of sanctioned political behavior (inspirational appeals, consultation and exchange) will be strongly related to innovativeness. Similarly, impression management behaviors are signals for employees to build and expand their

social networks within organizations (Bolino et al., 2002). Hence, I test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 17a, b, and c: Political influence behaviors (Time 2) will positively related to supervisor ratings of a) OCB-I (Time 2), b) OCB-O (Time 2), and c) innovativeness-related behavior at Time 2

4. 7. 7 The mediating role of political influence behavior in the relationship among POPS and outcomes

As described earlier, POPS is positively associated with various political strategies, and employees who engage in these sanctioned tactics are typically seen as likeable and committed, workers who perceive better performance and innovative rates from their boss. In other words, based on previous conceptual descriptions, I believe that the connection between POPS and political influence behavior will be more immediate than the link between politically influenced organizational outcomes and affective commitment.

In addition, it was reported that when POPS governs working institutions then as Hall et al. (2004) noted 'the immediate environment became unpredictable due to unwritten rules' (p.244) where violations of the psychological contract breach between employees and their organizations are evident (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe/ and Johnson 2003b). As found in past research, when these working situations arise they stimulate power games and thus, conflict escalates. Overall, within these working settings POPS and political behaviors are likely to be related and those who perceive their working place as high political they will likely utilize different elements of

political behavior (e.g., ingratiation, personal appeal, collaboration, and exchange tactics).

Moreover, in the case employees decode POPS as a stimulus for achieving their own rewards, I expect that they utilise a number of tactics. For example, in a meta-analysis of POPS by Rosen et al. (2009) was proven that political contexts associated with unpredictable contribution-reward relationships, because of favouritism and politicking, are used to determine allocations (Hochwarter, Kiewitz, Castro, Perrewe/ and Ferris 2003a). In support, I suggest that when employees realize that their organisations have a deposit of positive inputs they are likely to reciprocate by displaying a similar attitude, thus, responding positively. Conversely, when the two parts (organization-employee) fail to fulfill their obligations (Chao, Cheung, and Wu, 2011) based on the social exchange theory then, numerous negative derivations may occur.

Analytically, it was proven (e.g., Vigoda-Gadot and Dryzin-Amit, 2006) that these environments are dominated by lack of fairness and minimal justice in the systems, they are perceived as hostile (Gilmore, Ferris, Dulebohn, and Harrell- Cook, 1996) and risky (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Employees in highly political work environments may be seen that rewards are tied to power, relationships and other less objective factors (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Chang et al., 2009) and may be perceived to engage in political influence behaviors such as ingratiation, inspirational appeal, pressure and bridge interpersonal coalitions (Ferris et al., 1989) because “the unwritten rules of success change as the power of those playing the political game varies” (Hall, Hochwarter,

Ferris, & Bowen, 2004, p. 244). Therefore, these conditions foster the grounds for employees to engage in a number of tactics for their survival.

Moreover, employees who are viewed as loyal, dedicated, inspirational will be considered better soldiers by their supervisors. As a result, they will feel more committed to their organization and eliminate their intentions to quit the organization. In summary, then, I expect that POPS is associated with various forms of political influence behaviors which, in turn, are related to turnover intentions and affective commitment. Accordingly, I suggest that the relationships among POPS and affective commitment, POPS and turnover intentions are mediated by employee political influence behavior. Thus,

Hypothesis 18a, b: Political influence behavior (Time 2) will mediate the relationship between a) POPS and affective commitment (Time 2) b) POPS and turnover intentions (Time 2)

CHAPTER 5-*POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY (PSSE)*

5. 1 Introduction

This chapter aims to explore the literature of political skill by presenting the main theoretical findings regarding the nature, antecedents and outcomes of political skill. Of particular relevance to this section is the political skill self-efficacy construct (PSSE) which I developed and tested for the purposes of this study. That, to date, has not been recognized in the organizational behavior literature. This chapter also investigates the relationship between POPS and political skill self-efficacy, and how political skill self-efficacy affects work outcomes.

5.2 Why do we need political skill?

The theory of evolution demonstrates that every human being was created for interaction and scholars emphasised that 'the pattern of exchange through which the mutual dependence of people is realized' (Cheng, Leung, & Wu, 2011) provides organisation and has been established as a 'vital principle of society' (Thurnwald, 1932).

Similar to this view is the idea that whether lifelong or short-living, the interactions people develop in organisations are of great importance. Ultimately, this implies, therefore that in work settings the successful social influence determines our survival. Indeed, research suggests that individuals that possess social competency are likely to meet the demands of most

environments by adjusting their actions properly (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987). Further, in political environments a critical competency in achieving that is the political skill. Political skill is fundamental in shaping work effectiveness and in successfully dealing with the political realities (Ferris et al., 2007).

The term was firstly used by Pfeffer (1981) and Mintzberg (1983, 1985) who proposed that organizations are political arenas and individuals need to possess two important qualities: to be effective and expend personal resources, the willingness, or motivation which is called *political will* and the *political skill*. Political will represents an actor's willingness to expend energy in the pursuit of political goals, and it is viewed as an essential processor for those who engage in political behavior (Mintzberg, 1983). On the other hand, individuals need political skill in possessing the ability to execute these behaviors in politically astute ways. A complete list with definitional approaches in political skill is depicted in Table 7.

Similarly, scholars (Ammeter et al., 2002; Ferris et al., 2000, p.30) asserted that 'political skill combines social astuteness with the ability to relate well and otherwise demonstrate appropriate behavior in a disarmingly charming, and engaging manner that inspires confidence, trust, sincerity and geniuses'. In addition, political skill was described as an interpersonal type of construct by many others such as Ahearn et al. (2004, p.311); Ferris et al. (2005, p.127); Perrewe et al. (2005) who claimed 'the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal /and or organizational objectives'. Accordingly, it was reported that (e.g., Ferris et al., 2007) political skilled

individuals are those who possess high self-awareness and awareness of others. Their interpersonal influence allows them to alter their behavior with those around them to achieve their desired goals while their social astuteness helps to select situational appropriate methods of influence.

Theorists expand upon earlier work on the political skill through the analysis of features of social influence theory. For example, they (Ferris, Perrewe & Douglas, 2002; Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkison, 1980; Vigoda & Cohen, 2002; Yukl & Falbe, 1990) have linked political skill with *social influence* theory and the use *of impression management* (e.g., negotiation, persuasion) strategies employees use to persuade others to change their views and to adopt those of the political actor..

Therefore, similar to the above definition of political skill, Perrewe et al. (2004) described it as the effective use of power to achieve enhanced control over others at work. Accordingly, Pfeffer (1981) noted that political skill represents an important determinant of power accumulation to successfully influence and control interpersonal interactions at work (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewe, 2005; Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005; Perrewe et al., 2004) involving social competencies, with affective, behavioral, and cognitive indicators (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, et al., 2007). As such, Mintzberg (1985) acknowledged that political skill is a strong indication of the achievement success at work and predicated largely on one's ability and willingness to implement this influence in socially appropriate ways. In some cases, scholars have incorporated a more Machiavellian flavor (Silvester, 2008, Ferris et al., 2000, Ammeter, 2002 p.765) in their definition of political skill.

Although political skill may sound similar to constructs such as self-monitoring, social intelligence, or social skill, empirical research (Ferris et al., 1999; Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005) has shown that political skill is conceptually and empirically distinct from the above social effectiveness constructs. On that scholars concluded that fundamental differences also exist between political skill and political behavior. For example, they (Ferris and Judge, 1991) stated that political behavior reflects the **'what'** of political influence be equivalent with methods, tactics, and\or strategies of influence, while the **'how'** of influence (portrays the political skill) encompasses the ability employees have to know which situational appropriate behavioral style to exhibit to effectively influence others.

Table 7 *Definitional Approaches In The Study Of Political Skill*

SCHOLARS	NOTIONS OF POLITICAL SKILL
Ammeter et al. 2002	*Social astuteness*
Zellars et al. 2007 Ferris, Davison & Perrewe, 2005	*Capacity to adjust one's behaviour to different and changing situational demands in a manner that inspire trust, confidence, and genuineness, and effectively influence and controls the responses of others*
Treadway & Douglas, 2007 Ahearn et al. 2004, p.311 Ferris et al 2005, p.127	*Ability to understand others effectively, to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal /organisational objectives*
Ferris, Witt & Hochwarter, 2001	**Interpersonal** *"Political skill is about competencies that reflect both dispositional antecedents and situational variability".*
	Examples: Coalition building, trade-offs, negotiation

5. 3 A brief overview of political skill research-Antecedents, outcomes, and measures

Antecedents of political skill

Growing and diverse interest of studies in political skill found a number of variables that serve as its determinants. A body of research concentrates on the traits of actors and proved that they effectively enact their

political influence skill. For example, Ferris and Judge (1991) reported that political skill can be influenced by an actor's characteristics such as extraversion, conscientiousness and self-monitoring. Similarly, the proactive personality (Liu et al., 2007) was found to be a determinant of political skill.

Political skill, however, has been thoroughly understood through various situational and contextual factors. More specifically, it was found that political skill is a consequence of the changes in the structures of organizations, changes in people's lives typically highlighted by the need to work in complex working environments, while other factors include the workers' mobility due to globalization, the distribution of power inside organizations, the need for today's individuals to build social networks and social capitals (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). In effect, these descriptions were thought to affect the way managers and employees work and behave, and as a result the development of political skill.

A consistent theme and a strong declaration across the literature of political skill is that the social skill along with political skill are important components for individuals to achieve a better fit in their work environments (e.g., Perrewe et al., 2005). For instance, Ferris et al. (2000), Ferris, Davison & Perrewe (2005) argued that political skill is likely to become an increasingly necessary commodity for organizations seeking to identify future talent and develop current leaders. On that, Harris et al. (2007) pointed out that the most politically skilled respondents are the most sensitive of individuals who darker aspects of political behavior.

Furthermore, in line with this is, Ferris et al. (2000) argued that political skill is not simply a trait or state like skill but it is something more. It is a 'reflection of an integrated composite of internally consistent and mutually reinforcing and compatible skills and abilities that create a synergistic social dynamic that defies precise description' (Ferris et al., 2000, p.32).

Outcomes of political skill

Although organizational politics have been acknowledged as a fundamentally component of every organization the exploration of political skill was largely ignored until recently (Ferris et al., 2005). It is generally recognized that political skill plays a central role into workforce and a number of important consequences has been discussed by scholars (e.g., Ferris, Davidson, Perrewe, 2005). Results suggested that the use of political skill minimizes the dysfunctional effects of role stressors in strain (Perrewe et al., 2004; r=-.31 for the political skill-psychological anxiety relationship) as well as maximizes performance outcomes (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, et al., 2007). The existence of political skill weakens the effect of conflict on burnout (Jawahar, Stone, and Kisamore, 2007). In view of the argument of moderating effects of political skill on various processes, the research documented its moderating effects on social stress-satisfaction (i.e., job and career) relationships (Harvey, Harris, Harris, and Wheeler, 2007). In addition, scholars (Brouer, Ferris, Hochwarter, Laird, & Gilmore, 2006) captured the effects of political skill on perceived politics and depressive symptoms at work. In work environments perceived politics promoted depressive symptoms when

individuals exhibit low political skills (in Study 3, for the perceived politics-depressive symptoms relationship).

Equally, evidence demonstrates the positive effects of political skill (Goleman, 1995) not only on those who possess political skill but also on those they influence. It was argued that political skill increased a subordinate's performance (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2007; Semadar et al., 2006) career success (Breland, Treadway, & Duke, 2007; Harvey, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2007), early employee income, hierarchical position, career satisfaction (Ferris et al., 2008), while it reduced the emotional labour as a result of political behavior (Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005), reduced the negative influence of social stressors on job satisfaction such as somatic wellbeing, and blood pressure (Harvey, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2007; Perrewe/ et al., 2004).

However, Kolondisky, Hochwarter, and Ferris (2004) argued that in some cases political skill affects curvilinearly job satisfaction and job tension. Perrewe's (2004, 2005) studies indicated that political skill can have an impact on stress-related outcomes because individuals who describe themselves as politically skilful are more likely (than those were less politically skilful) to have control over interpersonal interactions. Therefore, they experience less stress (such as psychological anxiety and physiological strains). Such studies have had a primary focus on the direct effects of political skill on job satisfaction, organizational support, and job tension (Treadway et al., 2004; Ahearn et al., 2004).

Researchers have also investigated the leaders' political skill and claimed that it is positively associated with team performance (Ahearn et al., 2004). More precisely, it was reported that individual and managerial effectiveness are likely to increase when high levels of political skill are applied (Ahean, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Douglas and Ammeter, 2004) to enhance performance. In addition, Treadway et al. (2004) highlighted that the leader's political skill is directly related to subordinate perceptions of organizational support while indirectly related to trust, job satisfaction, and organizational cynicism. Others addressed the need of managers to influence groups and social situations rather than monitoring the performance of individual subordinates (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Ferris, Witt & Hochwarter, 2001). Overall, a leadership perspective in the study of political skill has been shown to be very beneficial when managers use political skills in order to achieve organizational objectives (Silvester, 2008) and rely on their powers to influence others rather than by using external associates. Further, the wider impact of political skill on different stakeholders (e.g., boardroom), ethics and values (Pettigrew & McNulty, 1998; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1974; Pye and Pettigrew, 2005; Westphal & Stern, 2006) was tested.

Notably, there is a widespread belief in the literature that political skill is a good side of organizational politics. Most researchers have treated political skill as the antidote to the dark side of POPS approach and all argued that it is not a panacea (Perrewe et al., 2000; 2005). As such it is reflected in the statement '*there is a dark side [of politics], characterized by destructive opportunism and dysfunctional game playing. However, politics can be positive as well for organizations and individuals…Individuals who become*

proficient at playing politics may be gain greater job and career related rewards (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992, p.113).

Measures of political skill

Though the concept of political skill has been theorized, research involving its specific content empirical testing and its measurement has only evolved in the last decade. Ferris, Witt and Hochwarter (2001) developed a refined political skill measure called 'the Political Skill Inventory (PSI)'. At its core it engenders four dimensions of political skill: interpersonal influence, network ability, social-astuteness, genuineness and sincerity. Great attempts to empirically validate this measure are those of Ferris, Treadway, et al. (2005) as well as Ferris et al. (2007). In a comprehensive analysis utilizing seven samples they found that the construct criterion related to the validity of the new scale (PSI) was initially investigated and findings revealed that political skill was positively related to self-monitoring, political savvy, emotional intelligence, leader effectiveness ratings, supervisor-related job performance but negatively related to trait anxiety. Further, Douglas and Ammeter (2004) have interpreted these results in all their aspects and concluded that political skill is best fitted in a two-factor model of "network building\social capital" and "interpersonal influence/control".

5.4 Self-efficacy

In the context of life in organizations the way people act is fraught especially with their skills. Further, their beliefs that they already have these capacities often influence their actions and choices. These indicators give rise to questions such as 'Do I have the skills to do this job?', 'Do I believe that I

am able to achieve this task?' These questions motivate the initiation of individual efficacy beliefs and were assigned to people's feelings and motivations which might often determine how they act (Bandura, 1995: 2). Further, these specific self-efficacy beliefs influence individual choices, goals, emotional reactions, coping and persistence (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Likewise, scholars suggested that it is more important for people to think that they are able to achieve a task than only to have the skills to do it. Moreover, they emphasized that these specific self-efficacy beliefs are linked to 'domains of functioning rather than conforming to an undifferentiated trait" (Bandura, Caprara, and Barbaranelli, 2001; p.45) which affects mostly individual actions rather than what is objectively the case.

A long history of research in self-efficacy is regularly used in agreement with socio-cognitive theory to explain why individuals generate this kind of beliefs. Specifically, Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, George-Falvy, and James (1994) observed that although there have been a number of definitions of self-efficacy they all seem to converge on the notion of "capability" and "self-efficacy clearly refers to what a person believes he/she can do on a particular task" (p. 506). For example, individuals who score high on a measure of self-efficacy are also more likely to believe that they are able to organize a course of action to achieve a task. In other words, self-efficacy is an assessment of people's judgment of whether they have the abilities which integrate a motivational component, or the willingness to expend effort consistent with ability (e.g., Bandura 1986; Bandura & Locke, 2003). In addition, researchers (e.g., Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Eden, 1988, 2001;

Gardner & Pierce, 1998) have distinguished between two types of self-efficacy: a state belief as situation-specific belief and a trait like belief as a general stable personality trait (Edin and Kinnar, 1991).

Antecedents of self-efficacy

The literature on antecedents of self-efficacy has investigated several of its determinants (e.g., Chen and Klimoski, 2003; Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). For instance, it proposes that socialization, previous performance and achievements, vicarious experience of observing the performance of others, verbal and other forms of social persuasion from which people judge their capacities, individual psychological and emotional states, are mostly influential sources of information in affecting an individual's self-efficacy.

Additionally, scholars (e.g, Gist & Mitchell, 1992) argued that factors such as the analysis of task requirements, previous experiences, and assessment of both personal, situational resources and constraints may all formulate individual self-efficacy beliefs. For example, the consideration of both personal factors (skill level, anxiety, desire, and available effort) as well as situational factors (competing demands, distractions) impact the intensity, persistent, and initiation of behavior (Gist & Mitchell, 1992:190). Once people engage their efficacy beliefs influence their strength of their efforts and how long they persist in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1977; 1986, Thomas, & Velthouse, 1990).

Outcomes of self efficacy

The onward marching of scholars to explore the breadth of the self-efficacy construct has also challenged them to investigate its effects on individuals and organizations. For example, Maddux & Lewis (1995) proved that high scored self-efficacy individuals are more persistent, task oriented, true problem solvers with greater cognitive efficiency than low scored. They have been also described as people able to maintain a high quality of analytical thinking to overcome adverse conditions and demands, who remain persistent in achieving their goals.

Similarly, findings (Kanfer and Heggestad, 1997) illustrated that self-efficacy can be a strong motivation with both direct and indirect effects on performance through goal choice and commitment. It was also reported that general self-efficacy is related to task performance through motivation[12].

A body of research committed (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2004; Chen, Goddard, & Casper, 1999) to self-efficacy and performance has viewed this relationship as something of an enigma: most individuals with a high sense of self-efficacy will visualize positive possibilities and guidelines for performance while those with low self-efficacy could undermine their performance. Likewise studies provided evidence that self-efficacy positively related to individual performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Judge & Bono, 2001;

[12] Chen, Gylly and Eden, (2004) Self-set goals (e.g.,Task standards and objectives set forth by oneself , Metacognition (e.g., Awareness, knowledge, and control of task-related thoughts, Effort (e.g., Working hard at attaining a particular goal)

Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), specifically to initiative taking (Speier & Frese, 1997) and organizational commitment (Jex & Bliese, 1999) is positively related to job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Bono & Locke, 2000) and learning (Martocchio & Judge, 1997).

In addition, an individual's self-efficacy influences the level of stress he/she can experience. Such people who possess high self-efficacy perceive situations as less stressful (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004) are able to adapt analytical strategies to discover effective decision rules that contribute to managerial performance (Wood et al., 1990). In sum, all the experts tend to agree that individuals who exhibit levels of self-efficacy hold a sense of control over their behavior, environment, while they have good thoughts and feelings for their psychological and physical well-being (Maddux & Lewis, 1995). For example, when individuals hold a diminished belief that they can overcome potential threats and challenges they view these events as less threatening in contrast to low self-efficacy people who view many aspects of their environment as fraught with danger and consequently will suffer from high levels of stress and anxiety (Eden, 1988, 1996; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Judge et al., 1997; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998).

Alternatively, (e.g., Williams, 1995) individuals with low self-efficacy are unable to control potentially harmful events and this increases their anxiety because of despondency. Nonetheless, findings by Jex et al. (2001) suggested that self-efficacy is negatively related to mental distress while O' Leary & Brown (1995) recommended that positive self efficacy beliefs make positive

contributions to the sympathetic nervous system, the immune system, and the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal system.

5. 5 Self-Efficacy and political skill

As described throughout this thesis, political skill plays major role in whether or not employees are able to response to temporal and environmental changes (Treadway et al., 2005). Furthermore, researchers (Semadar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006) have examined political skill among other social effectiveness constructs (i.e., self-monitoring, leadership self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence) as predictor of managerial performance and found that it is the best predictor of contextual job performance and superior to self-efficacy (Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008).

Likewise, researchers on the core self-evaluation construct (e.g., Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998b; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999) have suggested that self-efficacy is a basic self-evaluation trait among others (e.g., self-esteem) which predicts meaningful outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction). Going a bit further, these self-efficacy beliefs also regulate human functioning through cognitive, motivational, and affective selection processes (Locke and Latham, 1990; Bandura, 1995).

Unfortunately, research has not integrated and investigated these two perspectives simultaneously. Further, although the positive effects of self-efficacy have received scholarly attention, possibly sides of self-efficacy when people exercise their political skill have been ignored. This is a significant

omission, because the confidence and belief often have a stronger influence on individuals' efforts to succeed in their endeavors (Bandura, 2001) within organizations than do only the skills.

Extending the above research into organizational politics area therefore, employees, who might favorably judge their political skill, their ability to comprehend and influence others, they are also expected to be seen by others at work as truly sincere, devoted, as initiating more efforts, and more persistent in the face of political games (obstacles). In sum, this thesis explores an answer to the complex question 'why do some employees deal successfully with POPS while others are content to maintain the dark sides of POPS'? It conceptualises the political skill self-efficacy construct and contributes in the organizational literature by linking it to POPS, in doing so, enables us to have a better picture of the mechanisms are involving between individuals and POPS.

5. 6 The construct of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE)

As discussed previously in the thesis, to date, political skill has attracted the attention of researchers mainly as an antidote of the dark side of POPS while self-efficacy traits have been the subject of prediction of individual's behavior (Bandura, 1986; Chen et al., 2001; 2004). However, studies have been limited to only political skill and self-efficacy approaches. No study so far has examined the possible role of political skill self-efficacy as a unique construct in POPS literature.

Indeed, there are situations evaluated according to these types of construct (social skills and self-efficacy). For example, it was reported that employees need to possess social influence skills effectively to benefit themselves and their organizations (e.g., Ferris, Davidson et al., 2005). This is because in the hypercompetitive and continuously changing working places organizations have embraced flatter, more networked structures and flexible designs (e.g., Semadar et al., 2006; Cascio, 1995). These organizational and global changes require employees to be able to adapt and perform core functions in the midst of changing goals, expectations and resources.

Furthermore, Guion (1998) emphasized the need to consider a broader set of selection instruments to account for changing organizational contexts. Little if any work has been devoted to the predictive validity of social cognitive competencies, despite appeals by selection scholars to do so (e.g., Guion, 1998; Hogan & Shelton, 1998). Indeed, Jawahar et al. (2008) call organizational researchers to further examine the relationship between different social cognitive constructs on managerial performance. Despite all these discoveries, Jones (1990) noted that little is known about the issues of personal style that might contribute to the success of these behaviors (Perrewe et al., 2012). He reported that 'it has something to do with mixtures of self-confidence and self-mockery but humility in citing them' (Jones, 1990:199).

Scholars (Perrewe et al., 2004) in the last decade stated that they have yet to adequately address the effective execution of influence behaviors (e.g., Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Blass, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2002). I reply

to this gap in the literature by introducing the concept of political skill self-efficacy.

Thus, I bring a new perspective in the discussion by developing a new concept labeled the 'political skill self-efficacy' (PSSE) which refers to the extent to which employees believe they can successfully exert political skill. My position is that individuals who possess political skill when exposed to risky political environments and involved in activities they should also judge themselves as capable of handling them. In other words, in order for an individual to make sense of using a political skill, s/he needs to possess the belief 'I believe that I can be a political skilled person'. Accordingly, PSSE is marked by a combination of skills and individual judgments of his/her self-efficacy.

Additionally, the notion of political skill self-efficacy entails some facets of the self-efficacy beliefs. Initially, I focus on self-efficacy beliefs, because they nourish individuals' intrinsic motivation by enhancing their perceptions of self-competence (Bandura, 1986; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-efficacy beliefs are among the most powerful predictors of behaviour, because they determine the initial decision to engage in a behavior, the effort expended, and the persistence demonstrated (Bandura, 1991; Pajares, 1997). I suppose that these self-competence beliefs play an important role in how individuals visualize their ability to engage in political behaviors.

Political skill and political skill self-efficacy

To refine my definition of PSSE further, I focus on the differences between political skill and PSSE. In the way I have described it, it seems on the surface that PSSE is likely to result in only self-efficacy beliefs toward political skill. However, aside from the common themes identified in the definition I proposed (political skill, political skill self-efficacy), cognitive psychologists would suggest that PSSE derives from something more complex. For instance, there are differences concerning what the two constructs intent to capture. The political skill self-efficacy measurement I have created contains measures, not only limited to social influences but they measure individual beliefs of how good political savvy employees believe they are and the degree to which individuals believe that they are effectively flexible and adaptable when involve into political activities.

Therefore, the political skill self-efficacy offers a much larger playing field by incorporating self-efficacy upon which individuals observe their own political skill. Although political skill is designed to measure both others and own political skill, political skill self-efficacy focuses on people's self-beliefs and is designed to measure their own self-efficacy. These dimensions are made to meet my research needs. Thus, political skill self-efficacy along the spectrum of social competences is a distinctive construct from political skill.

Contrary to this, political skill is fundamentally a 'social influence process in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives'' (Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127). Scholars have identified four main components of

political skill such as interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, social astuteness and networking ability. I acknowledge the conceptual similarity between political skill self-efficacy and that of political skill in terms of social interpersonal influence.

Drawing from the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1991, 2001; Baumeister et al., 1998) people function as anticipative, purposive, and self-evaluating proactive regulators of their own motivation and actions. Extending, this to the area of political skill literature it reveals that individuals who positively judge their ability to exercise successfully their political skill are likely to be seen by others at work as people having the motivational and cognitive preparedness of doing it. My objective is to view political skill self-efficacy in a positive light and explore some of the aspects of political skill which have been supported in the literature (e.g., Ahearn et al., 2004; Brouer et al., 2006; Ferris et al., 2007; Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007; Treadway et al., 2004). Unfortunately, studies failed to examine the ways in which PSSE individuals deal with POPS within organisations.

5. 7 The relationship between POPS and political skill self-efficacy

Though research involving outcomes of Political skill self-efficacy may scare (not existed) scholars reported that highly political skillful individuals are good at developing and using social networks to affect change at work (Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007). Therefore, borrowing from the existing politics literature that consider organizations as fundamentally political arenas (e.g., Fairholm, 1993; Kanter, 1979; Mintzberg, 1985; Pfeffer, 1981, 1992) I argue that individuals may be expected to use more strategic ways to achieve their aims and secure their survival within political organizational context.

In relation to expectancy theory, individuals have long been known to act upon the expected consequences of their actions (Vroom, 1964). Similar to the notion of outcome expectation as Yuan and Woodman (2010) suggested, individual PSSE attempts capture the extent to which employees believe that these efforts will result in certain desirable outcomes for them. In other words, while being a part of a place characterized by uncertainty, antagonism PSSE people are able to gain important sources of information about targets (e.g., by developing alliances, friendships) and are viewed by others as likeable sincere, accountable people. Therefore, these should have a great sense of control of their environment and tend to see POPS as an opportunity rather than as a threat. As such I suggest that they have the ability to read successfully their

working environments and influence others with their kindness expecting to obtain gains. Taking into account the above, I hypothesize that

Hypothesis 19: POPS (Time 1) will be positively related to political skill self-efficacy (Time 2)

5. 8 The effects of Political Skill Self-Efficacy (PSSE)

A line of research has suggested that general self-efficacy beliefs positively related to individual performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Judge & Bono, 2001; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) is task-oriented in nature (Schmmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003). Scholars also proved that it affects initiative taking (Speier & Frese, 1997) and organizational commitment (Jex & Bliese, 1999). Few investigations, however, have related political skill to job performance (e.g., Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005; Semadar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006). Findings reported that self-efficacy and political skill, only when they were boosted through training, were likely to result in increased job performance (Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris and Hochwarter, 2008).

However, it was also pinpointed that certain personal skills might enable an individual to endure environments perceived as political (Brouer et al., 2006; Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewe´, 2005; Valle et al., 2003).

According to the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), it is generally recognized that individuals who believe that their efforts will be rewarded for their performance they will be able to perform in the desired manner (Mitchell, 1974; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Given that those who possess political skill

self-efficacy tend to adopt a chameleon-like behavior in a variety of situations I propose that individuals who perceive their working environment as political are likely to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs of political skill ensuring that they may need to use these skills in order to get ahead. As such, political skill self-efficacy entails the understanding of both others and organisations, which will enable them to feel they control political action

Therefore, I assume that these employees are likely to believe that have the ability to build coalition with the right people in their work environment expecting gains. Consequently, PSSE it may be a powerful motivating force for making them more committed to their organisation and decrease their intentions to leave. Thus:

Hypothesis 20: Political skill self-efficacy (Time 2) will be negatively associated to turnover intentions (Time 2)

Hypothesis 21: Political skill self efficacy (Time 2) will be positively related to affective commitment (Time 2)

5. 9 Integrating moderators in the study among POPS and outcomes

Much like the discussion above, research has thoroughly examined the direct and often negative consequences of POPS; however, in this way, there has been little regard (Miller, 2008) for testing theoretically and analyzing practically moderators in these relationships. For example, scholars (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011; Ferris et al., 2002) have claimed that by considering

specific moderators they may explain better relationships among POPS and variety of outcomes.

In light of this, it was suggested that some individual factors such as age and ethnicity (as membership in a specific ethnic minority group) influence individual perceptions of, and reactions to office politics (e.g., Ferris et al., 1989; 1996). In addition, organizational factors including employment setting, cultural differences, an employee's perceived control over the environment, the need for achievement, and self-promoting behavior (Byrne et al., 2005, Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Duhlebohn, 1999) have been studied as moderators that linked POPS to negative consequences. **Table 8** illustrates the previous research in moderators. Similarly, Kacmar, Zivnuska, and White (2007) suggested that low levels of politics perceptions predicted work effort when coupled with unfavorable supervisor relationships. Further, research has provided evidence that individual differences variables (such as political skill) attenuate negative reactions of POPS and play an important role for employees to use POPS positively (Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006) while strong beliefs in reciprocity (Andrews, Witt and Kacmar, 2003) offer a strong background for reducing negative effects of POPS

Table 8 *Previous Researches On Moderators/Mediators In POPS Literature*

RELEVANT TEXTS	**Moderators/Mediators**
Ferris et al. (2002)	Political skill Job autonomy
Byrne et al. (2005)	Need for achievement
Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Duhlebohn (1999)	Self promotion
Bozeman et al. (2001)	Job efficacy
Andrews, Witt and Kacmar (2003)	Reciprocity beliefs
Treadway et al. (2005) Ferris et al. (1996)	Age, control over the environment
Hochwarter, Witt and Kacmar (2000)	Conscientiousness

Despite the above findings, more work is needed to explain the role of individual specific efficacy on political skill (PSSE) in POPS. In this study I propose that PSSE can serve as a mechanism that influences the degree of their affective commitment, turnover intentions, and innovativeness experienced as a result of POPS occurring in the job. Most of the self-efficacy findings suggest that people's self-efficacy produces desirable outcomes for them and there is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and motivation or performance (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Paglis and Green, 2002). Similarly, I suggest that the presence or absence of aspects of individual political skill self-efficacy is expected to influence their managers' ratings of organisational citizenship behaviors and innovativeness. For example, an individual who

believes he/she possesses the capacities to play up political games should be more willing to choose to engage in organizational activities.

Given these prospects, a key component of political skill self-efficacy is their perceived ability to develop networking ties with important people at work. In line with the previous discussion on politics literature, political skill (e.g, Ferris, Treadway et al., 2007) weakens dysfunctional effects of role stressors on performance. Bozeman et al. (2001) demonstrated that high job-efficacy exacerbated the negative effects of political environments. In that way, I characterize political skilful individuals as those who should be more vigorous and persistent to contribute efforts (e.g. attending seminars, networking) towards organizational benefits when facing conflicts and power struggles.

That is, yielding again on the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) individuals who have political skill self-efficacy are unlikely to evaluate POPS as threats because they have strong beliefs and will to build interpersonal relationships successfully and expect benefits from their political environments as. Then, their expectancy belief is likely to increase, and employees are likely to show higher levels of motivation (Bunderson, 2001) and demonstrate more favorable attitudes toward others.

Therefore, according to these voices in the literature, their expectancy to obtain rewards (e.g., promotions, resource allocations) rekindles their level of motivation to participate in innovativeness activities, to commit to the organization, and may assuage their intentions to leave. Restated, political skill

self-efficacy is likely to ameliorate the relationships among POPS and affective commitment, POPS and innovativeness and weaken their intentions to turnover. Therefore,

Hypothesis 23 a, b, and c: Political skill self- efficacy (Time 2) will moderate the relationship among POPS (Time 1) and a) turnover intentions (Time 2) b) POPS (Time 1) and affective commitment (Time 2) c) POPS and supervisors ratings of innovation-related behavior (Time 2)

These relationships will be stronger for those high in political skill self-efficacy.

5.10 Understanding POPS through the national culture context

Introduction

Although POPS research has grown vigorously in the last thee decades and continues to grow (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011) one of the questions that attracts attention is how POPS is interpreted in different cultures and how do individuals behave under cultural conditions? Which specific characteristics of the Hellenic culture affect (if any) POPS? The answers to these questions might be further explained through research on the national culture.

Few studies have explored the influences of national cultures perspectives on POPS (Vigoda, 2003; 2008) and these demonstrate serious limitations. Therefore, this area remains inconclusive and underdeveloped. One way that we can understand national cultural effects on POPS is through reviewing cross-cultural similarities and differences in values and behaviors and comparing the USA and Anglo-Saxon and non-Anglo-Saxon on various dimensions. My argumentation inspired by Hofstede's (2001), House's (2004) and Schwartz's (1992, 1994) nation culture frameworks and is built upon Hofstede's five dimensions of cultural model taking an individual (not group or organizational) level of analysis. Supplementary, Schwartz's (1994; 2004) theory of cultural values would facilitate the understanding in the conceptualization of POPS across countries.

In addition, this section presents a brief review of the Hellenic culture, and I focus on the national culture of Hellas providing information on how

specific Greek cultural features may influence the theoretical understanding of this significant phenomenon.

5. 10. 1 The national culture

Scholars stated that the cross-cultural psychological perspectives are of paramount significance due to increasing globalization and cultural diversity in the workplace (Ramamurthy & Carnoll, 1998). Similarly, Erez (1994, 2011) emphasized that not only do many questions remain unanswered, because they over look cross-cultural factors (p.560)[13], but also he highlighted that these factors will help to predict potential effectiveness of various managerial techniques in a given organizational context.

Similarly, it is important for POPS research to assimilate the cross-cultural approach. Vigoda (2006; 2003) in one of his cross-cultural examinations concluded that conceptual differences can arise in the absence of a clear board national foundation. In this way, it was assumed that cultural values affect everyday behaviors and attitudes (Triandis, 1994) toward life and work. Consequently, the norms and values of a particular culture may also influence POPS because politics are rooted in the society's norms and values.

Likewise, work in cross-cultural differences (in the area of organizational psychology) is essential because it is the success drive of the organization. For example, these can lead to positive outcomes as innovation, learning and improved performance (Triantis, 1994). However, negative

[13] Erez (1994) Introduction to the chapter *Cross cultural and organizational psychology*

consequences exist such as inter-group conflict, stereotyping, discrimination and difficulties in adapting to new cultures (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Generally, management scholars maintain the utility of the cross-cultural perspective and differentiate between two levels of business culture: the national and the organizational. In essence, then, culture has been defined as 'shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations' (House et al., 2004, p.15)[14]. Gelfand, Evez & Aycan (2007) pointed out that in the centre of the definition of national culture lies the term of cultural values which reflect a consciously and subconsciously held set of beliefs and norms-often anchored in the morals, laws, customs, and practices of a society.

The cultural values define what is right and wrong while also specifying people's general preferences (Alder, 2002). Research on national culture assesses those values and norms of society that persist over generations through the socialization of infants (Robertson & Crittendon, 2003). Those values are formed early in childhood and are relatively stable over time, but less job-situation specific than others (Alder, 2002). For example, infants learn the rules and values of their society, and often accept these society standards as their own when evaluating themselves and others. In other words, the national culture in which an individual was born and raised is likely to have a strong

[14] Kilmann et al. (1985:5) wrote that national culture refers to 'the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and norms that hold a community together.'

and long-lasting effect on that individual's beliefs and attitudes (Bailey and Spicer, 2007). Therefore, the cultural value characteristics shape people's reactions at work including the use of fair decision-making criteria (Morris & Leung, 2000) and are presented as a driving force behind comparisons between countries.

To date, however, Hofstede (1989; 2001) identified five key facets of national cultures that largely impact comparisons across domains of countries and cultures. These typologies are the most frequently studied in the literature and include *power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, long and sort term orientation* (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) behavior. Here, the criticism accounts for only a Western perspective (Erez, 2011). In responding to that, scholars added (Bond, 1985) on Hofstede's original typology the fifth cultural value *–future time orientation;* specifically, long-term orientation referred as Confucian dynamism. This characteristic denotes the extent to which a particular society espouses the values introduced by the moral philosopher Confucius who lived around 5^{TH} century BC. Specifically, Hofstede (2001) defined power distance as the extent to which one accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. Another cultural value that has received considerable attention has been what Hofstede (1980) called the *individualism-collectivism* dimension. Furthermore, Jung and Avolio (1999) examined the role of collectivism-individualism in responses to transformational and transactional leadership and found that it affected different levels of motivation and performance.

Similarly, Schwartz (1994, 1999, and 2004) posited several cultural values which all societies face and are visually depicted in his typology plot of analysis. Despite the fact that Schwartz's theory seems familiar in many aspects to other culture frameworks (e.g. Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998), it has its only formation of national culture. In his typology he distinguished seven types of values that are organized along three polar dimensions. For example, in the first polar there are those cultures described by *Conservatism* and those by *Autonomy* (Schwartz, 1999).

In conservative cultures, the status quo is maintained by embedding individuals in groups and finding meaning only as part of the social order. On the other hand, in autonomy cultures individuals are encouraged to pursue their own ideas independently and voluntarily (i.e. Intellectual Autonomy) and emotions (i.e. Affective Autonomy). In the second dimension two opposing ways are distinguished: *Hierarchy* vs. *Egalitarianism* cultures. Egalitarianism cultures are marked by socialization so that people cooperate voluntarily with others and are genuinely concerned about others. Alternatively, hierarchy reflects an unequal power distribution where people socialize in such a way so as to follow the rules attached to their roles.

Finally, the third typology describes how societies are related to their social and natural environment having two opposite poles resolving this issue: *Mastery,* where people try to modify their environment and utilize it, and *Harmony,* where people accept the world as it is. Building on the above seven types of values scholars have adopted this national cultural perspective to

compare cultures (Schwartz, 1994, 1999, 2004; Schwartz & Bardi, 1997; Schwartz & Ros, 1995) and it has been validated in 49 nations from every continent.

According to this model, (Schwartz, 1999; cultural value priorities) countries are meaningfully grouped in six broad regions not only based on shared valued priorities but also on geographical proximity, shared histories, religion, level of development, culture contact and other factors (see also Schwartz & Bardi, 1997; Schwartz & Ros, 1995). Interestingly, there are the Western European countries (characterized by Intellectual Autonomy, Egalitarianism and Harmony), English-speaking countries (characterized by Mastery and Affective Autonomy), Far Eastern countries (characterized by Hierarchy and Conservatism), East European countries (characterized by Conservatism and Harmony), Latin American countries (characterized by moderate levels of all seven value types) and Islamic countries (characterized by moderate levels on Conservatism and Hierarchy).

Furthermore, the GLOBE study (global leadership and organizational behavior effectiveness; House et al., 2004) reported that 62 cultures were categorized into 10 clusters: Anglo, Latin Euro (Israel included), Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Subsaharan Africa, Midddle East, Southern Asia, and Confucian East Asia. Researchers assessed values by asking participants to respond to questions concerning their national-societal culture, organizational culture. They assumed that countries below the same band are considered to have similar scores on the value dimension with no significant difference among them (Erez, 2011), unlike countries that have

lower scores than those belonging to the first band. The above typologies converge in the descriptions of cultures (Smith et al., 2008). They lead to the conclusion that leaders need to understand how individually held cultural value orientations affect reactions to leadership and shape affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes (Kirkman et al., 2010).

In summary, theorists have identified an array of cultural characteristics that comparisons can be made across cultures (Triandis, 1980). Therefore, the use of cross-cultural differences has became an integral part of organizational psychology (Gelfand et al., 2007) whilst reviews confirmed that individually held cultural value orientations and beliefs play an important role in the conceptualization of various organizational phenomena (Gelfand, Erez, &Aycan, 2007; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007) and prediction of individual motives to engage in organizational goals.

As scholars noted, national culture is formed throughout time by social processes and cultural values wherein individual behavior is synchronized with it. Individuals behave in ways that are consistent with their cognitive system and react according to their social and cultural values. Researchers have argued that both national culture and social institutions (Hofstede, 2001; Parboteeah & Cullen, 2003; Schooler, 1996) are accountable for cross-cultural differences.

In other words, culture is found to be rooted in the individual socialization processes, norms and expectations and through these people's mental routines and perceptions are influenced. In this case, the employees' value system might affect how they perceive political actions, fair or unfair

and unjust. Political behavior inside organizations draws substance from close sociological and psychological roots (e.g., Backarach & Lawler, 1980; Mintzeberg, 1983; Sobel, 1993).

Contrary to this, concerns have risen whether aspects of one culture, which have meaning only in the given culture, might yet, have implications for exchanges among individuals with different cultural backgrounds (Triandis, 1980). As such, a complete understanding of the underlying causes of people's behaviors can be achieved if specific local national features are taken into account. However, how do these findings describe the national culture characteristics of Hellas? The next section answers that by focusing on the cultural values[15] typology (as proposed by Hofstede, 1991) and comparing to the Anglo-Saxon and non Anglo-Saxon cultural cluster countries.

5. 10 .2 National culture characteristics in Hellas and POPS research across countries

Studies also classified national cultures into further variations within countries (cultural values) which are believed to be larger than the general country level (Au, 1999; Hofstede, 2001). Interestingly, Western Europe is characterized by values of Intellectual Autonomy, Egalitarianism and Harmony. In contrast, Hellas is located at the South of Europe more closely to the West European countries than the English Speaking and Latin American countries, and it is characterized by cultural values of *autonomy*, *egalitarianism* and *harmony*.

[15] In contrast, social values are based on family and socialization and are cognitive separated from the cultural values

Accordingly, the UK, the USA, and Canada belong to the Anglo-Saxon cultural cluster which is identified as an individualistic culture. All the while, Anglo-Saxon cluster countries are substantially different from those belonging to collectivism, particularly China (e.g., Hofstede, 2001; 1991; Triandis, 1995, Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Collectivism in contrast to individualism denotes that people perceive themselves primarily as group members and secondarily as individuals. It emphasizes a sense of belonging, cooperation, as well as self-sacrifice for the benefit of the group (Kagitcibasi, 1997).

In many cases, the UK has been shown to demonstrate substantial cultural differences from the countries that belong to the Anglo-Saxon cluster (e.g., Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Hofstede, 1993). Kavangh (1980) would suggest that the British culture again differentiates in some features from the American culture. For instance, the British enjoy "widespread consensus about political procedures and therefore the rules which imply more acceptances of traditional authority and higher respect for holders of formal power in society (p.124)".

Research proposed, however, that the cultural notion of Hellas is different from the traditional dominant western economic powers, especially those that belong to the Anglo-Saxon culture cluster such as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia (e.g., Ronen & Shenkar, 1985). In particular, research demonstrates that Hellas is placed higher (than the Anglo-Saxon nations) on cultural dimensions of the power distance (or equality in relations between subordinates and managers). It is also placed lower in materialism than Australia and the UK and lower in short-term orientations than other

individualistic countries. In addition, Greeks are viewed to give greater weight to the recommendations of friends and relations than their counterparts in the USA or the UK (Triandis &Vassiliou, 1972).

Indeed, Hofstede (1980) and House et al. (2005) provide evidence that several cultural differences exist among the United States and Hellas in three out of four measured dimensions of culture values. Specifically, it was found that *power distance* and *uncertainty avoidance* are much higher among Greeks than Americans. For example, Greeks are more accepting of hierarchy and social inequality and they feel uncomfortable when dealing with unstructured situations; on the other hand, *individualism* was found to be lower among Greeks than Americans and Greeks tend to build strong ties among groups.

Despite the fact that Hellas is not a collective culture, scholars have argued that Greeks tend to regard highly group well-being. Further, Greek managers have a lower willingness to 'give up control' than their counterparts in the USA (Psychogios, 2007). A key reason provided by literature relates to concerns that new employees are more skillful in terms of knowledge or education that is perceived as a threat for senior managers. The paradox is that although managers have the control, Greeks tend to manifest greater levels of group cooperation due to their high regard for group well being. This culture context is characterized by autonomy, egalitarianism, harmony (Hofstede, 2001) and power distance, which are traditionally held higher than the USA.

For organizational research we turn typically to these concepts to explore just occurrences. According to findings, Anglo-Saxon organizations may operate under similar principles such as those of a low degree (or flat) of hierarchy, centralization and formalization of policymaking. Besides, delegation to authority and responsibility from managers and subordinates is common. Still others may be flexible to external labor markets, high rates of employment, and change (Whittaker, 1990). Many companies in different countries chose to follow these management systems (Ferner & Quintanilla, 1998:717).

In direct contrast to these classifications, Greek institutions are widely seen to operate differently than those belonging to the Anglo-Saxon organization system. For example, research has shown that Greek management systems appear to have their peculiarities and their distinctive features. In light of this, research explained that during the last decade, the Greek economy in general and management systems in particular became subject of modernization. Perhaps, the most important reason for this need is globalization (and Greece's EU membership since 1981). Demands emerged from the introduction of new management systems into the Greek organizations when the import of management practices from other countries became fashionable.

Generally, the Greek system is a mixture of different features abounding in conservatism and modernization (Psychogios, 2007). Specifically, studies suggest that the Greek business culture entails autocratic

attitudes towards employees (Bourantas et al., 1990; Hofstede, 1984, 1986, 1991; Triandis &Vassiliou, 1972). Moreover, a variety of scholars support the view that the Greek public sector is dominated by large bureaucratic organizations characterized by complicated decision making processes as well as non- managerial philosophy which differentiates from the Anglo-Saxon organizational culture. All these points synthesize a rather unfavorable image of the Greek public sector that is expressed in the term 'Greek bureaucracy', which has negative connotations (Psychogios, 2007). Similarly, scholars suggested (i.e., Psychogios, 2007) that except these bureaucratic pathologies, due to the organizational culture senior managers now tend to be more sceptical about notions such as communication, trust, support empowerment, and employment involvement in the decision making process. These specific Hellenic culture characteristics provide information about the way individuals working in Hellas in contrast to those in the USA, Irsael or England will use POPS.

Extending this into POPS research, I assume that they may shape individual perceptions and underlie various reactions to POPS. Therefore, an employee who participates in the internal political game is highly influenced by external factors relevant to the cultural, political, and economic systems surrounding the organization. Accordingly, it manifests the effect that exists between the social and organizational arena where social values and norms of behaviors are diffused into other areas of social life as those of the working place. The section below explores such possibility.

Cross- cultural examinations of POPS

The vast majority of research on POPS empirically tested in one cultural sphere (often the North American), so far, fails to take into account the cultural differences with only few exceptions (e.g., Ralston, Giacalone, & Terpstra, 1994; Romm & Drory, 1988; Vigoda, 2001). More precisely, from 32 published studies concerned with POPS from various psychological viewpoints, 26 (about 81%) are based on North American samples, four (12.5%) used Israeli samples, and one incorporated samples from Hong-Kong and American managers.

Nonetheless, results have indicated differences in the study of POPS in Israel and Canada (Romm and Drory, 1988). Hence, Scandura, Williams and Pillai (1998) who examined justice and perceptions of politics in the USA, Australia and the Middle East suggested that perceptions of justice were mild buffering of the negative effects of political behavior on work attitudes in the USA and Australia. For example, in the Middle East procedural justice found to mediate the effects of POPS on work attitudes. This study concluded that national cultures carry substantial weight to determine actions that protect individuals from the unfair work practices. Similarly, Vigoda (2001) identified cultural aspects which contradict Israeli and British reactions to organizational changes whilst ethical perceptions of organizational politics vary among managers from American and Asian economy.

In addition to the impact that a national culture has on organizational phenomena, scholars (Vigoda, 2003) also suggested that perceptions and

practices of organizational politics are often interpreted by cultural characteristics rather than simply linked to individuals themselves. Those subscribing to this notion argued that, for some employees, POPS may inevitably be embedded in the culture through employee socialization (Room & Drory, 1988). For example, classic cross-cultural studies of political behavior (e.g., Amond & Verba, 1980; Verba et al., 1995, Vigoda, 2001) demonstrated that people in the collectivist cultures with high appreciation in the social norms dislike social disagreement and exhibit less tolerance to individual influence tactics and to internal organizational politics.

Similarly, Zaidman and Drory (2001) suggested that key tactics of impression management behavior are affected by cultural differences while examining aspects of culture on impression management tactics (Bond, 1991; Pandey, 1986; Rosenfeld, Boothkewley, Edwards, and Alderton, 1994; and Aune, and Aune, 1994). Ohbuchietal (1999) proposed that employees in individualistic cultures view disagreements and internal conflict as a natural and inevitable aspect of social life.

Conclusions

Despite these findings, scholars hardly examined the nature of politics perceptions in Hellas or in the Asian cultures both of which have emerged as increasingly important in today's world economy. From a first glance it seems clear that POPS among Hellenes employees will differ from those of the USA or the UK; however, it may be useful to incorporate recent investigations on that. For example, Kapoutsis et al. (2011, 2012) examined outcomes of POPS

in two studies that took place in Hellas and in the USA. The findings displayed that high levels of political skill predicted significant increases in job performance, whereas these effects were attenuated when the levels of perceived politics were high. As seen through the impact of national culture on attitudes (Near, 1987) the reality is that, for most cases, Greek employee responses to political games may also be influenced by national culture (external factors surrounding the workplace) which are often said to guide employee perceptions and reactions to different aspects of their jobs (Hofstede, 1980).

In conclusion, such cross-cultural theoretical perspectives contribute to our understanding of theories linking politics perceptions to employee outcomes (Chang et al., 2009). Finally, this thesis by examining my hypotheses on a sample of employees (subordinates and their supervisors) in Hellas does not aim to test (and measure) national culture as the major explanatory variable, but strives to derive conclusions of POPS in this specific Hellenic cultural context. It can facilitate the transfer of knowledge across borders and show whether POPS investigations previously supported in North American and East contexts might also be generalizable to the Hellenic context.

CHAPTER 6- ***METHODOLOGY***

6. 1 Introduction

Research design has been described as an overall plan for conducting a study that considers several components (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 2008; Shadish et al., 2002). Taking into account that one of the primary aims was to develop a model of antecedents and consequences of POPS and testing POPS over time (T1 and T2); it was necessary to follow a design and use such methods that could reflect these aims. Therefore, this main research scope has influenced my research design and the choice of the methodology I employed.

I selected a multiwave longitudinal design as the most suitable methodology including repeated measures over time (Survey-1 and Survey-2) from the same units of observation and elected one of the major categories of non-experimental methods, the quantitative. Thus, this thesis employed a survey, longitudinal and individual level of analysis to test the hypotheses.

In the organizational sciences, reviews (e.g., Scandura and Williams 2000; Austin, Scherbaum, and Mahlman, 2002; Podsakoff and Dalton 1987; Stone-Romero, Weaver, and Glenar, 1995) have addressed however, the importance of quantitative (such as surveys) instead of qualitative research methods (such as interviews and case studies) to comprehend issues related to employee attitudes. Among them, the non-experimental designs are the most frequently used in organization research (Stone-Romeno, 2002; 2007a, 2009; Stone-Romeno & Rosopa, 2004; 2008). Specifically, the quantitative designs allow researchers to measure various variables (e.g., independent, dependent,

moderating, mediating) simultaneously where quantitative estimations of population (mean, variance, covariance, correlation) for individuals are made (Stone-Romeno, 2010). In contrast to other methods, paper-pencil questionnaires remain a highly effective method of data collection that requires short time to administer.

The discussion in this chapter is divided into three sections. The first provides the rationale of the chosen research design. The second outlines the sample and data collection procedures of the main study. The third presents the use of statistical analysis (Hierarchical regression analysis) to test the hypotheses.

6. 2 Research Design

Scholars defined longitudinal research as 'research emphasizing the study of change and containing repeated observations on at least one of the substantive constructs of interest' (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010, p.97). One of the benefits that a longitudinal technique offers is that it permits researchers to quantitatively observe time-varying information (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002) and produce long term information. In addition, scholars (e.g., Bohrnstedt, 1975; Fleishman, 1973; Liker et al., 1985) have noted that longitudinal research is facilitating researchers' attempts to establish causal priorities between variables, and the degree of mutual dependence of the relationships between two or more variables.

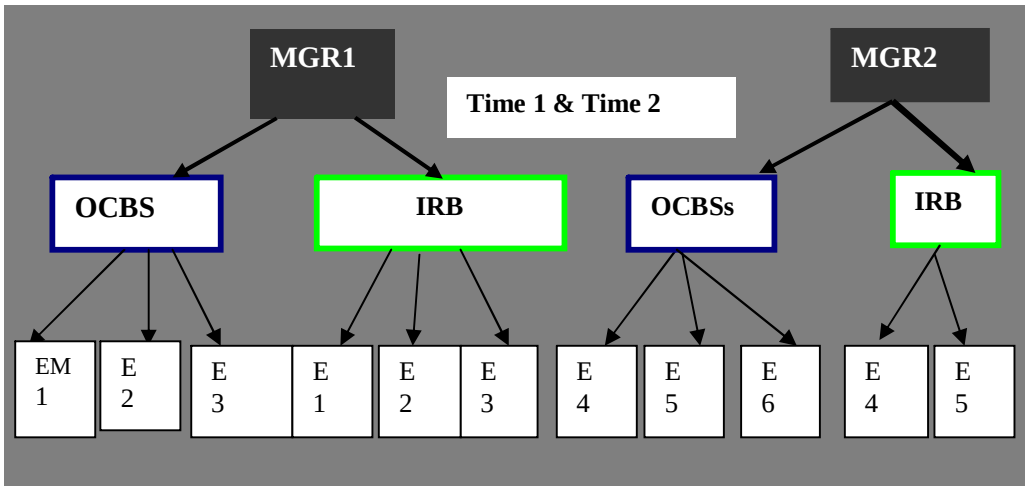
The purpose behind the election of the two wave's longitudinal survey design was to explore and understand whether or not POPS at Time 1 predicts variables measures at Time 2 (t-1). In other words, whether or not

POPS (T1) predicts organizational outcomes at Time 2 namely turnover intentions, affective commitment, OCBs and innovativeness, when changes occurred in their working institutions. I also investigate whether or not POPS (T1) is associated significantly with trust (T2), political influence behaviors (T2), PSSE (T2).

I measured POPS at Time 1 and Time 2. Indeed, this is in line with scholars suggestions (e.g., Ferris, Perrewe, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000) provided earlier in Chapter 3, that uncertainty during changes fosters POPS and employees do participate in political activities over time when they perceive their working place as political arena.

Using a miltiwave research design and collecting repeated measures over time from the same units of observation (the units were employees) I had multitude challenges to face. I also attempted to remove common method variables by using two different sources of data (e.g., employee-manager). As such, I obtained data for the participant's job performance (e.g., OCBs and innovativeness) from their immediate supervisor at two points in time. Figure 4 depicts this information graphically. These findings will strengthen research into POPS and provide valuable insights into factors that surround POPS in organisations.

Figure 4 ***Graph Depicting Performance Evaluations For The Study At Two Levels***



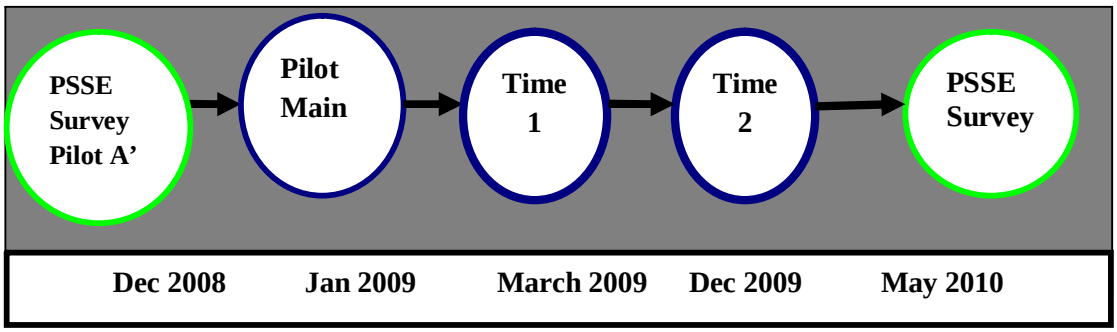
Note: MGR=manager, EM=employee

Since one of the aims of this thesis was to explore political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) and test its associations with POPS (as depicted in Fig. 1), I developed the political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) scale. In doing so, the definition embedded in this scale taps people's belief that they can execute their political skills to fulfill their goals and assuage any shortcomings associated with POPS. It was almost imperative to design a new measurement that maintained conceptually similar dimensions to previously established scales such as political skill, organizational politics. Besides, this scale reflects the understanding of individuals inside organization, and covers people's social networking skills, communication ability and all components that employees contemplate with sincerity and confidence in order to build coalitions with powerful individuals and deal successfully with POPS. Here,

my research design will reveal whether POPS (Time 1) predicts PSSE (on Time 2) and there is a significant association in these relationships. It will also help to understand the influencing role of PSSE as moderator on POPS-turnover intentions, and POPS-affective commitment relationships.

A consistent theme throughout the literature, and an otherwise strong declaration by others, is when the measurement of change over time will occur (Burr & Nesselroade, 1990; Collins, 1996; Cronbach & Furby, 1970; Hertzog, 1996). Although scholars suggested (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010) that longitudinal research is the study of change which contains at minimum three repeated observations (although more than three is better) on at least one of the substantive constructs of interest however, there are studies which investigate employee and organisation research and draw inferences from only two (Bauer et al., 2006; Tierney & Farmer 2011). Thus, this thesis provides identical data at two separate points of Time (Time 1 and Time 2). A timeline outlining the phases of this research is depicted below (Fig. 5).

Figure 5 *Model Of Research Design And Timeline Of Research Study*



Similarly, scholars (George and Jones, 2000) have emphasized the need for considering the time lags between intervals used in longitudinal studies to address issues of causality. For example, how stable the construct of interest is over time or what time aggregations are appropriate for observing the relationships.

Based on previous published reports on work attitudes and people's perceptions, I have adopted the appropriate time lag of 6 months between the measurement occasions which is neither too long nor too short (Maxwell & Cole, 2007; Gollob & Reichardt, 1987, 1991; Mitchell & James, 2001). The changes in POPS and employee behaviours are visible within 6 months and this time lag appeared to more appropriately satisfy my research goals. For example, previous studies in social and human capital development have used similar time frames (Chan & Schmitt, 2000; Jokisaari & Numi, 2009; Lance, Vandenderg, & Self, 2000).

In addition, mutliwave studies of trust have used lags from six weeks to ten months, as opposed to seconds, minutes, weeks, or years (e.g., Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gotty, & Snow, 2010; Colquitt and Rodell, 2011).

Employees would have enough time to engage in political activities and experience particular contexts in which a willingness to be vulnerable to people could be considered. The analysis of the main study is explained thoroughly in Chapter 8.

6. 3 Sample and procedures of the main longitudinal study

I test my model in an actual work environment but my research design does not necessitate a specific type of organisation. Rather, due to the social-psychological and macro (organisational behavior) themes involved in my research interests, my primary concern was to select organizations that foster POPS and people's occupations which require them to interact with others. Thus, these working institutions would enable me to make enough meaningful observations for POPS and the data will have practical implications for a large population in Hellas.

Given that my thesis took place during the economic crisis (2009-2010) and a very important moment for the history of Hellas the banking sector appeared as the promising avenue to investigate my hypotheses. Further still, situational and environmental factors such as the inherent conflict created by the struggle for scarce resources (e.g., downsizing, payment cuts) contribute to the formation of individual perceptions of organizational politics (Rosen et al., 2006; Adams, Treadway, Stepina, 2008). Thus, I assume that the economic crisis would stimulate the growth of POPS intensively within these types of organisations making it also a topic of

paramount significance for people's lives. Additionally, only few studies in POPS have taken place in Hellenic contexts (e.g., Kapoutsis et al., 2011; 2012) and as I discussed previously (Chapter 5) large differences on culture values exist between Hellas and Anglo-Saxon countries.

Sample setting

The data collection process was conducted in Hellas between 2009 and 2010. However, due to current financial situations, I experienced that organizations were also becoming extremely hesitant and parsimonious regarding information available to the public. In addition, it seemed incredibly difficult for most financial organizations to agree to provide the type of information my dissertation required. For example, working institutions do not want to questions about issues of organizational politics or trust in management and citizenship behaviors which might reflect an unfavorable image of their organization. All in all, from this 'unfortunate' contextual issue, it deserves to be added that gaining access to the banking institutions was a great challenge I had to face within the framework of my research pursuits. Not surprisingly, it was extremely difficult to obtain data regarding the managers' reports of their employee's performance because the methodology employed for these investigations requires considerable amount of employee and manager's time.

The process of the data collection went through multiple steps. My contact organization person was the General Manager of the Human Resources Department whom I met firstly in order to inform him about the purpose of my

research. Then, I sent a letter to the Managing Director (CEO) of the banking institution to explain that my research was designed to investigate employee attitudes and behavior within their working environment. I held several discussions with employees at higher levels and finally they gave me access to the banks represented in my thesis. After that, the departmental managers informed all potential participants for my survey and permitted them during their work time to complete the questionnaires.

The banking institutions were two of the largest banking organizations in Hellas with their headquarters based in Athens. However, their names cannot be revealed for the sake of privacy. The one financial organization has over 37, 000 employees and the group offers banking services for corporate, institutional, private and business clients. Services also include corporate and investment banking, asset management and shipping finance. The other is the second largest bank in Hellas employing more than 15,000 employees providing a wide range of retail, investment and corporate management services. The branches where I collected my research data are located in two cities.

Even when I was granted the access, and the banking institutions were willing to share the sensitive nature of information that my thesis examined, the organizational contact person and general manager were very helpful. For instance, they allowed me full access to the training centre and permitted me to interact with managers who had contributed with follow up communication. One week prior to the beginning of the collection of data, I sent a reminder letter to the division directors and they provided me with a list of the people

who hold managerial responsibilities in each department. The financial departments were characterized by similar hierarchical structure[16]. I spent ten days visiting the financial institutions where I got the opportunity to hold discussions with employees ranging from all hierarchical levels. When I attended orientation of the main training campus, I observed also the cultural context of the organization (e.g., dress code, office environment, language, habits as coffee breaks etc).

Data collection procedures

Prior to the full study investigation three pilots were conducted. The pilot survey 1 (N=26) and study of PSSE (N=103) (**see Appendix 1 and 6)**, aimed at validating the new measurement scale, the political skill self-efficacy (PSSE). A detailed analysis is presented in Chapter 7.

In the other pilot **(see Appendix 6)** a sample of 31 Hellenes employees adjusted the scale in the Greek language to eliminate any problems from the back-translation process. Through this pilot I also calculated the timing of the questionnaire, while the sample helped me in assessing comprehension of the questions and improving the appearance of the questionnaires. After removing few problematic items related to translation and making adjustments to allocate items, the investigation of my main research commenced.

The first main study (N=241) captured personality traits as antecedents of POPS, organizational cynicism, social desirability, and managers'

[16] (1=Employee, 2=Supervisor, 3=Manager, 4=CEO)

evaluations of employee OCBs and innovativeness. The second main survey (N=114) employed questionnaires to investigate the relationships of POPS with trust, political influence behavior, turnover intentions, affective commitment and managers' evaluations of employee OCBs and innovativeness. In line with some earlier work on organisational politics and given the overall focus of my research, thus, my motivations to choose a multiwave of design (two waves of survey) and test these variables at Time 1 and Time 2, was also driven by my ambition to understand the strength of these relationships over a time of change. It is worth noted here that during the distribution of the questionnaires employees were going through a 'shock' because of the big changes in banking sector as a result of the economic crisis.

Accordingly, in order to match employee responses (at Time 1 and Time 2), an anonymous code number was placed on the first page of each questionnaire and I kept a list with the names of employees and the number of the questionnaire. For added clarity, it was also very important to write the name of their direct line manager who had chosen to participate in this research project. To avoid cross-evaluation bias, I imposed a limit of three to five employee evaluations per supervisor.

In addition, to combat common method variance and response bias that might occur during the procedures as scholars recommended (e.g., Nunnally and Berstein, 1994; Conway, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKensie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003; Stone-Romeno, 2011) I obtained the predictor (POPS) and criterion variables (OCBs, innovativeness) from different sources and at separate times.

The items used in the questionnaire were randomly chosen and all sample participants were sightless to the hypotheses. This was very useful to balance the order of items (Podaskoff & Organ, 1986) and to limit the possibility of participants making speculations concerning the content of the survey.

Main longitudinal study

Accordingly, I administered the pen-and-paper questionnaires personally and all were hand-collected. Research in attitude surveys has demonstrated substantial equivalence between the paper-and pencil version and the computerized measure of surveys (Mueller et al., 2007). The identical questionnaires distributed in the financial institutions were separated by 6 months and are included in the Appendix 3, 4, and 5.

I travelled to the financial institutions and to the organization headquarters in order to deliver the questionnaires personally by hand to each participant. I used self-administration rather than interviewer administration of data, because of the importance of the accuracy of answers (Turner et al., 1992). In the two waves of data collection, employees received an envelope including the self-reported questionnaire while managers another envelope to report the performance of each employee. In the meanwhile I visited the financial branches twice a week to increase the research response rate. Before initiating the distribution of questionnaires, I ensured confidentiality for all responses, explained to the participants that they had the right to withdraw anytime they liked or leave any question uncompleted without any risks associated with this action.

During the data collection process, no third party was involved, or had access to the questionnaires and data, and all files were securely kept in a locked box. My instructions included: how to complete the questionnaire, how to get contacted, what to do with the questionnaire in case one wanted to leave, where to return the completed questionnaires. Between the distributions (three weeks) managers also delivered data for each of their employee. Participants submitted the completed questionnaires to me.

Consequently, five hundred and fifty participants received the questionnaires and during the first wave of data collection two hundred and forty one answered the survey. Of those two hundred, fourteen were dyad matched responses after having calculated the missing and half-completed questionnaires. For 26 participating employees, it was not possible to obtain the necessary ratings from supervisors. Forty one managers assessed two hundred fourteen employees in their completed questionnaires.

Prior to the Time 2 survey (six months later) I had travelled to the financial institutions' headquarters to provide details for the procedures and timeline of the second survey. Given that the constructs in my theoretical model were subject to change over time and the high uncertainty concerning financial matters as a result of the economic crisis, I collected data from the same participants. Therefore, I distributed to the employees and their managers an envelope including a self-report survey (the identical questionnaire can be seen in the Appendix). These employees completed one hundred and twenty questionnaires across the 3-week period. After deleting

the half completed ones, the sample consisted of 114 dyad matched responses (49% response rate).

Table 9 *A Summary Of The Main Research Design*

THE GREEK CONTEXT

The original scales were developed in English and all items included in the study underwent a back-translation process. According to this process of translation, all items were first translated into Greek and then back translated into English to ensure their equivalence. An academic and two experts were asked to examine the questionnaire in order to identify those items that might be confusing. Second, I conducted a pilot study for the main research, using employees from a large financial institution to ensure the accuracy of the survey translation. All surveys were written in Greek.

Regarding the political skill self-efficacy scale development, I used two surveys in order to test the factor structure of the scale. A test of content validity for all items employed in the questionnaire was conducted and the pre-test of the survey did not identify any problems or concerns about items that measure these behaviors.

Although scholars recognized POPS and their outcomes in ways consistent with the USA context, there has been very little work examining POPS among Hellenes employees (except e.g., Kapoutsis, 2010; 2012) however, the findings of this study are clearly relevant with regard to Hellenes employees and the institutional settings of this region.

THE ORGANISATION

For the sake of confidentiality the names of the banks remain anonymous. Due to the recent economic crisis the competition for taking jobs and promotions became more

intense (2009-2010) than it had been for these workers less than five years ago. The financial sectors comprising the sample were organized under a similar structure matrix (e.g., employees, supervisors, managers, directors, executives) yielding one boss for 4-8 employees and exhibiting pride on care and flexibility offered to their customers and employees. As a result, political influence tactics became a very critical component in managing many workers. Further, finding innovative ways to solve work-related problems was emphasized by the Chief Executive and managers.

THE SAMPLE

The participants were employees in large financial institutions occupying positions at customer services, back office operation, tellers, counting rooms, HRM management, administration, marketing and other areas.

THE TIMEFRAME

The study was conducted in 2009 and 2010.

6. 5 Participants in the main research project

I obtained complete data from employees representing a wide variety of divisions and occupations such as managers, analysts, credit controllers, cashiers. Their daily jobs required them to complete some tasks individually but also to interact with colleagues and their supervisors for exchanging information. My sample was chosen randomly and every employee who was working there had an equal chance of being chosen.

I did not gained access to the general population demographics of the institutions as it was reported in the Human Resources department but during a meeting held with four branch managers where I was informed about the population of the institution regarding the employees' profile, their age, gender, organizational tenure. On the basis of these information and making comparisons with the final sample, my sample tend to be similar to the population (cf. Conlon, 1983; Rynes & Rosen, 1995).

More specifically age and organisational tenure (i.e. years worked at present place of employment) were measured in years (coded as a continuous variable in years). I also asked participants for their number of children (coded as a continuous variable). Participants indicated also their gender (1=male, 2= female), family status (1=single, 2=divorced, 3=married), education (1=Gymnasium 6yrs, 2=Gymnasium 3yrs, 3=Lyceum, 4=Technical School 'diploma', 5=University/Bachelors degree , 6=Postgraduate studies, 7=other). Hierarchy was assessed using the following categories: 1=employee, 2=supervisor, 3=deputy director, 4=director and 5=other. These variables were controlled in analyses that used data from Sample time 1, and Sample time 2.

The demographics of the respondents were as follows: Participants for the first wave of survey (T1) included 241 employees from financial institutions in Hellas. From them, 119 were females (49.4%) and 122 males (50.2%) giving a response rate of 44.8%. After deleting incompleting and missing data the sample consisted of 215 completed employee and matching supervisor surveys.

Participants' ages ranged from 22 to 64 years (M= 39.04, SD=9.10), and working years of experiences ranged from less than 1 year to maximum 37 years (M= 12.57, SD=9.20). Participants' highest level of education consisted of MSc (10.8%) degree, University degree (26.6%), 6 years Lyceum (24.5%), Technical School (19.9%), Gymnasium studies (5%) , and other (2.9%). 61.4% of the participants were married, 31.1% were single and 6.1% divorced. The organizational tenure (M=12.57, SD=9.207) ranged from 2 years (16.6%), 15 years (14.9%) and over 15 years (13.3%).

A total of 44 managers took part in the survey and provided ratings for their employees' OCBs performance and innovativeness related behavior. From them 33 were males and 11 females (75% males and 25% females). Managers' ages ranged from over 25 years (3.7%) to 61 years (2.9%). Managers' organisational tenure averaged 19.5 years of experience. Forty-four supervisors rated the 215 subordinates, resulting in an average of 4.88 ratings per supervisor.

At Time 2, six months following survey 1, questionnaires about employees' turnover intentions, affective commitment, POPS, trust, political influence behavior, PSSE, were collected. Additionally, managers also provided details of each of their employees' performance regarding the constructs of interest (e.g., innovativeness behavior and OCBs (see Appendix E).

I distributed to the same employees (who participated at T1 survey) and collected in total 114 dyad-matching questionnaires. From them 51.8% were females, 41.7% were males, 63.2% were married, 26.3% single, and 10.5% divorced. Participants' highest degree in education was an MSc degree (6.1%), BSc degree (22.8%), TEI (23.7%), High school education (10.5%), Technical school (7%), Gymnasium (2%), and other (4%). From them, 65.8% were employees, 18.4% supervisors, 1.8% deputy director, 1.8% director and other (2.3%). Participants' age (M=40.0, SD=9.53) ranged from 23 to 62 years old. Working experiences ranged from less that 1 year to 34 years (M=13.9, SD=9.32). Specifically, 18.4% of them had working experience from 37 years to 41 years, 7% reported over 41 years, 14% had working experience from 29 years to 33 years, and 10% other. At time 2, totally, twenty eight supervisors rated the 114 employees, resulting in an average of 4.0 ratings per supervisor the response rate was 47%.

6. 5 Participants in the main pilot study of PSSE

Data for this pilot study (N=104) were collected from employees working in large financial institutions in Hellas. Participants in this study occupied a variety of positions in the organisation (managers, supervisors, clerical staff, credit control officers, sales people and cashiers). They also reported details for their gender, age, and hierarchical level, job experience in years, educational level and marital status.

Following prior upper echelons studies, I included these variables as controls in the analysis. Gender was coded as 1=male and 2=female; marital

status was coded as 1= single, 2=divorced and 3=married; education was coded as 1=Gymnasium 6yrs, 2=Gymnasium 3yrs, 3=Lyceum, 4=Technical School 'diploma', 5=University/Bachelors degree, 6=Postgraduate studies, and 7=other. Additionally, respondents' age and their job experiences were coded as a continuous variable in years.

I was successful in collecting survey data from one hundred and three participants (85% response rate); sixty eight were female (66%) and thirty five were male participants (34%). Participants' age ranged between 23 and 55 with a mean age of 35.87 years (*SD*=8.03 years). The educational level varied among the participants. To illustrate, 2% reported 6 years of schooling in Gymnasium (High School), 9.7% reported 6 years of Lyceum schooling, 5.8% indicated that they were technical school graduates, 6.8% were graduates of the Greek TEI, 29% held bachelor's degrees (i.e., University, the Greek AEI), 39.8% held Master's degrees, and 2% were graduates of other higher education institutions. As far as the employees' marital status was concerned, 53 were married (51.5%), 48 were single (46.6%) and only 1.9% were divorced. The mean of total years in work experience was 8.0 (SD=6.9).

Regarding the hierarchy level inside organisations, participants claimed a variety of positions (1=ranging from employee (entry level 60.2%), supervisor (27.2%), manager (3.2%), to General Director of a Department (2.9%) and other positions in the organisation (4.9%). Responses were obtained from employees working in the financial firm. Of the total 120 surveys distributed, after deleting incomplete data the final sample consisted of one hundred and three employees (85% response rate).

6. 6 Questionnaire length

There is evidence that the length of the questionnaire affects the mood of the respondents (Lindell and Whitney, 2001) and if they feel that it is excessively long and repetitive they are likely to suffer from boredom and fatigue. One of the main concerns of developing the questionnaire was to keep it as short and interesting as possible whilst using an adequate number of items to measure each construct. In order to achieve this, we did many pre-test exercises and a pilot study to check the required time for completion.

6. 7 Measures of the main research

At Time 1, employees provided ratings of POPS, personality traits, and organizational cynicism. Additionally, subordinates provided ratings of the control variables and social desirability. At Time 2, six months following Time 1, I collected items of POPS, trust, political skill self-efficacy (PSSE), political influence behavior, turnover intentions, and affective commitment, i.e., the outcomes of interest of this study. During the two waves of surveys (Time 1 and Time 2), managers provided reports for organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB-I, OCB-O) and innovativeness. Table 9 presents a list with the sample items and their measurement properties.

For all the measurement scales I used a 5-point Likert scales ranging from *strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).* I employed translation and back translation procedures (Brislin, 1986) to translate the English items into Greek. I created summated scale scores for each measure by averaging responses on the associated items. Greater details for the pilot studies can be found in the Chapter 7.

Personality

Personality was captured at Time 1 applying the Big five inventory (BFI) (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1995; John & Srivastava, 1999). For this study respondents were asked to assess on a five point scale the extent to which they believed that her or him show a) *neuroticism* b) *extraversion* c) *openness to experience* d) *conscientiousness* e) *agreeableness.*

I chose the BFI scale because it has been successfully used and adopted by the best journals in both personality (e.g., De Young, 2006) and industrial-organizational psychology (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson & Zapata, 2006; Judge, Le Pine & Rich, 2006). As already mentioned, researchers suggested that the Big Five factor model of personality has been the most useful (Barrick &Mount, 1991; Hogan & Hogan, 1991; Judge & Bono, Ilies & Gerhard, 2002) in examining work attitudes and has been widely used across countries and languages; findings confirmed its cross-cultural robustness (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Also, it was proposed that (Goldberg 1993; John & Srivastava 1999; McCrae & Costa 1999) it is one of the most comprehensive and widely accepted taxonomies of personality which has shown substantial internal consistency, re-test reliability, clear factor structure, convergent and discriminate validity (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; John & Srivastava, 1999). In addition, comparing to other inventories assessing the Big Five personality factors (Rammstedt & John, 2005) there is evidence of BFI regarding the construct validity in its favors (e.g., Donnellan & Lucas, 2006; John & Srivastava, 1999), and convergence of self-reports with partner ratings. Therefore, it was wise to use it in this study.

Thus, this personality taxonomy allowed me to build from prior research in personality and contribute to a pragmatic and accumulating body of findings. The internal reliability estimates (i.e., Cronbach's alphas) ranged between .65 <a<77 which largely reflects a normal range (Borkenau & Ostendorf, 1983).

Organizational cynicism

Organizational cynicism items were also measured at Time 1. I adapted the 12- items scale which was originally developed by Abraham (2000a) & Andersson (1996) and captured by nine items, the behavioral expressions of cynicism such as frustration, hopelessness, disillusionment, contempt, and lack of trust. I replaced the word 'organization' with 'bank'. It also measured by three items individuals' belief that improvements could be made in the organization in the future. Organizational cynicism was assessed by summing scores across the 12-items. The coefficient alpha for organizational cynicism was a=. 716.

Perceptions of organizational politics (POPS)

POPS was measured at Time 1 and Time 2 using the same items as Kacmar and Carlson's (1997) perceptions of politics scale. Respondents were asked to assess the extent to which they view their working environment as political on a scale ranging from 1='strongly disagree' to 5='strongly agree'. This 12- item scale tends to capture three dimensions of POPS a) individuals general political behavior b) going along to go ahead and c) pay and promotion. Example items of POPS were 'There is no place for yes-men around here; people in this organization build themselves up by tearing others down',

‘Rewards only come to those who work hard in this organization’ (reversed scored) and ‘Favoritism than merit determines who get ahead here’. The higher scores indicated a negative aspect of the work environment perceptions.

I elected this scale because the majority of studies in organizational politics employed this shortened version of the original 40-items of Kacmar and Ferris (1991) scale. There are only three exceptions (Anderson, 1994; Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997; Drory, 1993) in the literature which assessed political climate rather than POPS, (Cheng 2009). Consistent with validity reports of POPS (a= .74, in research by Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; a=. 76, in research by Parker et al., 1995) the Coefficient alphas for POPS at Time 1 and Time 2 were a=.71, and a=.74, respectively.

Affective commitment

Organizational affective commitment items were measured at Time 2. I used the eight-item scale of affective commitment developed by Allen and Meyer’s (1990). Respondents were asked to assess on a five-point scale (ranging from 1= ‘strongly disagree’ to 5= ‘strongly agree) the extent to which they feel attached to their bank. Examples of affective commitment items were ‘‘I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization’’, ‘‘I really feel as though this organization’s problems are my own’’. The Coefficient alpha for this scale was a= .87.

Turnover intentions

Intent to turnover the organization was measured at Time 2 using the three-item scale as it developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh

(1979) from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire. Example items were 'it is likely that I will look for a new job in the next year' and 'I often think about quitting'. The Coefficient alpha of the scale was a= .86.

Political influence behavior

Political influence behavior was also measured at Time 2. Consistent with Yukl (2003), two classes of influence behavior were captured in order to assess what influence tactics employees use at work (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl and Tracey, 1992). For this study, I measured political influence behavior with a 21-item scale; which encompassed a) the sanctioned political behavior utilizing items from ingratiation, rationality, sanctions and favor exchange, and b) the non-sanctioned behaviors having items from upward pressure, information blocking and coalition building. I utilized two items from each subscale of the original **Influence Behavior Questionnaire** (Target G-44) developed by Yukl (2003) in order to shorten the amount of time respondents needed to spend completing the questionnaire. Political influence behavior was assessed by summing the items. Employee responses were given on a five-point scale (ranging from 1= 'never behave this way' to 5= 'always behave this way'). The Cronbach's alphas for the political influence behavior was a=.821.

Organizational Trust

Trust at Organizational and Interpersonal level was measured at Time 2 (6 months after Time 1). The organizational trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman,

1995; Schoorman et al., 1996a) captures the trustor's 'willingness to be vulnerable' and measures the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity. I used the Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) scale of organizational trust which assesses how willing the employee is to be vulnerable to the management of the bank. Respondents rated their answers on a 5- point Likert scale (ranging from 1= 'strongly disagree' to 5= 'strongly agree'). Five items were adapted by this scale to match my research context but two items were later deleted due to low coefficient alpha or low factor loading with other items of other scales. Example items of organizational trust were 'my supervisor keeps my interest in mind when making decisions' 'if my supervisor asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame'. Coefficient alpha was a=. 579.

Interpersonal trust

I measured the cognition-and affect-based aspects of trust utilizing the seven item scale developed by McAllister (1995) at Time 2. Affect-based items represent trust in an emotional basis and refer to the interpersonal care and concern of a referent, whereas cognition-based trust reflects an individual's beliefs about peer reliability, integrity and fairness (Dirks & Ferin, 2002; McAllister, 1995). Respondents were asked to assess the level of trust they have toward others (i.e., co-workers) on a five point scale from 1 ('strongly disagree') to 5 ('strongly agree').

Examples of affective-based items of trust were 'I can talk freely to this individual (manager) about difficulties I am having at work and know that she/he will want to listen', and 'We have a sharing relationship. We can

both share our ideas, feelings, and hopes freely'. Examples of cognitive-based items of trust were 'I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work', and 'Given this person's tract record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job'. Coefficient alphas for the scales was a=.830.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)

To assess employee OCBs performance two taxonomies of behaviors were captured: Organizational Citizenship Behaviors to a specific individual as a target (OCB-I) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors benefiting the organization as a whole (OCB-O). Managers provided reports to assess each of their employees' performance across these two performance classifications at Time 1 and Time 2. Managers requested to assess three to five employees

Consistent with the literature, to assess Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Individual (OCB-I) I utilized four items from the Podaskoff (1991) scale which captures altruism, because it represents behavior 'directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to face situations' (Smith et al., 1983:675). I also added three items from the Williams and Anderson (1991) scale to measure the extent to which they offer help when it is not required but benefit specific individuals in the organization. In contrast to other classes of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (e.g., sportsmanship, conscientiousness, loyalty and obedience) that measure how individuals deal with job responsibilities, these items are related to specific individuals. Example items of OCB-I were: 'Help others who have been absent' and 'Goes out of way to help new employees'.

I measured Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organization (OCB-O) with a five items scale developed by Podsakoff (1991) and Van Dyne and Graham (1994) which captures civil virtue (Organ, 1988) and participation (Graham, 1991). I selected these dimensions as directed at the organization, because according to Robinson (1996) civil virtue is more likely to involve actively in organizational governance that contribute to the organization. Example items of OCB-O were 'Always attend and participate in work-related meetings regarding the organization' and 'I keep abreast of developments in the company'. Managers responded on a five-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The coefficient alphas for OCB-O and OCB-I at Time 2 were a=.852 and a=.860, respectively. For OCB-O and OCB-I at Time 1 were a=.695 and a=738, respectively.

Innovativeness behavior measure (IRB)

Innovativeness behaviors were also captured at Time 1 and Time 2. Given the specific purposes of this study, I created the scale of innovativeness behavior. The 10-items scale measures the extent to which individuals generate, spread and implement new ideas relevant to the context of financial industries. Consistent with Amabile, (1996:230), Bruce and Scott (1994) conceptualizations and findings on innovation, innovativeness behavior scale refers to successful implementation of creative ideas and kinds of problem solving activities in the specific political context.

Together, these items of innovativeness behaviors contribute to the innovative capacity of the organization as a whole (Baer & Frese, 2003;

Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999). The method used to develop this scale is described in Chapter 8.

All the items averaged to create the innovativeness behavior valuations. One example of innovativeness behavior item was 'I adapt novel solutions for conventional problems in the bank'. Managers required assessing three to five employees across items of this scale and provided reports for each of their employees' innovativeness behavior on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The Coefficient alphas for innovativeness behavior at Time 1 was a=. 860 and at Time 2, a= .826, respectively.

Political skill self-efficacy (PSSE)

Political skill self-efficacy was measured at Time 2 using the method described in Chapter 7. Given my interest in understanding how employees who perceive their work environment as political successfully employ influence skills and valuate their networking ability, I created a scale of 12-items to fulfill this potential. To reiterate, I asked participants to rate their political skill self-efficacy concerning four aspects (e.g., effectively influence important others at work; successfully building networks with the right people; adaptability to political environments). Accordingly, the 12-item scale I developed captured each individual's personal judgments regarding the extent to which he/she can successfully deal with political games whilst their responses were given to a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. After conducting Confirmatory Factor analysis finally twelve items included in the statistical analysis for hypotheses testing at Survey 2 (T2).

Example items of political skill self-efficacy were ‘I am confident –I know what to say and do –in using connections with a group of people in my job when I need to advance my position’, ‘I am very good at creating a good impression at work’. The coefficient alpha for political skill self-efficacy was a=. 868.

Control variables

Control variables were obtained at Time 1 and Time 2. Analytically, respondents answered self-reported items for their gender, age, education, organizational tenure. In addition, I assessed their marital status and number of children, which has not been examined previously in the literature.

Consistent with other findings in similar research in this area, I controlled for age (Valle and Perrewe, 2000) and organizational tenure (Bradley, Bliese, & Thoresen, 2004) because lower levels of politics were found to abound among older employees and those who stay longer in the organization. For example, it was reported that old people are more familiar with their organization than younger and better fit within the work environment, and accept it as a substantial part of their lives (Cook & Wall, 1980; Valle & Perrewe, 2000; Hochwarter et al., 2003). Consequently, they have fewer perceptions of politics because they have learnt to interpret events differently than those who firstly come to work (Fedor et al., 2008, 1998; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995).

I also included respondent’s gender and hierarchical level as control variables. More unfavorable POPS seems to stem from individuals at the highest level of the organization (e.g., Byrne et al., 2005; Fedor, Ferris,

Harrell-Cook, & Russ, 1998; Ferris, Frink, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1994; 1994; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998). Although women perceive organizations as more political in nature than males do (Fedor et al., 2008, 1998; Ferris & Kacmar 1992; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995) some studies showed that male employees tend to be involved in organizational politics more than women, because they view a political process as a natural and normative part of their working life (Drory and Beaty, 1991; Vigoda, 2003).

To assess whether or not POPS differentiates in terms of education, I included it as another control variable. Researchers across various contexts have shown that higher educated employees invest more time and effort in search of jobs which better suits their personality and attitudes. Furthermore, it is argued that their expectations are more likely to be met and POPS appear to be lower than those of less educated employees (Parker et al., 1995).

Notwithstanding, a growing body of work demonstrates that school is characterized as an important social institution that shares together with the family many of the socialization functions such as transmitting basic societal norms and beliefs and passing them on from one generation to another (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2001; Turner, 1997). Similarly, Rest (1986) suggested that education is a very powerful tool in people's development and reasoned that education helps people 'take responsibility for themselves and their environments' (Rest, 1986: 57). Therefore, it was suggested that exposure to formal education generally contradicts egocentric values (Cullen et al., 2004) such as achievement and individuals are more socialized, less willing to accept unjustified behaviors and, consequently, political activities.

Due to the fact that individuals are asked to answer sensitive questions in the surveys and it is known that they have the tendency to underreport some behaviors (the socially undesirable ones) and consistently over report others (the desirable ones) (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007), I have also controlled the individuals' social desirability. Respondents answered on the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A complete list of the questionnaires distributed in the two waves of surveys is included in the Appendix 3, 4 and 5.

Table 10 *Sample Of Measures And Variable Items At Time 1 And Time 2*

CONSTRUCTS	SAMPLE ITEMS	NUMBER OF ITEMS
[1] POPS	(1) Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around here (2) Rewards come only to those who work hard in this department	12
[2] Personality Traits	(1) Is talkative- Tends to be lazy (2) Can be tense- Is outgoing, sociable	**43**
[3] Political influence behavior	(1) Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice (2) Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity	**21**
[4] Interpersonal Trust (affect-cognition based)	(1) I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen (2)We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us	**6**
[5] Organizational Trust	I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control	**3**
[6] Organizational Cynicism	(1) Most people think that things around here will get better instead of worse (2) It is hard to be hopeful about the future because people have such bad attitudes	**12**
[7] Affective commitment	(1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation (2) I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to	**8**

	this organisation	
[8] Turnover Intentions	(1)I often think quitting	**3**
[9] Job Performance • OCB-I • OCB-O • Innovativeness	(1)Always attend and participate in work-related meeting regarding the organization (2)I keep abreast of developments in the company (1)Adapting novel solutions for conventional problems in the bank (2)Using new ways to communicate with important organization members	**7** **5** **10**
[10] Political Skill Self-Efficacy (PSSE)	(1)I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively (2) I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	**12**
[11] Social Desirability	1) There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone ® (2) I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	**3**
Measurements	T1 & T2 Surveys	**145 items**

Multiple hierarchical regression analysis as the Statistical analysis

A long history of research suggests that within the organizational sciences the examination of employee relationships at a dyadic level of analysis is relatively scarce (see Gooty & Yammanino, 2010). Thus, scholars faced methodological challenges of modelling dyads in work settings as a level of analysis. Along with others Kenny, Kashy, and Cook (2006),

proposed for the analysis of nested and multilevel data at the individual, group and organisational levels the use either Hierarchial Linear Modeling (HLM) or hierarchical regression analysis.

I applied hierarchical regression approach to test the hypotheses as it includes a series of regression equations and it seems the appropriate method for the analysis of data. This statistical approach can incorporate multiple predictors (Pitariu & Ployhart, 2010; Singer & Willett, 2003). It also appears ideal for testing the relationships among employees' POPS, organisational cynicism, personality traits, OCB-I and OCB-O, innovativeness behavior, political influence behavior, trust, turnover intentions and affective commitment. In addition, it accounts for variances within employees and comprises of personality traits, POPS, organisational cynicism, trust, political influence behavior, affective commitment and turnover intentions.

The standard controls variables were common across regressions and included: gender, age, education, marital status, organisation tenure, job tenure, hierarchy level, number of children, and position hold in current organisation. Despite the relatively large number of controls, the ratio of cases to variables was consistently above the recommended slower limits (e.g., Berry & Feldman, 1985) across analyses. Controls were entered separately from main outcomes in order to examine effect size. As criterion variables I used the outcomes variables of OCB-I, OCB-O, innovativeness related behavior, turnover intentions, and affective commitment.

In addition, according to scholars (Bliese and Hanges, 2004), I tested whether the variables in the main study could generate problems of multicollinearity and loss of power. The analysis indicated that none of the independent variables had VIFs greater than the stringent cut off of 4.0 (the more lenient cut off is 10) (cf. Belsley et al., 1980; Bliese and Hanges, 2004). Therefore, I concluded that non-independence was not a concern in this sample.

Taking into account that in the present study employee responses based on employees' self-reports questionnaires I have taken the following steps to alleviate concerns with common methods bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Firstly, I asked managers to produce reports regarding their employees' performance (OCBs and Innovativeness behaviour). Secondly, I administered and collected data at two different points in time, and third tests have been conducted to explore whether the data could generate problems of multicollinearity. Appropriately, I avoided common method variances such responses tendencies by modelling social desirability scale as a control variable in my analysis.

Mediation hypothesis testing

Furthermore, to examine the mediation effects of organizational cynicism, trust and political influence behaviour on the relationships among POPS-performance outcomes (see Hypotheses in Fig. 1); I conducted multiple hierarchical regressions following the procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) and MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West & Sheets (2002). I chose

Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to testing mediation because they have been suggested by the majority of scholars as an accessible data-analytic technique contained in major statistical packages to ease testing of moderator and mediator effects (Aiken & West, 1991; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Jaccard, Turrisi, & Wan, 1990). For assessing mediation effects on these relationships however, literature suggested (e.g., Preacher and Hayes, 2004:219) the utility of the Sobel test and highlighted its superiority compared to other tests (MacKinnon et al., 2002). These relationships best assessed perhaps via Sobel test and I assessed its significance based on this test's scores (Steiger, 1980).

It has been stated that in the multiple hypothesis testing, the sample size needs be considered because affect the statistical power and the generalizability of the results. Following the recommendations of MacKannon (2002), I have collected 241 responses at Time 1 and 114 responses at Time 2, respectively. Consider also of Hair et al. (2006:197) statements that to maintain power at .80 in multiple regressions requires a minimum sample of 50 participants and preferably a sample size of 100 participants in most research situations my results are not confounded by the issues of sample size.

Moderation hypothesis testing

Moderation lies at the heart of theory in social science (Cohen et al., 2003) and it indicates the maturity as well as the sophistication of a field of inquiry (Aguinis, Boik, & Pierce, 2001; Judd, McClelland, & Culhane, 1995). Following the guidance in the literature which suggested that (Cohen et al.,

2003) moderator is a variable that alters the direction or strength of the relation between a predictor and an outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Holmbeck, 1997; James & Brett, 1984) I test the existence of Political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) having the role of moderator in my model of examination.

Although there is little consensus regarding which of several approaches is best (Marsh, 2002) to analyse a moderation relation however, all concluded the importance of multiple hierarchical analysis instead of other relevant statistic complex techniques for testing interactions. To examine Hypothesis 22a-b which states that Political skill self-efficacy is a moderator on the relationship among POPS-turnover intentions, and POPS-affective commitment, I conducted three hierarchical regressions (e.g., Frazier, Tix, & Barnett, 2003; 2004) to perform the analysis. The control variables were entered into 1st steps of the regression and the final step was to create the interaction term (all the items were in the mean-centred). The correlations were calculated by standardizing the regression coefficient obtained in HLM analyses.

Conclusions

The aim of the present Chapter was to enlight the understanding about the process involved in the collection of data, the measurement scales used and the strategy involved in choosing this specific organisation to test my study's hypotheses. With this understanding, the thesis now will reveal the statistical analysis employed and as mentioned throughout this chapter greater details for each pilot study can be found in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER 7-*POLITICAL SKILL SELF-EFFICACY SCALE: DEVELOPMENT OF A MEASURE AND VALIDATION STUDIES*

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 has provided support for the existence of a political skill self-efficacy construct. This Chapter outlines the development of a 12-item measure of employees' political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) across two studies. The primary contribution of these studies is that I developed a measure that can be used to explore this phenomenon in future research.

However, the process of identifying items that compose the PSSE inventory was long and traced in the following actions as previous scholars proposed (Hinkin, 1998; Clark & Watson, 1995). First, I created and developed items to capture the content domain of PSSE. These reflect people's capacity for dealing successfully with various forms of organisational politics and acting in ways that gain benefits (i.e., support, access to important information, liking, promotions, and rewards) in such environments. Examples of these include having the perceived ability to acquire the desired resources via friendship channels, influence those with power and agree with 'higher-ups' in the company.

Second, I conducted an (exploratory) factor analysis to extract the factor structure of the items. Third, I conducted Confirmatory Factor Analysis and finally, I tested the discriminant convergent and criterion-

related validity of the scale. I used different samples in each step. With the increased emphasis on the political behaviour at work (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011), it is constructive to provide evidence to further support the construct validity of the .political skill self-efficacy scale.

More specifically, the first PSSE pilot Study 1 was conducted in English language **(APPENDIX 1).** In this stage of scale development, 14 items that have been created were used to measure the construct of PSSE. Furthermore, in the pilot study **(APPENDIX 2)** which is presented in Chapter 8, I administered these 14-item translated in Greek language. This survey involved also a validation of internal reliabilities of the measurement scales used in the main research.

The PSSE Study 2 **(APPENDIX 6)** which is described in detail below conducted in Greek language and used the 12 retained items to tap political skill self-efficacy (PSSE). It also aimed to validate the new measurement scale of PSSE to a sample representative of the actual population of interest such as financial institutions.

Overall, these studies provide further evidence for the psychometric properties of the PSSE measure, and confirmed its factor structure as well as demonstrating its convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity. Therefore, this thesis has selected to use a number of pilot studies from quantitative designs since it appeared to be more appropriate in order to fulfil the scope of this research. All these efforts are addressed in details below.

7.2 Stage One- Item development and scale construction

Although there have been discussions since Jones (1990) declared that political skills have to do with mixtures of self-mockery and self-confidence, researchers have yet to adequately address the effective execution of influence behavior (e.g., Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Blass, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2002). As explained in the previous Chapters, very little attention has been given to how some individuals who have the capacities such as positive self appraisal and knowledge deal with organizational politics. Thus, a series of investigations was conducted in order to respond to this call and more specifically I begun the process of identifying the construct that underlies the PSSE measure.

Firstly, I conducted the literature review in the relevant fields regarding the individual measure of political skill, perceptions of politics, self-efficacy measures (e.g., Ferris et al., 2005; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Levenson, 1981; Rosenberg, 1965), and personality traits (Goldberg, 1999, John & Srivastava, 1999). Moreover, research has shown (e.g., Witt & Ferris, 2003) that when employees use their political skill at work, then the role of individual differences in understanding and responding to organisational politics can contribute to the effective use of politics within an organisation. In other words the desire, ability and success of individuals to engage in there endeavors differ from person to person. For example, Ferris, Fink, and Anthony (2000) emphasised that the negative effects arising from a role stressor such as organisational politics should be

reduced for highly political skilled individuals because of their increased confidence and sense of control.

On the whole, however, it is seen that the self-confidence and self-efficacy are all important to driving individuals of how respond to and use organisational politics. Unfortunately, the only measure of Political skill that currently exists does not adequately capture specific construct of political skill self-efficacy and, as a result, there is a void in our knowledge in this field (Political skill self-efficacy in particular).

My first goal was to specify the theoretical domain of the new measurement scale and to define its construct items and its dimensions. Building on the Motivational (Vroom, 1964) and attitudinal (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) theories which suggest that attitudes, values, norms, perceptions of control are all important predictors of human behavior, I define and develop a measure called PSSE. I focused on motivation theories (i.e., goal-setting, expectancy and efficacy) and used them as guide to describe PSSE construct in general and to explain later associations between the criteria (for testing its psychometric properties) and motivation as operationalised according to goal-setting, expectancy and self-efficacy. Accordingly, political skill self-efficacy would be a predictor of individuals' attitudes and direct their behaviors.

Given the definition of political skill self-efficacy (Chapter 5) and my argument that individuals effectively deal with organizational politics when they have the confidence and skills to do so, I designed the items to measure these individual skills. In the first stage (earliest) I wrote 16-items to capture

the construct domain of the political skill self-efficacy. These items were consistent with the existing measures and previous research on political skill, POPS, as well as literature in leadership self-efficacy, personality self-efficacy (e.g., Goldberg, 1999), and cross-cultural validations of political skill inventory (Lvina et al., 2012).

Secondly, I discussed with one academic expert the contents of the questions; important advice and feedback was provided regarding the compositions of the questions along with the set of variances I should account to test it. After receiving the feedback by the academic expert, two items were removed from the scale because theoretically they could not capture the deeper level of PSSE concept. In other words, these items were deemed to be conceptually inconsistent. For example a) *A number of decisions for rewards in this organization happened without a sense of self preservation* and b) *I can speak freely in my organization when I see pay and promotions applied politically*.

Therefore, at this stage, the Political skill self-efficacy scale consisted of 14-items generated to cover the ranges of political-skill self-efficacy as indicated in my concept definition. All items included in this instrument fall into four categories: *perceived ability to deal effectively with organizational politics at work or 'playing up effectively with organisational politics', perceived communication skills, perceived networking ability, and general perceived group and coalition building ability.*

In more details the perceived *networking ability* dimension in this scale captures individuals' beliefs to develop diverse contacts and networks

of people while dealing with organisational politics. Furthermore, these items focus on an individual's tendency to hold these friendships and informal networking for personal and organisational gain. Wei et al. (2012) proposed that political skill increases one's network resources which will benefit his/her career success.

Similarly, perceived *coalition building* relates to an individual confidence that they can acquire powerful coalitions with others around them in the political arenas of organisational life. Items measuring this coalition building dimension reflect the view that people who perceived an atmosphere as being highly political ensured to be well positioned to take advantage of opportunities and build strong beneficial alliances and coalitions. While the networking ability described above refers more to individual's beliefs to utilise the networking resources to get things done, this dimension can be viewed as an individual's perceived competence to build powerful coalition with sensitivity to others' views on them and be in position to protect and sustain their desired outcomes.

As suggested by scholars (Ferris et al., 2005) politically-skilled individuals are more goal-oriented and their work is directed towards achieving job and career objectives (Judge and Bretz, 1994). When developing items to reflect political skill self-efficacy an emphasis was placed on employees' goals (and expectations[17], the PSSE to lead to

[17] Expectancy is the ability that the outcome will be achieved (Vroom,1964)

important gains for individuals at work) based upon Vroom's theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964). The motivation behind the exercise of political skill self-efficacy is to obtain one's goals and obtain the benefits of organisational politics.

Specifically, the theme of *communication skills* refers to an individual's general perceived ability to display a trusting and convincing personal style when trying to influence others through networking or coalition building. Thus, the items measuring this dimension of political skill self-efficacy reflect also individuals' apparent sincerity, when they appear sincere and authentic in their relationships with others.

Additionally, one of the key features of political skill self-efficacy construct refers to the *perceived ability to deal effectively with and leverage organisational politics.* It might be seen as the key skill of those **'**playing up with political games' and know of how to engage in political behaviors to acquire desired outcomes. These items also capture an individual capacity to understand politicking environments, to conform with one's political motives to achieve goals but in ways that arouse constituents such as humility and social flexibility.

Most notably, Pfeffer (1992) referred to 'flexibility' which involves adapting one's behaviour to different targets of influence in different contextual settings. Ferris et al. (2007) noted that interpersonal influence is a basic dimension of political skill. Thus far, research (Andrews, Kacmar and

Harris, 2009) has noted that individuals who are political skilled possess high self-awareness and awareness of others. In other words, their interpersonal influence based on the situation enables them to select situationally appropriate methods of influence (Ferris et al., 2007).

Overall, the notion of political skill tended to associate with the facility in dealing with and through others (Perrewe et al., 2004). It has surfaced in the literature in organisational politics as an important factor of the successful use of specific influence behaviors (Jones, 1990; Perrewe et al., 2004). This dimension was developed based on what Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) describe as subjective norms driving behaviors. People are apt to exhibit particular behaviors if they believe they can do. It follows that, if individuals have distinct beliefs that have the competencies to engage in organisational politics (I am engaging into political activities because I believe *that I can* …) then various forms of organisational politics are likely to benefit them.

In this case, the Political skill self-efficacy items refer to the dimension of '*perceived ability to deal effectively with organisational politics'* focus also on the individuals' confidence, feelings and beliefs in responding to POPS appropriately. Although Mintzberg (1983) has proposed that individuals need political will and political skill in order to gain power in organisations, there remains limited understanding of how individuals convert organisational politics into influence, power, and effectiveness in the workplace. Therefore, responding to this call, PSSE scale measures the extent

to which employees believe they will be exercising a number of influences to developing critical coalition in their working places. Indeed, these items refer to the appraisal of one's success as a person to manage political capital (political games) in a variety of situations. Furthermore, these items represent something beyond general political skill.

Accordingly, the written items I designed for this scale involved evaluations of self-efficacy (e.g., 'I believe I can play up politically at work), beliefs of one's control over one's environment (e.g., I am confident in pay and promotions), self-confidence in one's networking and communication abilities (e.g., I am able to make others feel that they are valued workers in this department), beliefs associated with organisational politics (e.g., I am a very political savvy employee).

Despite the origins of these items, they focus on specific trait variance and reflect a combination of more than two variables (e.g., communication ability, politics adaptability and coalitions building) to aid the exploration of political skill self-efficacy to organizational life. The items in the Table 11 below cover the content domains of the political skill self- efficacy.

Table 11 *Dimensions of Political Skill Self-Efficacy Construct*

Dimensions	Items to measure in the first pilot study (N=26)
[1] Perceived ability to deal effectively with organisational politics	1. I have the ability (verbal and no verbal expression) to create a favorable image in the eyes of my boss 2. I am very good at creating a good impression at work 3. I am very political savvy employee 4. I am confident I can play up politically at work 5. I am able to make others feel that they are valued workers in this department 6. I am confident that I can control and influence decisions regarding promotions in this department
[2] Perceived networking ability	1. I feel confident in establishing network relationships with supervisors who I can contact when I need assistance 2. My ability to use connections with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good
[3] Communication ability	1. I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people at work 2. I believe that I am able to develop good rapport with most co-workers in the job *Apparent sincerity in communication* 3. I believe that I appear genuine in my interactions with others 4. I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty
[4] Coalitions' and groups building ability	1. I am confident (I know what to say and do) in influencing a group of people in my job when I really need to advance my position 2. I spent a lot of time at work in developing social interactions with those important people, that making economic and promotion decisions

7.3 Stage Two- Examining the Psychometric properties of the PSSE measure

Even though scholars (Ferris et al., 2005; Bandura, 1986; Judge et al., 2003) provided evidence for the psychometric properties of political skill or self-efficacy scales, it appears that no generally accepted measure to capture political skill self-efficacy exists. Therefore, it is necessary to show not only what I have developed but also how I validated it.

As mentioned, reviewing thoroughly and piloting items are some important steps involved in the scale development (Spector, 1992) and in crystallizing the conceptual basis of the targeted construct. Several indicators were investigated and several hypotheses serving as necessary conditions for a favorable evaluation of the PSSE measure were advanced. Accordingly, the next stage was to explore the necessary conditions to establish the construct validity of the PSSE. I turned to previous research in psychometric theories (e.g., Nunnally, 1994) and I adopted a conglomerate of conditions to verify the validation of the new scale. The fundamental goal at this stage was to obtain information regarding the construct validity.

Construct validity reflects the extent to which a measure relates to other similar constructs (Schwab, 1980). As scholars noted construct validation aims to specify the nomological network (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955), within the focal construct and similar constructs. One component of

the nomological network is the test of convergent validity and another aspect is to investigate the discriminant validity.

Specifically, Convergent validity refers to the extent to which a construct shares variance with alternative measures (Judge et al., 2003). In this case of the PSSE, I examine the relationship of PSSE scale with other measures such as POPS, self-efficacy, political skill, self-esteem, locus of control and show of how it correlates with other measures to which it would be expected to correlate. The general scope was to demonstrate that PSSE scale correlates with these measures but the correlations were not very high to suggest redundancy.

Some scholars though by no means all suggest that POPS are related to numerous deleterious outcomes at individual level (Miller et al., 2008; Ferris et al., 2002). On the other hand, Ferris (2002, 2007) explored the role of political skill to explain why some employees benefit from political behaviors but not others. Given the importance of these findings I focus on the association between POPS and political skill self-efficacy.

In alignment with these theories and using an expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), I posit that the negative effects arising from POPS may not materialised for all employees because of their personal resources such as political skill self-efficacy. Further, I suggest that those who believe that are politically skilled then they can handle organisational politics and develop fruitful relations with political actors than those with lack of ability on that

(non-political individuals). Therefore, it is hypothesised political skills self-efficacy to be positively related to **POPS** because in these situations organisational politics are viewed not as frustration but as an opportunity to fulfil their expectations at work and attain valued outcomes (i.e., support, liking, access to useful information). It is argued that POPS will rekindle their expectancies. Employees who have the confidence and self-belief to navigate perceived political environments (political games effectively) are more likely to increasing their PSSE thus clarifying expectancies. Specifically, when POPS are high and individuals having the perceived ability to get an accurate picture of what is needed to achieve desired gains in such environments then PSSE may be also be strengthen.

It is also expected that political skill self-efficacy will be related to **political skill.** As noted earlier in Chapter 4 political skill (Ferris, et al., 2005) is one interpersonal skill which refers to individuals' ability to influence and understand others at work in an effort to have substantial advantages. Thus, one would expect that experiences in exerting political skill in the past may influence one's perceived ability to exert politicking effectively (PSSE).

Another factor expected to associate with PSSE is **generalised self-efficacy.** Motivational theories (such as VIE theory) and the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) suggested that importance of beliefs, values and attitudes in shaping ultimately behavior. Employee's self-efficacy believes positioned as the main driver of human behaviors in a variety of task domains (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Then, individuals with high

self-efficacy are prone to feeling like they can successfully perform their tasks. Furthermore, given that a person's competence to understand its working environment and influence others with sincerity is based on possessors' implicit beliefs that have the knowledge of those acting within it. As such it is likely that those individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs will report also high levels of PSSE. Therefore, these beliefs should influence political efficacy beliefs and contribute positively to PSSE.

Based on these, I propose that political skill self-efficacy would also be positively related to employee's political skill and generalised self-efficacy. In summary, I establish a series of conditions to support the validity of the scale. As such

Measurement Hypothesis 1) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***POPS***

Measurement Hypothesis 2) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***generalised self-efficacy***

Measurement Hypothesis 3) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***political skill***

Similarly, I compare the PSSE scale with other scales measuring **self-esteem and locus of control.** Political skill self-efficacy, an individuals' perceived competence to respond to complex politicking working organisations through their social flexibility (and sincerity) so as to achieve

desired goals, is expected to correlate significantly with the self-esteem and internal locus of control.

It has been suggested that self-esteem is 'a trait referring to individuals' degree of liking or disliking for themselves' (Brockner, 1988, p. 11). Likewise, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) assesses whether respondents believe they are generally as good as most other people. In this landscape, scholars assert that self-esteem is a trait that helps explain individual differences in motivation, attitudes, learning, and task performance (e.g., Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Specifically, Brown (1998, p. 227) wrote that

'Ultimately, self-esteem is not a decision but a feeling based not on a dispassionate consideration of what one is but on feelings of affection for who one is'.

Based on the core self-evaluations scale (CSES) (Judge et al., 2002; Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen, 1993), the self-esteem and locus of control are parts of this taxonomy and traits that affect how people act and react in various settings. Research has found that individuals high on self-esteem feel good about themselves irrespective of their beliefs about their abilities and other characteristics (Brown, 1998). Hence, political skill-self efficacy as I elaborated above, describes individuals who tend to feel confident, conceive themselves as efficacious and believe that are able to develop strong networking ties with important others by inspiring humility, and trust to attain incentives when POPS exists. In this regard, I propose that self-esteem may also influence PSSE in ways that convey beliefs (i.e., judgements of

self-worth) that employees have what is taking to handle effectively the political behaviors at work.

Measurement Hypothesis 4) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***self-esteem***

Internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966) refers to people's beliefs that their actions are determinants of their personal experiences. Individuals with internal locus of control believe that their goals are achievable through their own efforts rather than outside factors such as luck, other circumstances (external locus of control, Lefcourt, 1991). The beliefs that they can achieve their goals through their efforts should enhance also their beliefs and confidence of their ability to enact mastery in exerting PSSE. Therefore, possessing an internal locus of control is expected to relate positively to PSSE.

Measurement Hypothesis 5) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***locus of control***

On the other hand, discriminant validity refers to 'the requirement that a test should not correlate too highly with measures that are supposed to differ' (Campbell 1960, p.548). Taking this principle into account, I explore whether political skill self-efficacy is unrelated to variables that presumably should have weak or non-significant correlations. The absence of any correlation between PSSE scale and other constructs will further substantiate the claim for discriminant validity.

I tested the relationship of political-skill self-efficacy construct with the **emotional stability**. Analytically, I focus on the investigation of the following: Whether the political skill self-efficacy scale exhibits weak correlations with the variable of emotional stability. Consistent with prior research (Judge & Ilies, 2002) emotional stability is the tendency to show poor emotional adjustment in the form of stress, anxiety, and depression. In subsequent work, scholars (Watson, 2000) often labelled Neuroticism by the trait of emotional stability. Those individuals found are less likely to be goal-oriented (Malouff, Schutte, Bauer, & Mantelli, 1990). Evidence reported that individuals low in emotional stability encounter more stressful life situations (Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Ormel & Wohlfarth, 1991).

An atmosphere perceived as highly political can be viewed as 'strong' (Mischel, 1977) and threatening situation where neurotic employees may avoid engaging in undesirable events such as related political behaviors. These patterns of stressful situations weaken individuals' beliefs in his/her capacities. Therefore, this suggestion further highlights that those who report high emotional stability tend to believe that are inadequate for supporting engagement into goals such as political 'games' and it is expected therefore that PSSE beliefs may be diminished.

On the contrary, political skill self-efficacy scale more specifically states the self-confidence and beliefs of one's capability flexibility as a person to engage effectively into political 'games' at work aiming at enhancing personal gains. It was suggested that the positive self-belief about one's competence may

are critical in shaping their behavior based on the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1991) and VIE theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964). Therefore, I propose that political skill self-efficacy will be related negatively to emotional stability.

*Measurement Hypothesis 6) **Emotional stability** will be negatively related to PSSE*

Criterion-Related Validity

One important feature of the validation of political skill self-efficacy scale was to explore how it may be useful in predicting important work-related outcomes such as procedural justice. Support for this relationship provides evidence of criterion-related validity of the PSSE scale.

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures that are used to determine outcomes and is closely associated with the structural features of decision making that facilitate employee voice, appropriateness of criteria, and the accuracy of information used to make decisions (Colquitt, 2001, p.391). Recent findings have showed that justice and organisational politics related but links between POPS and justice on work behaviors explain only a modest amount of variance in behavioural outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Fairness of different aspects of one's job (Cropanzano & Kacmar, 1995; Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009) also plays an important role in organisational politics. Political environments are associated with favouritism based decisions and powerful coalition building (Ferris et al., 2002) while

management is often likely to favor more subjective means of making employment decisions (Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). Accordingly, scholars noted that organisational justice and organisational politics convey information about employee's values about the fairness of different aspects of their job and future prospects in their working institution (Rosen, Harris & Kacmar, 2001).

Therefore, based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) it is expected that individuals who have high levels of PSSE to demonstrate positive reactions to their perceptions of fairness because they have higher expectations of how they should be treated and what they should gain. As such, employees armed with political skill self-efficacy tend to view themselves as self-confident, efficacious, flexible and positive that are skilled at reading others at work. For instance, it follows that if one feels that has the capabilities to play up effectively (with sincerity, humility and social flexibility) with various political games, is more likely to participate to these (political politics) as suggested by Bandura's (1991) social cognitive theory.

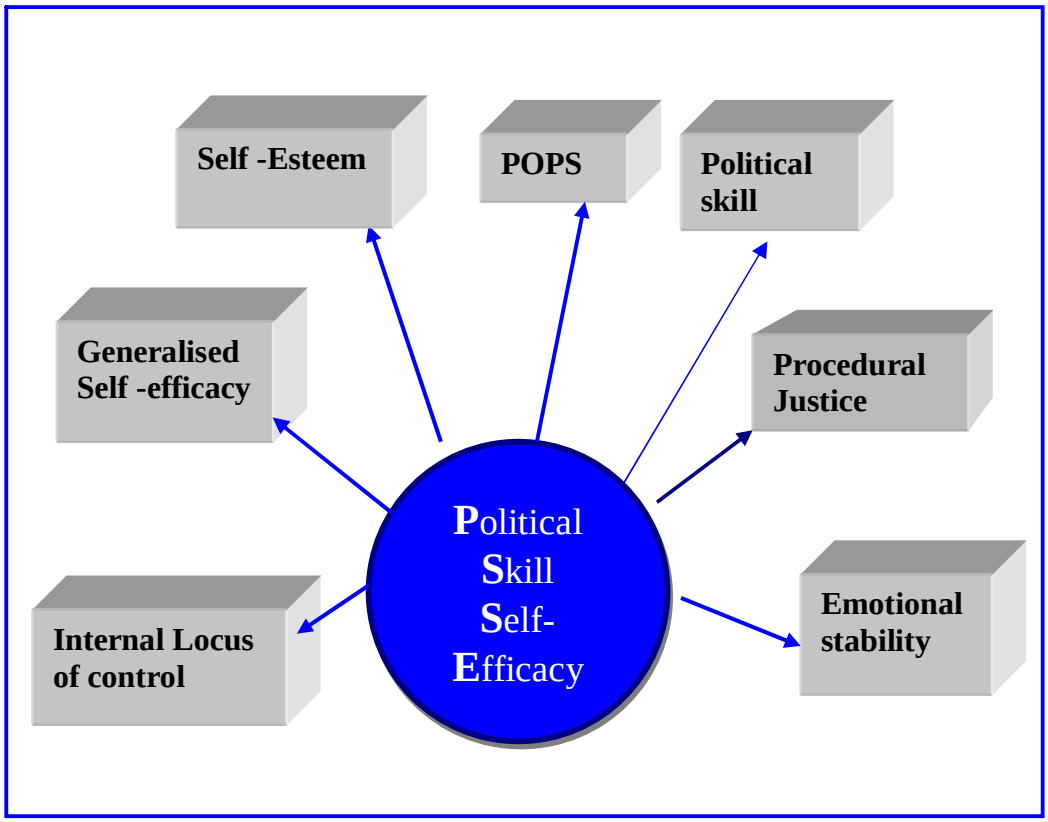
Furthermore, it was proposed above that PSSE is a skill used proactively by employees to obtain desired benefits in work environments inherently political. Accordingly, individuals highly in PSSE know of how to influence important others in the company to determine rewards. They do have also much access to information via coalition and friendship channels regarding how fair the procedures are when organisations make decision for their employees. These self-view and employees' exchange relationships with the organisation are likely

to affect their perceptions of the fairness of the rules and procedures that are used to determine outcomes in their jobs. The higher the PSSE is the more likely individuals are to influence procedures about decisions and less unfair perceive procedures and rules used to make decisions. Hence, the degree to which employees feel confident to deal with political, unjust and unfair situations, relates positively to their perceptions of procedural justice.

Measurement Hypothesis 7) Political skill self-efficacy will be positively related to ***procedural justice***

Figure 6 provides graphically the variables used as 'criteria' in the validation of PSSE scale.

FIGURE 6 *A Summary Of The Exploration Of PSSE Concept And Other Variables*



Once the factor structure of the scale is extracted, the next step was to examine the relationships among the factors. Thus, I assessed the Convergent, the discriminant validity as well as the criterion-related validity by conducting regression analysis in SPSS. In conclusion based on the above criteria the general purpose of these studies was to examine the psychometric properties as presented above for developing an inventory with strong construct validity scores.

Accordingly, following the guidelines suggested by Nunnally (1978) and Nunnally and Bemstein (1994), I explored the factor structure of the scale by having applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and an exploratory factor analysis in SPSS which included the 12-item scale.

Measures in PSSE Pilot study 1 and PSSE Study 2

The measurements for the variables on each of the surveys have been developed and tested previously by scholars and they possess good psychometric properties for their scores. All of the items were responded to on a 5-point Likert Scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

I measured *POPS* with 12-items scale as it was suggested by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). This scale has become the most accepted measure in POPS literature (Vigoda, 2010). It measures the degree to which respondents perceive their working environment as political and it is also known as *going along to get ahead subscale of POPS*. Example items include: 'People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down', and 'Favouritism than merit determines who gets ahead around here'.

Political skill is measured with 18-items political skill assessment inventory originally developed by Ferris et al., (2005). It demonstrates impressive evidence of construct and criterion-related validity (Blickle et al., in press; Ferris et al., 2008). Sample items include: 'I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others', and 'I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or to do to influence others'.

I measured *locus of control* with 8-items of Levenson's (1981) internal locus of control scale. Examples include: 'Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability' and 'my life is determined by my own actions.'

Self efficacy was assessed by using the 8-items generalized self-efficacy scale proposed and developed by Chen, Gully and Edeb (2001). Participants indicated their agreement or disagreement to this scale.

Emotional stability was measured with 8-items scale from BFI (IPIP personality test Lewis Goldberg at Oregon University). I focused on the Big Five because it has been a higher-order classification of the major dimensions of personality and it has been the centre of attraction for a number of scholars (Borman, 2004; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). Additionally, the widely known instrument for the assessment of neuroticism 12-items based on Eysenck and Eysenck's (1969) measure was used in Study 2.

Self-esteem was assessed with six items deriving from Rosenberg's (1965) original scale of self-esteem. Example items are: 'I feel that I have a number of good qualities' and 'I take a positive attitude toward myself.'

Procedural justice was assessed with 7-items of the original scale of justice by Leventhal (1980) and Thibaut & Walker (1975) as they appear in Colquitt's (2001) studies. Example items are: 'People involved in implementing decisions have had influence over the decisions arrived at by those procedures' or 'people have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures'.

I controlled various variables in the analysis because of the potential to confound the relations with variables examined in this study. Specifically, participants reported information about their age, gender, education, family-status, hierarchical level and work experience (in years).

Table 12 *Summary Of Internal Consistency Reliabilities For The Variables Included In pilot Study 1*

SCALE	Source	Number of items	Internal Consistency(a)
1. **POPS**	*Ferris, 1989*	**12**	**.578**
2. **SELF-ESTEEM**	*Rosenberg, 1965*	**10**	**.803**
3. **SELF-EFFICACY**	*Chen, 2003*	**8**	**.847**
4. **PROCEDURAL JUSTICE**	*Colquitt, 2001*	**7**	**.806**
5. **EMOTIONAL STABILITY**	*BFI, IPIP personality test Lewis Goldberg at Oregon University*	**18**	**.764**
6. **POLITICAL SKILL**		**18**	**.846**
7. **LOCUS OF CONTROL**	*Levenson (1981)*	**8**	**.600**
8. **PSSE**		**14**	**.872**

In conclusion, as Table 12 indicates the internal consistency reliability was above .70 which is very good according to scholars (Henson, 2001; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Peterson, 1994) with the exception of internal locus of control (>.52) and POPS (>.6). However, similar results were reported for this scale in other studies. The internal consistency for Political-skill self-efficacy was a=.872.

7.4 PSSE PILOT STUDY (1) In English

Pilot Study 1 collected quantitative data and explored the dimensionality and reliability of the political skill self-efficacy. This was the first pilot study in English language prior to conducting a full-blown validation study in Greek language.

Participants

Twenty-six participants for the pilot 1 included employees working in a British institution such as clerical staff, academics, customer services employees, marketing officers, and they all had more than 6 months work experience. The age of the participants ranges between 24-54 years with a mean age (M= 34.8 SD=8.01). From the sample 88.5% were males and 11.5% were females. Information for the participants' educational background was provided and it was reported that 34.6% had obtained postgraduate degrees, 26.9% held a Bachelor's degree, 15.4% a diploma, and 11.5% were A-level graduates (M=4.58, SD=1.47). The working years ranged from 3 to 11 (M=4.27, SD=4.20) where 30.8% declared 3 years working experience, 23.1% claimed one year experience, and 3.8% more than 5 years. Regarding their marital status, 46% were single, 42% married, and 11.5% divorced (M=1.96, SD=0.95).

Procedures

Participants were completed a paper-and-pencil survey during their working hours. The questionnaire included questions about POPS, political-

skill, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, locus of control, emotional stability, and political skill self-efficacy. All the measures in this survey were in English. Their participation was voluntary whilst the anonymous questionnaires were directly returned to the researcher within a week.

Analysis

To begin with, once the data have been collected, I repeatedly applied the Cronbach Alpha analysis included in this pilot for the measuring of internal consistency of the items scale. Reliability is the accuracy of a measuring instrument and is a necessary condition for validity (Kerlinger, 1986). Results are presented in the table 14 above. In addition, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated to assess initial support for the relationships among PSSE and the criterion variables.

Results

The internal reliability of the 14-item scale was *a*=.873 *(N=26, M=46.69, SD=8.01, a=.873)* and was assessed using the Cronbach alpha technique. Inspecting the table, the item-total correlation reveals that when two items, including PSSE 4, PSSE 5 are removed, then the overall Cronbach alpha for a new 12-item PSSE scale rises to *α=894 (M*=29.69 *SD*=6.46*)*. These results also reveal that all the items measured following the same concept, are well correlated and internal reliability is improved.

Correlations among study variables

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables are reported in Table 13. Pearson product moment correlations were calculated to assess initial support for the relationships among PSSE and the criteria variables. Table 15 expressing that Political skill self-efficacy was found to associate negatively with perceptions of politics *(r=-.534, p<01)* while it was reported to display a strong positive relationship with internal locus of control (*r=.544, p<01),* self-esteem *(r=.576, p<01),* self-efficacy *(r=.708, p<01),* political skill *(r=.729, p<01)* and procedural justice *(r=.485, p<01)*. No support was found for the relationship of PSSE with emotional stability. In this sample, contrary to expectations, PSSE found to have a negative correlation with POPS (*r*=-.401, p<.05).

These results indicated high correlations among POPS and political skill in this study. Based on this, there is good reason to believe that the PSSE is related empirically to political skill, but this does not necessarily leads to the conclusion that the PSSE measures the same concept as political skill. It is important to reiterate here that these associations converged to correlations among existing scales on self-report social effectiveness constructs. For example, Ferris et al. (1999), Perrewe et al. (2004), Ferris, Perrewe and Douglas (2002) argued that there is a natural overlap between political skill and other social effectiveness constructs (i.e., self-monitoring, social skill, emotional intelligence). Furthermore, they concluded that despite this overlap among the measures each has a unique quality.

Similarly, Liu, Liu and Wu (2010) reported that the new measure of need for power was related highly (from .73 to 74, $p<.01$) with the existing self-report motivational measure by Mayer, Faber, and Xu (2007). In previous research, for example, Ferris et al. (2005) reported a correlation of .78 between political skill scores measured using the six-item scale and the 18-item scale. Scholars concluded that although there was a noticeable conceptual similarity between these constructs, they were very different in terms of what they captured.

Therefore, in line with other studies and expressed in the development of political skill self-efficacy scale, the new measure of PSSE naturally relates to some other social competencies such as measures of self-esteem, and self-efficacy. However, compared to other similar studies it sufficiently differs from these constructs and might be argued to cover one or more domains of organisational politics.

Table 13 *Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among the Study Variables in the Pilot 1(N=26)*

Variable	M	SD	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*		
1. Gender	1.12	.326														
2. Age	34.81	8.02	-.21													
3. Education	4.57	1.47	.11	.14												
4. Maritual Status	1.96	.96	-.24	.14	-.24											
5. Working Yrs	4.27	4.21	-.05	.66**	.08	.21										
6. Political Skill	67.34	9.33	.03	.13	.07	-.19	.15									
7. Self-Efficacy	31.96	4.01	-.03	-.16	.06	.01	-.30	.45*								
8. PSSE	46.69	8.01	.04	-.11	.19	.04	.00	.72**	.71**							
9. Pr. Justice	21.69	4.55	-.19	-.23	-.08	.02	-.17	.38*	.54**	.56**						
10. POPS	35.52	5.21	.25	.24	.09	.04	.27	-.33	-.58**	-.55**	-.64**					
11. Locus of Control	27.31	3.39	-.11	-.23	-.09	.09	-.10	.29	.59**	.56**	.73**	-.49**				
12. Self-Esteem	39.73	5.90	.20	.06	.14	.17	.13	.19	.53**	.59**	.31	-.35*	.49**			
13. Emotional Stability	21.19	4.80	.34*	-.31	-.11	-.52**	-.08	.17	-.06	-.07	.05	-.06	.27	-.14		

Note. N = 26. PSSE=political-skill self-efficacy, POPS=perceptions of politics

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

7.5 PILOT STUDY in Greek Language

This pilot study collected quantitative data from employees in Hellas. The general scope of the pilot Study 2 was to examine the scales' internal reliability (coefficient alpha) of all the surveys I utilized for the main longitudinal research. Further, it gave me the opportunity to expand developments of new PSSE inventory by examining how they fit in the Greek language, and to explore how it is related with a set of criteria when used into genuinely organizational contents. Because PSSE was a newly developed measure and has never been used (and tested empirically) to the political context at work in Hellas, it is worthy exploring if it differs from the most-research appraisals in the organisational research. Additionally, I used this study to revise items and clarify ambiguous wording after the translation in Greek language.

A total of 31 individuals were participated in the survey, and all had extensive working experiences. More details about the procedures and Sample used in this Pilot study are described in Chapter 8. The 14-items of PSSE scale were translated in Greek and all items written to reflect the four dimension definitions emerged from the scale development. Following Brislin's (1980) translation–back translation procedure, English scales were first translated into Greek and afterwards the Greek versions translated back into English.

I also evaluated the wording, contents, (and face validities) of the items, based on which two items were dropped because demonstrated (problematic) awkward working as noted by participants such as a) *I have the ability by using*

verbal and non verbal expressions to create a favorable image in the eyes of my boss' and b) '*I am competent to control effectively job decisions (e.g., promotions) in this department'* were removed to increase conceptual clarity of the PSSE items.

I finally, retain those items with the high item-to-total correlations, (i.e., item-to-total correlations of .40 or greater; Nunnally, 1978, 1980) that provided the best representation of political skill self-efficacy construct. Analytically, seven item were retained for networking ability, two items for perceived ability to 'play up with political games', two items for coalition building, and three items for communication skills respectively. Therefore, these two items are not included in the final instrument for measuring PSSE and the resulting 12-item scale was used in Study 2. The item-total correlations for these 12 items was a=.873 which is highly acceptable for an attitude scale. Generally, the aim of this analysis was to ensure the construction of the PSSE scale (twelve–item) works as intended.

The next step was to examine the factor structure of the scale. Following the guidelines suggested by Nunnally (1978) and Nunnally and Bemstein (1994), I therefore, undertook two additional analyses aimed at uncovering the components of the scale. First, I included an exploratory factor analysis based on the sample of PSEE study 2. Second, using the sample of the main survey at time 2, I explored the factor structure of the scale by having applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the PSSE items.

7.6 PSSE STUDY 2

The aim of this study was to investigate further the construct validity of the PSSE scale by employing a larger sample. Also, the purpose was to assess the psychometric properties of the political skill self-efficacy after having translated all the items in the Greek language. PSSE Study 2 also examines how the results generalise to a sample of full-time employees.

Method and procedures

The survey took place in a large financial firm in Athens. As it was expected, during the current economic crisis it was considerably difficult to gain full access to corporate banking institutions in Hellas. I had a meeting with the contact person and an approach letter sent to the HR team in which I explained the purpose of the survey and ensured that their participation would be both voluntary and confidential. Ultimately, an endorsement letter was sent to the Vice president accompanied by a copy of the questionnaire. I visited the financial institution every day at 8.00am for two weeks and distributed the questionnaire. Participants completed the self-report questionnaires while on paid job release time and returned them directly to me.

Measures

Participants responded to questions regarding PSSE, POPS, Locus of control, Emotional Stability, Self-efficacy, Self–esteem and Procedural Justice. I used the same measurement scales as in Pilot Study 1. Because of the organisational concerns regarding survey length and due to the organisation's

information constraints regarding their employees' skills not political skill items could be retested.

7.7 Exploration of dimensionality- Exploratory factor analysis in Study 2

The factor structure of the PSSE scale was assessed in this sample via exploratory factor analysis. The 12-item scale of PSSE was subjected to principal component analysis using SPSS (Version 19). A factor extraction with orthogonal-rotation (Varimax) was done which included the 12 items. The interpretability of these results was examined in addition to the scree plot, and component matrices. The four-dimension solution demonstrated good fit.

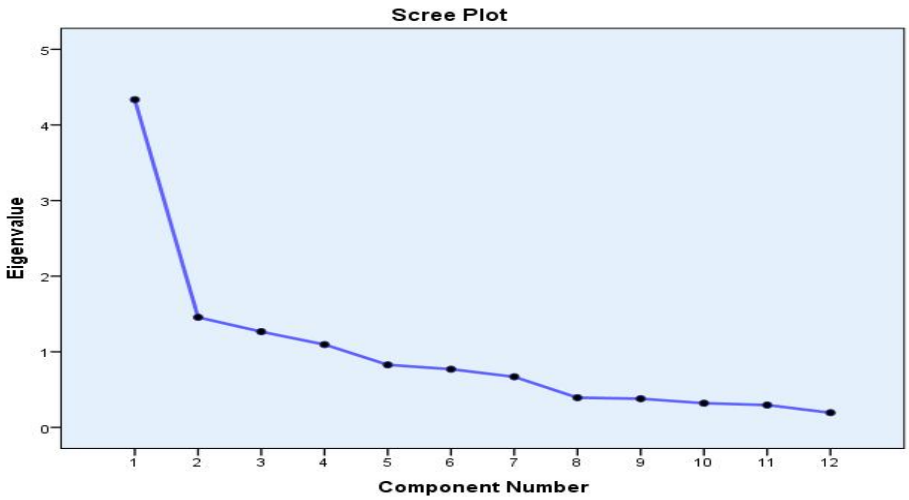
However, prior to performing Exploratory Component Analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed using SPSS Version 19. Determinant of the Correlation matrix was 0.1000 and multicollinearity was not a problem. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .778, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Barlett 1954) was x^2 (103) = 445.431, it reached statistical significant ($p<.001$) supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Therefore, for these data factor analysis was appropriate.

The factor Extraction analysis resulted in four factors (i.e., two clean factors and two closely related factors) and also showed that the four components with initial eigenvalues exceeding 1. Before the rotation, dimension 1 explained

36.2%, compared to 12.1%, 10.5% and 9.3% of the PSSE variance, respectively. Communalties after extraction were greater than 0.7 and the average communality was .68.

In the four factor solution, in general the items loaded where expected with no cross-loadings greater than .30. However, in more detail few items loaded strongly on the 'networking ability' than the 'coalition building dimension,' and 1 additional item had a cross-loading greater than .30 on the networking than the communication ability dimension. The results of this exploratory analysis can be found in **Table 14** below. The scree plot Fig. 7 shows a clear break after the second, fifth, seventh, and eighth component. In summary an (EFA) Factor analysis confirmed the four-factor structure of the 12-items PSSE scale.

Figure 7 *Scree Plot For PSSE Measure (N=103)*



Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

After specifying the PSSE items (and the hypothesized model of PSSE scale), the scale's data were submitted for confirmatory factor analysis using EQS 6. Confirmatory factor analysis was utilized in order to test the factor structure of the reported PSSE measure, and to determine the fit of this model into my data. More specifically, the 12-item scale was tested by submitting raw data (N=217) to EQS. The sample for conducting the CFA analysis (N=217) I chose, it was consisted of Hellenes employees who participated in the main survey at time 2 (N=114) and those who took part in the PSSE survey (N=103). Details about the sample involved in main research at time 2 are presented in methodology (Chapter 6).

Scholars (Kline, 1998) noted that Confirmatory factor analysis is a powerful tool for researchers to evaluate the dimensionality of psychological

scales. They also highlighted that CFA provides further evidence of the validity of hypotheses about a scale's internal structure (i.e., does the actual structure fit the structure implied by the theoretical basis of the intended construct).

Results

Firstly, I tested *Model 1* which is my basic and hypothesised (four-factor) model of PSSE and secondly I compared it with an alternative model, the *Model 2.* Specifically, on the *Model 1,* I loaded the 12 items on one of four specific factors I thought the item best (not necessarily only) reflected (i.e., communication items on a communication ability factor, networking ability oriented items on a networking factor, and so on). Hence, all the PSSE items loaded on their respective dimensions such as a) perceived ability to deal effectively with organisational politics (5-item), b) perceived networking ability (3-item), and c) communication skills (2-item), and d) perceived coalition building (2-item).

In the alternative *Model 2* (three-order factors of PSSE) model I fixed all the items with the theme of 'networking' and 'coalition building' items as one factor. The parcels of items of 'communication ability' (selected 3-items) and 'perceived ability to play up with political games' (3-items) treated as indicators of two distinct dimensions. Accordingly, these three distinct factors formed the three indicators of PSSE. It should be noted that these two factors ('networking' and 'coalition building') were highly correlated in the Factor analysis (greater than .81, and all cross loadings were less that -.32), suggesting a very good factor structure (Tabacbnick & Fidell, 2007). They capture individual's self-confidence that can successfully exert their influence efforts through networking ties when

working in political environments. These variables explained 68.7% of the variance.

Then, the next step was to evaluate the fit of the model using a variety of Fit-indices as recommended by scholars (Hooper, Coughlan & Muthen, 2008, for a review McDonald & Ho, 2002; Kline, 2005). I included the following: the comparative fit index (CFI), root-mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean- square residual (SRMR) the Normed fit index (NFI: Bentler and Bonnet, 1980), Goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI) and the Adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic (AGFI). Based on these authors' guidelines it was also reported the Chi-Squared test (x^2) along with its degrees of freedom and associated p-value (Kline, 2005; Hayduk et al., 2007).

Although it is well known that different indices reflect a different aspect of model fit (Crowley & Fan 1997) I chose the above Absolute Fit-indices because they provide the most fundamental indication of how well the proposed theory fits the data and demonstrate which proposed model has the most superior fit (McDonald and Ho, 2002; Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). As noted in the literature (Hooper, Coughlan & Muthen, 2008) these indices have been the most insensitive to sample size, model misspecification and parameter estimates.

To conclude that a model fits the data well scholars also suggested that RMSEA values should be less than 0.07 (Steiger, 2007), CFI should be close to .95, SRMR should be close to .08 (Hu & Bentler ,1999), GFI and AGFI values greater than .90 and NFI values close to .95 (Sharma et al, 2005; McDonald and

Marsh, 1990). Taking into account these suggestions I assessed the model proposed fit of my data.

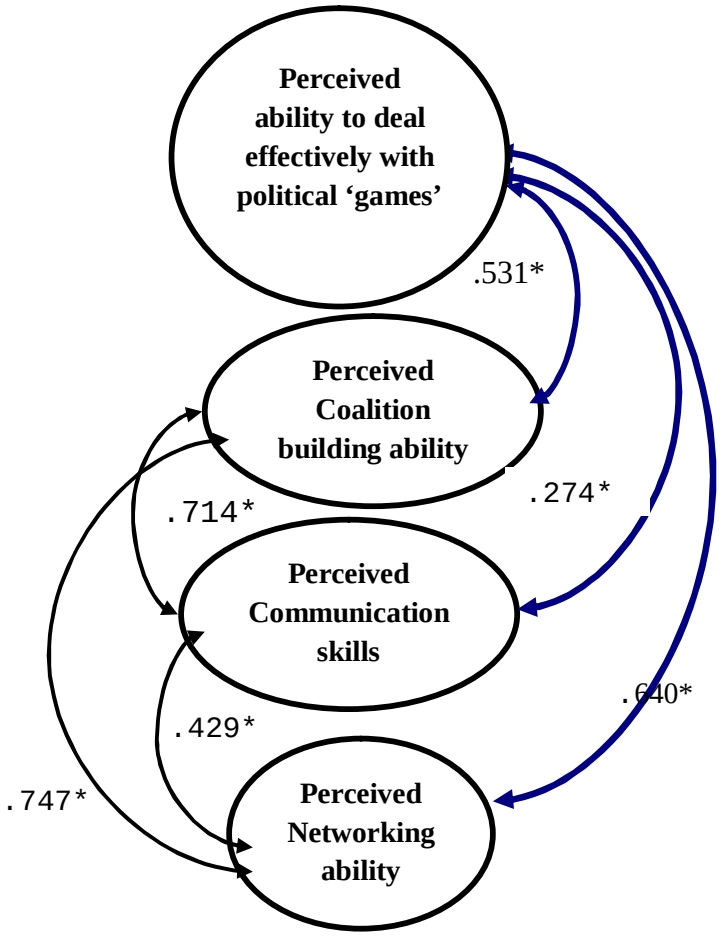
Analytically, **Table 15** contains the results of CFA analysis. For *Model 1* the Fit-indices indicated an acceptable comparative fit index (CFI)=.91; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)= 0.06; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA, 90% CI) = .091 (.070, .096); robust Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index (NNFI)=.866, Robust bollen fit index (IFI)=.912. Overall, these results indicated an acceptable fit of the model 1.

Examination of the univariate skewness and kurtosis statistics indicated that only two observed variable (PSSE11, PSSE12) were (negatively) skewed and leptokurtotic. More important, Mardia's coefficient for multivariate kurtosis was significantly above the 5.00 cutoff recommended by Bentler (2006). Maximum likelihood solution assumes that the distributions of the observed variables are multivariate normal distribution. These statistics indicate an acceptable fit for the four-factor model.

Upon concluding that this hypothesized measurement *Model 1* has an acceptable overall fit, I report parameter estimates such as the items' factor loadings, inter-factor associations, and error variances regarding the PSSE scale's factorial structure and psychometric properties. CFA Factor loadings for this model are listed in the **table 16** below. Further, all of the structure coefficients regarding the four dimensions of PSSE were significant at $p<.05$ as depicted in Figure 8.

As noted by scholars (Kline, 1998; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988) factor loadings reflect the degree to which each item is linked to a factor. By examining the key set of results-fit indices, and parameter estimates- CFA allows me to evaluate the degree to which measurement items being most consistent with participants' responses to the scale. As can be observed in **Table 16** most of the items loaded significantly on the latent constructs they were designed to measure.

FIGURE 8 ***Standardized Structural Coefficients For Four Dimensions Of PSSE*** *(Study 2)*



Note. N=217, all structural coefficients were significant at p<.05

Table 15 also includes fit statistics for the *Model 2*. Fit-indices indicated a poor fit index (CFI) = .853; standardized root mean square residual (SRMSR) =.108; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA, 90% CI) = .08 (.091, .125); χ^2 (*df*)= 180.290, (51), robust Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index (NNFI)=. 818, Robust bollen fit index (IFI)=.856. Maximum likelihood solution assumes that the distributions of the observed variables are multivariate normal distribution (robust test). Mardia's coefficient for multivariate kurtosis (5.06) was significantly greater than the 5.00 cut-off recommended by Bentler (2006).

Table 14 *Exploratory factor analysis: Four factor solution in PSSE Study 2* (N=103)

Items	***Per.Networking ability***	***Per. ability to deal with politics***	***Per.Coalition building ability***	***Per.Communication ability***
I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions in the bank	**.771**	.320		
I am confident –I know what to say and do –in using connections with a group of people in my job in the bank	**.763**	.188	.100	.214
I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this bank	**.734**	.263		
Compared to others my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	**.653**	.180	*.444*	.178
I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments	**.607**	-.239	*.523*	
I am confident I can behave and play up politically at work	.286	**.835**		
I am a political savvy employee who can deal effectively with politics at work	.306	**.819**	.178	
I am very good in creating a good impression at work		**.541**	.232	.444
I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	-.102	.253	**.720**	.103
I believe that I am a socially flexible worker	.383	.117	**.714**	
I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	.119		-.157	**.790**
I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people in this bank	.103		.397	**.736**
Eigenvalues %	36.2	12.1	10.5	9.2
% after extraction	29.94	16.97	14.85	12.15

Note: The highest factor loading for each item is in bold. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 15 *Model Fit For The Confirmatory Factor Analysis Of The PSSE Scale*

Model	x^2	x^2/df	*P Value*	*df*	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	NFI	AGFI
Model 1	138.823	2.89	0.000	48	.070	.091	.909	.904	.866	.853
Model 2	160.720	3.15	0.002	51	.079	.100	.876	.885	.830	.823

Note N = 217

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

Table 16 ***PSSE*** *Measurement Model with* ***Parameter Estimates reported by*** *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Items	Standardised factor loadings	R^2	Error
1. I am very good in creating a good impression at work	.369	.136	.930
2. I am a political savvy employee who can deal effectively with politics at work	.828*	.685	.561
3. I am confident I can behave and play up politically at work	.827*	.684	.562
4. I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	.499	.249	.867
5. I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people in this bank	.796	.634	.605
6. I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	.532*	.283	.847
7. I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions in the bank	.713	.508	.701
8. I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this bank	.711*	.505	.703
9. I am confident –I know what to say and do –in using connections with a group of people in my job in the bank	.774*	.599	.633
10. Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	.765*	.585	.644
11. I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environment	.616*	.379	.788
12. I believe that I am a socially flexible worker	.699*	.488	.715

Note.N=217; Initial measurement model; ***Covariance matrix variance among PSSE items***

Conclusions

Considering the fit indices for their main hypothesized measurement model 1 (4-factor) and for the alternative measurement model 2 (3-factor), this four-factor multi-dimensional measurement *Model 1* (i.e., networking ability, communication skills, perceived ability to deal with politics effectively, and coalition building ability) was the most strongly-supported model of PSSE scale in which items loaded on their respective dimension. Therefore, *Model* 1 is preferred given that is consistent with the theoretical framework developed here. Furthermore, this model fits well and confirmatory factor analysis supported this structure. The results lead me to suggest that all items load significantly on their hypothesized constructs and as scholars (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991) proposed the scale has demonstrated evidence of construct validity.

7.8 Convergent and Discriminant Validity-Results

The correlations among study variables reveal the extent to which the assumptions regarding convergent and discriminant validity were supported for the 12-items PSSE scale.

With regard to the convergent validity was hypothesized that PSSE would be negatively associated to POPS, and positively to Self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control. Pearson product moment correlations were calculated to assess initial support for the expected relationships. The results presented in Table 17 reveal that PSSE is related positive and significant to internal locus of control (r=.314, p<.001), generalized self-efficacy (r=.283, p<001), and self-esteem (r=. 215, p<.05), while is correlated non-significant to POPS (r=.121).

Furthermore, I tested the above assumptions (i.e., measurement hypotheses 1-7) using additional hierarchical regression analyses. I used them in order to examine the unique contribution of each criterion variable in predicting PSSE. After the control variables of age, gender, education, working years, and marital status were entered in the first regression step, then I entered self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control at step 2

Table 17 *Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among the Study Variables of Pilot Study (N=103)*

Variable	*Mean*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
1. Age	35.54	8.77											
2. Gender	1.65	.499	-.07										
3. Education	5.80	2.40	.04	-.04									
4. Marital status	.57	.69	-.44**	.07	.23**								
5. Working Yrs	7.60	7.08	.65**	.03	-.09	-.36**							
6. PSSE	41.08	6.90	-.22*	-.06	-.09	.04	-.04						
7. POPS	37.31	7.25	.09	.10	.12	-.04	.13	.12					
8. Locus of Control	29.09	3.66	-.07	-.15	-.14	-.18*	.05	.31**	-.01				
9. Self-esteem	40.28	5.61	-.16	.18*	.11	-.06	.03	.21*	-.09	.44**			
10. Self-Efficacy	33.24	4.56	-.13	.03	.02	.03	.04	.28**	.12	.42**	.53**		
11. Emotional Stability	22.73	6.52	-.03	-.06	-.02	.02	.02	.01	.16*	-.25**	-.45**	-.34**	
12. Procedural Justice	20.89	5.09	-.13	-.15	-.12	.13	-.23*	.21*	-.55**	.18*	-.01	-.09	-.01

*Note. N =103. * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.*

Table 18 *Regression results For Measurement Hypothesis 1 and 2*

Variable	*PSSE* *β*	*Variable*	*PSSE* *β*
Step 1		*Step 1*	
Age	-.43***	Age	-.22*
Gender	-.07	Gender	-.08
Marital Status	.01	Marital Status	.05
Education	.14	Education	.10
Working Yrs	.28*	Working Yrs	.13*
ΔR^2	.15*	ΔR^2	.15*
Step 2		*Step 2*	
Self-Efficacy	.22*	**POPS**	**.08**
Final R^2	.21*	Final R^2	.16
Adj.R^2	.16*	Adj.R^2	.09
ΔR^2	.06*	ΔR^2	.01
F	3.84**	*F*	2.02*

Note. N=103. Standardized regression coefficients are shown
p < .05** ; *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001

Table 18 provides the regression analysis results of measurement Hypothesis 1 and 2. As it illustrates self-efficacy has a significant positive contribution in predicting PSSE (β=.22, p<.05), ΔR^2=.06, p<.05. On the other hand, POPS did not significantly predict POPS (β=.08, *ns*). Therefore, these results revealed support for Measurement Hypothesis 1 but not for Measurement Hypothesis 2.

As presented in **Table 19** the self-esteem factor predicts positively PSSE (β=.22, p<.05) and explained significant incremental variance in PSSE (ΔR^2=.04, p<.05). Similarly, the results of the regression analysis in this table show that locus of control is a positive predictor of PSSE (β=.29, p<.01). It also explained more significant incremental variance in PSSE (ΔR^2=.08, p<.05). Again, the above provides support for measurement Hypothesis 4, and 5.These findings

suggest that PSSE is related to the criteria in nomological network (measures of self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control) and each of these measures separately contributed variance in PSSE.

Concerning discriminant validity, it was hypothesised that PSSE would be unrelated (or weakly related essentially) to emotional stability (Measurement Hypothesis 6). Finally, the regression results which are presented in **Table** 19 indicated that after controlling for the variance due to age, gender, education, the emotional stability was not a predictor of PSSE (β=.12, ns). This result provides no support for Measurement Hypothesis 6 satisfying the condition for discriminant validity.

Table 19 *Regression results of Measurement Hypothesis 4, 5 and 6*

Variable	*PSSE* *β*		*PSSE* *β*		*PSSE* *β*
Step 1		*Step 1*		*Step 1*	
Age	-.22*	Age	-.22*	Age	-.22*
Gender	-.08	Gender	-.08	Gender	-.08
Education	-.09	Education	.10	Education	.10
ΔR²	.06	*ΔR²*	.06	*ΔR²*	.04
Step 2		*Step 2*		*Step 2*	
Self-Esteem	.22*	**Locus of control**	.29**	**Emotional stability**	-.01
Final R²	.11*		.14**	Final R²	.06
Adj.R²	.06*		.10**	Adj.R²	.01
ΔR²	.04*	*ΔR²*	. 08**	*ΔR²*	.02
F	2.93*	*F*	4.10**	*F*	1.69

Note. N=103. Standardized regression coefficients are shown
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; $p < .001$ ***

7.9 Criterion-related validity

Table 20 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis, used for criterion-related validity testing in Study 2. It also includes the extent to which the assumption regarding the criterion-related validity was supported for the overall PSSE scale.

I tested the relationship among PSSE and procedural justice conducting a hierarchical regression analysis. After the control variables age, gender, education, working years, and marital status were entered in the first regression step, then I entered PSSE at step 2. The procedural justice used as the criterion variable. The results indicated that after controlling for the variables above PSSE was a significant predictor of procedural justice (β=.29, $p<.001$), and explained significant incremental variance in procedural justice ΔR^2 =.36, ($p<.001$), Therefore, in this sample these findings support measurement hypothesis 7, and demonstrated the criterion-related validity of the PSSE scale using procedural justice.

Table 20 *Results of Hierarchical Regression In Predicting Procedural Justice*

VARIABLE	**Procedural** **B**	**Justice** **SE**	**β**
Step 1			
Age	.05	.08	.09
Gender	-1.4	.99	-.14
Marital Status	.93	.74	.14
Education	-.34	.21	-.16
Working years	-.17	.09	-.24
ΔR^2			.11
Step 2			
Emotional Stability	.05	.07	.06
Self-Efficacy	-.10	.11	-.09
Locus of control	.29	.14	.21*
Self-Esteem	-.08	.10	-.08
POPS	-.39	.06	-.56***
PSSE	.19	.07	.26***
$\boldsymbol{\Delta R^2}$			.34***
Final R^2			.45***
Adj.R^2			.39***
Fchange			6.78**
Step 3			
PSSE	.17	.08	.22*
ΔR^2			.05*
Final R^2			.17*
Adj.R^2			.12*
Fchange			4.82**

Note. N = 102. Standardized regression coefficients are shown
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Examination of internal consistency

Analysis of internal consistency revealed that the Cronbach alpha for each scale were above the typical .70 cutoff (Nunnally, 1979). The overall alpha of the PSSE scale was .88. Table 21 shows the internal consistency and descriptive statistics across the three studies. Internal consistency reliabilities for the score estimates of the political skill self-efficacy were above. 80. Therefore, its validity coefficients were sufficiently large to warrant its use in research.

Table 21 *Summary of the Distributional properties and reliability estimates of the (PSSE) across the studies*

SCALE	SAMPLE	*MEAN*	*SD*	*INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY*	
PSSE	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	46.69	8.01	**.872**	N=26
	SAMPLE 2 Pilot	49.64	7.63	**.839**	N=31
	SAMPLE 3	41.09	6.90	**.835**	N=103
CRITERIA-Variable					
POPS	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	35.52	5.21	**.578**	N=26
	SAMPLE 2 Pilot	36.81	8.89	**.803**	N=31
	SAMPLE 3	36.69	7.76	**.844**	N=103
SELF- EFFICACY	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	31.96	4.02	**.862**	N=26
	SAMPLE 3	32.34	4.56	**.891**	N=103
LOCUS	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	27.31	3.39	**.521**	N=26
OF CONTROL	SAMPLE 3	29.01	3.63	**.600**	N=103
SELF - ESTEEM	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	39.73	5.90	**.862**	N=26
	SAMPLE 3	40.28	5.61	**.786**	N=103
EMOTIONAL	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	21.19	4.80	**.716**	N=26
STABILITY	SAMPLE 3	27.73	6.52	**.826**	N=103
PROCEDURAL	SAMPLE 1 Pilot	21.69	4.55	**.793**	N=26
JUSTICE	SAMPLE 3	20.89	5.09	**.830**	N=103

Note. Sample 1 is the first pilot for PSSE, Sample 2 is the pilot study of the main research, and Sample 3 is Study 2 for PSSE

Conclusions

In summary, I have established a series of necessary conditions to support the validity of the PSSE scale. Note, moreover, that the correlations among these variables are further evidence of convergent validity, discriminant and criterion-related validity.

The PSSE scale included four dimensions related to the individuals' political skill self-efficacy. Taking into account the definition of political skill self-efficacy, and the fact that individuals' who have the self-confidence to successfully handle organisational politics then effectively do so, interact with others, then I adapted the 12-item political skill self-efficacy for the main research. In all, I found that these 12-items corresponded to these four criteria. That is, the final scale must be true to my earlier definition of political skill self-efficacy. These items are depicted in **Table 22.** All items scored in 5-point Likert scale ranged from *1(=strongly disagree)* to (*5=strongly agree).*

Table 22 *The political skill self-efficacy Scale (PSSE)*

*<u>Instructions:</u> Using the following scale, please indicate your agreement and disagreement with the following statements about **YOUR SELF.** Please highlight only one answer for each question*

1.....2.....3.....4.....5				
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. *I am very good at creating good impression at work*
2. *I am very political savvy employee*
3. *I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department*
4. *I am confident I can play up politically at work*
5. *I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments*
6. *I am confident (I know what to say and do) in using connections with a group of people in my job when I really need to advance my position*
7. *I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this company*
8. *I believe I am good at developing ties with those people who are important in making economic and promotions decisions*
9. *Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good*
10. *I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty*
11. *I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people at work*
12. *I believe that I am an socially flexible worker*

Finally, the scale had to be short enough to be useful. I did not create a larger pool because, as Hinkin (1998) suggested, five to six items are sufficient for most constructs in organisational behaviour sciences.

CHAPTER 8-*ANALYSES AND RESULTS*

8.1 Pilot Study of the main longitudinal research

Prior to initiating the two waves (Time 1 and Time 2) research investigation, one pilot study was conducted. The purpose of this pilot was to insure reliability of the items included in the final questionnaires which I administered in my main research. It also helped me to calculate the time required for the completion of the questionnaire and to assess comprehension of all questions.

Therefore, the full-study examination commenced only after I had conducted the pilot and made numerous adjustments to the problematic items in the Hellenic version of the questionnaire. All items in this pilot (N=31) were anchored using a five-point Likert scale by *strongly disagree* (1) and *strongly agree* (5).

Participants

The participants for the pilot study were Hellenes employees working in a large financial institution in Hellas from various working backgrounds. These employees did not participate in the main survey. Paper and pencil survey was administered during their office hours and my instructions included information about the confidentiality of their responses, and what they should do in the case of uncompleted questions. I insured that their responses would remain anonymous, no third party would ever have access to them, and everyone was allowed to leave anytime during the survey. It took approximately 25 minutes to complete the questionnaire. To facilitate the completion, I visited the institution every day at 8.00am during the week. At the end of the study, participants were thanked and debriefed. The completed questionnaires had been returned directly to me.

Additionally, employees completed demographic variables regarding their age, gender, education, hierarchy level, number of children and marital status. Measures for this pilot study were the same as for the subsequent main research (previously presented in Chapter 6). The questionnaire form which was distributed to the employees of the financial institution is presented in **Appendix 4.** All variables were measured with self-reports, which is clearly the appropriate and most practical approach here for scales such as perceptions, trust, and withdrawal.

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics are shown in the Table 23 below. Thirty one participants volunteered for and ultimately participated in this pilot study (53% response rate). The demographics indicate that all participants were Hellenes, twelve-percent were (12.9%) male and eight-seven (87.1%) were females. Participants' age ranged from 24 to 46 years old (S.D = 6.5) and average job tenure was 5.7 years (S.D=6.4). Participants' highest level of education consisted of a Master's degree (Metaptichiako, 58%) and an undergraduate's degree (Ptychio, 35.5%). Participants' marital status ranged from single (74%), married (19.4%), and other (7%). Number of children for whom employees were responsible under the age of 18 varies from not any (74%), one child (12.9%) to two children (12.2%). Respondents held professional positions under temporary (71%) and permanent employment contracts (22.6%).

Table 23 *Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Reliabilities, and Correlations of Focal Variables in the Pilot of the Main Survey (N=31)*

VARIABLES	**M**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**
1. PSSE	49.65	7.36	(.84)										
2. AF.Commiment	26.61	5.31	.26	(.81)									
3. POPS	36.81	8.89	-.41*	-.45**	(.80)								
4. Innovativeness	46.23	6.22	.39*	.01	.19	(.73)							
5. OCB-O	19.80	2.86	.38*	.02	.12	.64**	(.58)						
6. OCB-I	31.38	4.12	.08	.07	-.05	.09	-.15	(.45)					
7. Political Behavior	71.58	9.29	.34*	-.15	.12	.44**	.19	.19	(.54)				
8. Turnover Intentions	7.97	5.38	-.05	-.41 *	.13	.07	-.12	-.15	.04	(.53)			
9. Org.Cynicim	38.86	3.37	.17	.32*	-.21	.01	.15	-.01	.06	-.15	(.64)		
10. Interper.Trust	47.39	1.27	.01	.11	.21	-.11	-.02	-.11	.18	.01	.19	-.04	(.10)
11. Organis.Trust	2.87	2.54	.33*	.41*	-.17	-.04	-.09	.06	-.07	-38*	.06	35*	(-.23)

Note: *N=31,* ** p<01, *p<001, Cronbach (*a)* are reported on the parenthesis

Internal reliabilities of the scales in the pilot

I applied the basic repeated Cronbach's alpha tests to ensure the internal reliabilities of the measurement scales and I used SPSS Version 19. Only those items which retained high item-to-total correlations of .40 or greater (Nunnally, 1978; 1980) remained in the scales. I also made minor changes to some of the items, for example by replacing 'organisation' with 'company'. I used 'company' (bank) in the questionnaire because in Hellas, this terminology is more common than 'organisation'.

However, a weak internal reliability a=.235, (*M*=21.32, *SD*=3.22) was reported for the measurement of the **seven items** scale of **organizational trust (trust in organisation)** originally developed by Schoorman and Ballinger (2006).[18] Further inspection of the results suggested that four items measured **organisational trust** should be eliminated because they produced a low score in reliabilities and negative correlation with the test as a whole after translating them in Greek language. For example, the following items of organizational trust were, thus, removed. '*I feel comfortable being creative because my supervisor understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work', 'It is important for me to keep an eye on my supervisor', 'Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my supervisor would be a mistake', 'If my supervisor asked why a problem*

[18] Source: Mayer, R.C., & Davis, J.H. (1999) Journal of Management, 84, 123-136; Mayer, R.C, .& Gavin, M,.B. (2005), Academy of Management Journal, 48, 874-888; Schoorman, F.D., Mayer, R.C., & Davis, J.H. (2007), Academy of Management Journal, 32, 2, 344–354..

occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame'. I have finally selected only those items of **organisational trust** scale **(total three)** with the higher internal reliability scores that essentially captured employees' trust in their bank in general and demonstrated a good fit into Hellenic context.

Similarly, the measure of **interpersonal trust (trust to a specific co-worker or co-workers)** assessed by McAllister's (1995) scale yielded poor Cronbach's alpha scores in this sample (a=.191). Further inspection on the Cronbach's alpha result indicated that the removal of **three** items of **interpersonal trust** would increase its internal reliability.

Given the importance of translation process at this stage, however, any item was likely to have affected by translating into Greek language which was the language spoken by the respondents. Nevertheless, the important thing was to ensure that the measures of interpersonal trust captured the same construct in Greek and (the previously published trust scales) in English. To ensure also that all trust items were relevant to the population under investigation, I discussed some of the selecting (problematic) items with an academic and two representatives from the participating financial divisions and made adjustments based on their comments. They indicated that three items did not reflect sufficiently the specific meaning of **interpersonal trust (trust to a specific co-worker or co-workers)** in Greek language. Hence, any discrepancy which emerged in wording has been corrected and any differences between the English and Greek version have been resolved.

Thus, I removed **the item** of affect-based interpersonal trust: '*we would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together'*. I also removed the **two** items of cognitive-based interpersonal trust '*Given this person tract record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job*' and '*If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor him/her performance more closely*'. The overall reliability of the six-item measure of **interpersonal trust** was a=.829, (*M*= 17.58, *SD*=2.49).

To sum up, these items explained above (regarding the organisational and interpersonal trust scale) were removed because they did not contribute to the overall reliability of the scale and finally may be attributable to possible ambiguities concerning the concept of trust in the banking context in Hellas. In other words these items did not appear to either have relevance to banking sector or capture exactly the meaning of 'trust' constructs they were intended to do.

The Innovation-related behavior scale (IRB)

Because the meaning of creativity varies in different cultures and domains (e.g., Niu & Sternberg, 2002), I developed ten innovativeness-related items for jobs in the financial institutions in Hellas. I followed several steps in order to construct this scale (i.e., Hinkin, 1995; 1998). Overall I took the following actions. Firstly, I conducted a literature review in the relevant field which provided evidence for the importance of innovation in various organizational settings. Drawing upon previously theoretical work (Parker et al., 2006) and developed scales (Scott, & Bruce, 1994), I identified and developed a measure

called the innovativeness-related behaviour scale (IRB). The items were translated in Greek language and were written to fit within Hellenic context.

Afterwards, the items were thoroughly reviewing and one pilot study (N=31) was conducted to further refine the scale and to check its internal reliability (see pilot of the main survey for details). Secondly, I undertook an additional analysis to evaluate the components of the IRB scale. I utilised the sample of the main research at Time 1 (N=215) to conduct an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. It is this investigation which provides the basis of the dimensionality of my scale. Accordingly, the development of the scale is presented in full details below.

Summary of the construction of the scale

In fact, most researchers in the area of innovation acknowledged (Kanter, 1988; Pieterse, et al., 2010; Yan and Woodman, 2010; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Shalley, 1995; West, Hirst, Richter, & Shipton, 2004; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993) its significant impact on the organizational effectiveness. In addition, innovation has been found to be a critical element to the growth and competitiveness of organizations (e.g., Roth & Sneader, 2006; Tellis, Prabhu, & Chandy, 2009). Beyond the evidence concerning the influence of POPS on employee performance (Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007), there may also be an impact of POPS on individual innovation. To date, despite appeals for such research (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011) there remains little understanding of how POPS is associated with the degree to which employees

spread and implement innovative ideas at work. However, this stream of research has been generally neglected in the organizational politics with only few investigations conducted regarding the association between the political skill and other core forms of innovative behaviors such as proactive behavior at work (Liu et al., 2007). To fill that void in the literature, I created a scale (namely innovativeness related behaviour) and tested it within a model of antecedents and consequences of POPS. These results in the main study contribute to the research on POPS by exploring the role of innovation in the complex politically charged workplace. Understanding to individual's specific innovativeness behaviour will be a competitive advantage in supporting employees.

I began by revisiting theories about innovations' definition and investigating previous studies that examined innovation more directly (see for review Anderson, De Dreu, and Nijstad, 2004). Equally, scholars recognized that innovation refers to the successful implementation of novel and useful ideas by the organization (Amabile, 1996:230). For example, it encompasses problem recognition, generation of ideas or solutions, building support for ideas, and its implementation (cf. Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). In particular, the literature suggests that central to the definition of innovation lays the theme of the creativity. In contrast to innovation, creativity can be regarded as the quality of products or responses judged to be creative by appropriate observers, as well as the process by which something is judged to be creative (Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993).

Next, I grounded on the earlier work of Bruce and Scott (1994), and Van de Ven[19], (1986: 591), and I defined innovation-related behavior as the degree to which employees generate, spread and implement ideas in their working institutions (banking sector). In line with this definition, and previous conceptualizations of innovation (i.e., Ng, Feldman, Lam, 2010; Yuan & Woodman, 2010), the construct of innovativeness related behavior falls into three categories: (a) **Active support for innovativeness,** for example implement new ways and ideas regarding decisions about pay, promotions, selling (b) **Employee problem solving perceptions** such as actively seeking generation of new solutions in the problems in the bank, seeking support and original strategy to resolve problems, and (c) **Processing information for implementing new ideas** (Scott and Bruce's, 1994). Thus, on the basis of these, the innovativeness related behaviour (IRM) is a construct where is comprised of three dimensions as depicted in Table 24. I focus here on these theoretical aspects of innovation-related behavior, because innovation improves organizational productivity (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004; Baer & Frese, 2003; de Jong & de Ruyter, 2004) and creativity is important in a wide variety of jobs and organisations (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000).

The **14-item** to measure innovativeness behavior (IRB) was written after a review in the literature (at the early stages of scale development) while consultation with four academics and doctoral holders were provided. They both independently read and reviewed the items I composed. These individuals all had

[19]'*Development and implementation of new ideas by people who over time engage with others within an institutional context"*

extensive training and applied experiences in industrial and organisational psychology. Their feedback was used to clarify ambiguous wording. After receiving their feedback, I judged their opinions and, two problematic items were removed therefore, I sorted them in **12-items.** This IRB scale involves one item such as *'I am an innovator'* from the Innovation Questionnaire, one of the most widely used measures of Innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994).

In addition, I conducted employees in a large financial institution in Hellas (they were participants in pilot study **as presented above**) and asked them to recall some of their past duties where they had to perform innovatively within banks such as: generating and sharing new ideas with colleagues (such as saving money and cutting costs), or ameliorating customer service. These items are an indicator of the degree to which individuals are innovative in the organizational context and how often they are likely to participate in these activities at the bank.

Table 24 *Dimensions And Items Of The Innovativeness Related Behavior (IRB) Scale*

Dimensions	***Items***
[1] Active support for innovativeness	1. Adapting novel solutions for conventional problems in the job 2. Being an innovator
[2] Employee Problem solving perceptions (*Seeking generation of new ideas in the problems)*	3. Does not hesitate to challenge against the status quo of the bank (regarding traditional procedures and approaches in pay and promotions) 4. In this bank the best way to get ahead is to think the same way the rest of the employees do 5. At work s/he trying to solve the same problems in different ways 6. Knowing how to be flexible and adaptable to the changes in the bank 7. He/she is open and responsive to changes provided by the department 8. Not searching out new working methods and techniques into the problems in the bank ®
[3] Processing information for implementing *new ideas*	9. Spending lot of time at work to develop plans for implementing new ideas 10. Pursuing creative ideas and promoting those ideas to their colleagues 11. Does not stick in what others do during workday® 12. Applying new strategies into their job

The pilot study in Hellas (more details are presented above) provides the basis for the pilot in this scale (IRB). Specifically, I collected 31 self-reported answers ranging from *1* (never) to *5* (always) containing my own innovativeness measure (IRB) **(12-item scale**). Examination of internal consistency was utilised by applied repeated Cronbach's alpha tests. The inspection of the internal reliabilities (N=31) results suggested that the removal of **two items** of my measurement increases the internal reliability of the innovativeness scale.

Examples include *'Does not stick in what others do during workday'* and *'Knowing how to be flexible and adaptable to the changes'*. These items were deleted from the subsequent analysis due to awkward meaning, as noted by participants. Cronbach's Alphas for 10-item was *a*=.816 (M=32.19 SD=5.73) which is above the typical .70 cut-off (Nunnally, 1979).

As in PSSE study in Chapter 7, the **10-item scale** was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS (version 19) with oblique rotation (oblimin). I utilised the sample of the main study at Time 1 (N=215) to conduct this (details about this sample are presented in the next section). The determinant of the correlation matrix was bigger that 0.00001 and multicollinearity was not a problem. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO=.897 and most of the KMO variables x^2 (215) =883.885, (*df*=45), p<.001. Results of principal component analysis produced two clean factors **with eigenvalues greater than one (Kaiser's criterion),** accounting for 59 per cent of total variance.

A summary of the results are presented below in **Table 25.** As shown, the items among dimensions had been highly correlated and loaded cleanly on two factors. The six items loaded strongly on the first factor which captures the main topic of this subject *'active support for innovation'* and may be seen as the 'basic' innovativeness related behaviors of the bank. The other factor had high loadings from the items (four items) relate to those activities requiring *'processing information for implementing new ideas'* about key work tasks in the bank. Those items related to activities such as responding to changes provided by the department, and searching new working methods into the bank service (i.e., customer service, selling).

Thus, it appears that my study sample perceive '*Seeking generation of new ideas in the problems*' and '*processing information for implementing new ideas'* as a single factor, whilst the support for innovativeness is seen as a distinct factor. The concept of '*Employee problem solving perceptions'* is therefore likely to be meaningful for such employees.

The scree plot in Figure 9 showed inflexions would justify retaining both 2 components.

FIGURE 9*The* *scree plot of the innovativeness scale in the study (N=215)*

Table 25 *Summary Of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results For The Innovativeness Related Scale In The Main Study (N=215)*

Activity	*Factor 1 Active support for innovativeness*	*Factor 2 Processing information for implementation (new ideas)*
1. Spending lot of time at work to develop plans for implementing new ideas	**.81**	
2. Pursuing creative ideas and promoting those ideas to their colleagues into the bank	**.85**	
3. Applying new strategies into their daily job	**.81**	
4. Being an innovator	**.83**	
5. At work s/he trying to solve the same problems in different ways than others do in this bank		**.65**
6. Does not hesitate to challenge against the status quo of the organisation (regarding traditional procedures and approaches in pay and promotions)		**.61**
7. In this bank the best way to get ahead is to think the same way the rest of the employees do®		**.80**
8. Adapting novel solutions for conventional problems in the bank	**.71**	
9. Not searching out new working methods and techniques®		**.64**
10. He/she is open and responsive to changes provided by the department in this bank	**.56**	
Eigenvalues	4.76	1.20
% of variance	46.73	11.89

Note: N =215. *Factor loadings over .40 appear in bold and factor loading <.30 are omitted.*
The factor analysis was conducted using maximum-likelihood extraction and oblique rotation

Table 26 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis: The Components Of Innovativeness Related Behaviour Scale (IRB)*

Model	CHI SQUARE	CHI SQUARE /d.f	p. value	d.f	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	NFI	AGFI
Independence	875.381	19.45		45						
Model 1	61.198	1.79	.002	34	.052	.062	.967	.940	.930	.903

Note. N=215. GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root- mean- square error of approximation.

Confirmatory factor analysis

Table 26 contains the results of the confirmatory factor analyses (N=210) for the innovativeness items. I estimated a two-factor model with the *'Employee problem solving perceptions'* (2-item) and '*processing information for implementing new ideas'* (2-item) loading on one factor and active support for innovation (6-item) on another. This model was my basic hypothesized model of innovativeness and provided a good fit, for example, with a goodness-of-fit-index (GFI) above .90, and a root mean-square error of approximation (RMSA) below.08, and having a significant change in chi-square values.

Analytically, fit indeces indicated a good fit index (CFI) = .940; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) =.052; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA, 90% CI) = .06 (.036, .086); χ^2 (*df*)= 180.290, (34), robust Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI)=. 818, Lisrel AGFI fit index (AGFI)=.903. Maximum likelihood solution assumes that the distributions of the observed variables are multivariate normal distribution (robust test). Mardia's coefficient for multivariate kurtosis (10.33) was significantly greater than the 5.00 cut-off recommended by Bentler (2006). Then, the resulting 10-item scale was used in the main study.

Conclusions

It may be important to note that might had testing known psychometric properties (e.g., convergent and discriminant validity) of the IRB scale using a larger sample however, this is not contingent on my research design. After making some adjustments in the IRB questions the final longitudinal investigation commenced. In summary, this pilot as well as the studies described

in Chapter 7 provide sufficient evidence to proceed to the full study using PSSE scale when account for employee's political skill self-efficacy, and IRB when assess individual's innovativeness-related behaviour. The statistical analysis and results will be presented in the next section.

Descriptive Statistics of the main study

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables of the examination are shown in Table 27. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the focal variables are presented in this table.

Table 27 *Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study Time 1 & Time 2*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Mean	*38.08*	*1.49*	*.44*	*3.88*	*.76*	*12.35*	*1.74*	*36.78*	*6.88*	*25.25*	*17.03*	*26.18*	*17.88*	*25.75*
Standard deviation	*10.92*	*.500*	*.612*	*1.72*	*1.03*	*9.12*	*1.22*	*8.61*	*3.46*	*7.12*	*4.31*	*4.54*	*3.89*	*4.89*
Correlation														
1. Age														
2. Gender	-.18**													
3. Family	-.26**	.10												
4. Education	-.23**	.05	.13*											
5. Children	.13*	.12*	-.29**	-.03										
6. Working Yrs	.68**	-.18**	-.30**	-.33**	.04									
7. Hierarchy	.02	-.16**	-.08	-.04	.06	.19**								
8. POPS (T1)	.06	.05	.10	.09	.00	.00	-.11							
9. Turn. Int. (T2)	-.14	.02	.19**	.28**	-.09	-.17*	.05	.23*						
10. OCBI (T1)	.03	.02	.02	.05	-.16**	-.10	-.04	-.11	.05					
11. OCBO (T1)	.01	.03	.12*	.19**	-.10	-.06	.04	-.14*	.02	.58**				
12. OCBI (T2)	-.03	-.12	-.08	-.04	-.16*	-.04	.04	-.04	-.09	.11	.16*			
13. OCBO (T2)	-.05	-.09	-.03	.21*	-.08	-.11	-.07	-.14	.13	.01	.24**	.54**		
14. Extraversion (T1)	.09	.02	-.00	-.19**	.09	.04	.12*	-.22**	-.22*	.08	.12*	.01	.02	
N	236	236	236	236	236	236	236	236	113	210	210	113	113	236

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Mean	17.88	25.75	31.44	20.68	32.96	34.19	36.66	11.65	30.55	33.38	41.61	8.62	26.44	32.03	23.08	58.24
Standard deviation	3.89	4.89	4.18	3.19	5.32	4.38	6.77	2.48	5.59	8.21	7.96	2.17	5.14	6.33	4.57	9.16
Correlation																
13. OCBO (T2)																
14. Extraversion (T1)	.02															
15. Openess (T1)	.06	.40**														
16. Neuroticism (T1)	-.04	-.26**	-.22**													
17. Agreeablen. (T1)	-.00	-.10	.08	-.31**												
18. Conscient.(T1)	.07	.17**	.43**	-.00	.43**											
19. Org.Cynicism T1	-.03	-.21**	-.12*	.27**	-.15*	-.01										
20. S.Desiraability	.13	.08	.25**	-.33**	.48**	.41**	-.12*									
21. IRB (T1)	.03	.03	.12*	-.12*	-.12*	.00	-.03	-.02								
22. POPS (T2)	-.16*	-.05	.04	.22*	-.03	.09	.44**	.00	-.10							
23. PSSE (T2)	.14	.21*	.19*	-.03	-.17*	-.14	.07	-.13*	-.05	-.14						
24. Org.Trust (T2)	.08	.32**	-.06	-.25**	-.06	-.11	-.22*	-.17*	.17*	-.28**	.35**					
25. A.Commit.(T2)	.28**	.22*	.09	-.18*	.11	.08	-.26**	-.04	.05	-.47**	.17*	.29**				
26. IRB (T2)	.64**	.02	-.01	-.09	-.01	-.06	-.14	-.06	.20*	-.12	.17*	.16*	.18*			
27. Int.Trust (T2)	.09	.00	.08	-.01	.18*	-.02	.16	.13	-.16	-.03	.23**	.11	.19*	-.06		
28. P.I.Behavior (T2)	.09	.21*	.05	-.01	-.09	.13	.17*	-.18*	.01	.15	.45**	.37**	.07	.12	24**	
N	113	236	236	236	236	236	236	234	210	112	113	113	113	113	113	113

TABLE continues

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Correlation													
15. Openess (T1)	.14*	.02	.05	.04	.15*	-.00	-.05	-.01	-.15	.14*	.24**	-.12	.06
16. Neuroticism (T1)	-.02	.09	.05	.15*	.00	-.00	.01	.27**	.24**	-.08	-.13*	.00	-.04
17. Agreeablen. (T1)	.07	.06	-.16**	.10	.08	-.09	-.09	-.11*	-.06	.14*	.11	-.00	-.06
18. Conscient.(T1)	.16**	.05	-.02	.08	.14*	.04	-.08	.04	-.08	.16*	.12*	-.05	.07
19. Org.Cynicism T1	.07	.13*	.06	.05	-.04	.02	-.13*	.57**	.25**	.01	-.02	-.11	-.03
20. S.Desiraability	.03	.10	-.09	.19**	.15*	-.06	-.16**	-.12*	.10	.19**	.16**	-.01	.13
21. IRB (T1)	-.03	-.04	.11	.07	-.13*	-.07	.09	-.20**	.12	.50**	.54**	.04	.03
22. POPS (T2)	.22*	-.10	.07	.05	.11	.10	.03	.57**	.27**	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.16*
23. PSSE (T2)	.09	-.12	.02	-.08	-.05	.10	.08	-.11	-.01	-.02	-.06	-.08	.14
24. Org.Trust (T2)	-.05	-.18*	.06	-.01	-.21*	-.06	.15	-.24**	-.16*	.08	.09	.11	.08
25. A.Commit.(T2)	-.03	-.04	.05	-.05	-.10	-.06	-.01	-.30**	-.38**	.13	.19**	.27**	.28**
26. IRB (T2)	-.12	-.12	.11	.12	-.18*	-.12	.12	-.20*	.06	.08	.21*	.53**	.64**
27. Int.Trust (T2)	.08	-.08	-.01	.04	.03	.03	-.02	.07	-.01	-.11	-.04	.06	.09
28. P.I.Behavior (T2)	.09	-.14	.10	-.15	.03	.16	.17*	.08	.06	.09	.10	.09	.09

Note. N=241 (T1) and N=215 dyad matching valid (26 missing ,T1), N=114 dyad matching valid (T2)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

8. 3 HYPOTHESES TESTING

Regression Analysis (Hierarchical) was used to test the hypothesized relationships among POPS (T1), Personality (T1), Organisational Cynicism (T1), Political influence behavior (T2), Trust (T2), PSSE (T2), Turnover intentions (T2), Affective commitment (T2), and supervisor ratings of employee performance namely OCB-I (T2), OCB-O (T2), Innovativeness (T2). My data stemmed from two waves of surveys allowed me to test hypotheses with the dependent variables have been measured later in time (T2) than the independent variables. Thus, the dependent variables at time 2 (T2) were predicted by the independent variables at time 1 (t-1 time) as is recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983; see also Tekleab, Takeuchi, and Taylor [2005]).

Hypothesis 1a-e suggests that personality traits predict POPS (T1). Specifically, I hypothesised that Extraversion (1a), Agreeableness (1b), Openness to experiences (1c), Conscientiousness (1d), and Neuroticism (1e) predict POPS (T1). In the first block I entered the demographics and in the second the personality traits. Social desirability was utilized as an additional control. Personality traits were entered in the second step all as one variables while POPS was treated as a criterion variable.

The regression results in **Table 28** indicate that extraversion (β=-.23, $p<.001$) was significantly negatively predicted POPS (T1) and neuroticism (β=.18, $p<05$) significantly positively predicted POPS (T1). However, results revealed that *agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience* (β=-.13, ns; β=.08, ns, and β=.07, ns, respectively) were not significant predictors of POPS.

Furthermore, the results demonstrated that *extraversion* has a significant negative effect on POPS (β=-.23, p<.001). However, these results did not support Hypothesis 1a. Analytically, for the first model the demographics accounts for 4.1% (Δ^2=.04) of POPS and desirability was significant at the .05 (β=-.18). F-ratio for this model was 1.20, p<.05. However, when personality traits included as well in the model, this value increases and has explained 10% of the POPS (Δ^2= .10, p<.001) whereas the F-ratio in the final model is F=3.02, p<.001. Hence, Hypothesis 1e was supported while Hypothesis 1a, Hypothesis 1b, Hypothesis 1c, and Hypothesis 1d found no support.

Table 28 *Results for Hypothesis 1a-e*

Variables (T1)	*POPS (T1)* *B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1			
Age	.08	.08	.08
Gender	-.24	1.21	-.01
Family status	1.79	1.05	.12
Education	.44	.38	.08
Children	.86	.58	.10
Working years	.06	.10	.06
Hierarchy level	-.80	.52	-.12
Desirability	-.67	.25	-.18**
ΔR²			.04*
F			1.20*
Step 2			
Extraversion	-.41	.13	-.23***
Openness	.14	.16	.08
Neuroticism	.48	.20	.18**
Conscientiousness	.16	.16	.08
Agreeableness	-.21	.13	-.13
R^2			**.14****
Adj. R^2			**.09****
ΔR²			.10***
F			3.02**

Note: N=236 *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 2a predicts that POPS (T1) is associated with employees' turnover intentions within organisation. The regression results displayed in **Table 29** show that the relationship was significant and positive (β=.25, p<.01) indicating that POPS (T1) was associated with turnover intentions (T2). The change in explained variance was also significant ΔR^2 =.06, (p<.01), and *F*-ratio (8,102) =2.65 (p<.001). This result provides support for Hypothesis 2a.

Hypothesis 2b, Hypothesis 2c, and Hypothesis 2d which refer to the relationship of POPS (T1) and Organisational Citizenship Behavior (namely OCB-I, OCB-O) at T2, POPS (T1) and innovativeness (T2) were examined by employing multiple regressions. I treated each evaluation as an independent observation. Results in **Table 30** reveal that POPS (T1) has not a significant effect on OCB-I (β=.05, *ns* at Time 2). Analytically, in the last model F-ratio (9, 96) =2.58 (p<.05), ΔR^2 =.03 (ns). In addition, the relationship among POPS (T1) and OCB-O (T2) was not significant (β=-.09, *ns).* POPS did not predict significant variance in OCB-O (ΔR^2 =.01, ns), F (8, 96) =2.72, (p<.05). Contrary to expectations, the proposed relationships 2b, 2c, 2d were not supported.

Similarly, the regression results in **Table 30** indicate that POPS (T1) does not have a significant relationship with innovativeness (β=-.10, *ns),* when POPS entered in the regression model, did not explain incremental variance in innovativeness ΔR^2 =.01, ns. In the last model, F (8, 96) =3.75 (p<.001). Therefore, POPS (T1) does not contribute to supervisor's ratings of employee OCB-O (T2), OCB-I (T2), and innovativeness (T2). These findings provide no support for Hypothesis 2b, Hypothesis 2d, and Hypothesis 2c.

Table 29 *Regression Results of Hypothesis 2a & 2e*

	TURNOVER INTENTIONS (T2)			*AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (T2)*		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
STEP 1						
Age	-.02	.03	-.08	-.00	.04	-.01
Gender	.01	.67	.02	.00	1.0	.00
Family status	.80	.52	.15	.29	.79	.04
Education	.42	.18	.22*	-.28	.28	-.10
Hierarchy	.16	.27	.06	-.15	.41	-.04
ΔR^2			.09			.01
F			1.76			.24
STEP 2						
POPS (T1)	.09	.03	.25**	-.19	.05	-.38***
R^2			.17**			.12**
Adj. R^2			.11**			.05**
ΔR^2			.06**			.09***
F			2.65**			2.81**

Note. N=105 Standardized regression coefficients are shown.
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Hypothesis 2e predicts that POPS (T1) is associated with affective commitment. The regression results displayed in **Table 29** illustrate that POPS (T1) appear to have a significant negative relationship with affective commitment (T2) (β=-.38, p<001). The change in explained variance was also significant ΔR^2 =.09, (p<.001), and *F*-ratio (8,102) =2.81 (p<.001). Variance inflation factor (VIF) scores for each variable included in the regression analysis was 1.0 below 2 suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem in this analysis. This provides strong support for Hypothesis 2e, showing that POPS is significantly and negatively related to affective commitment (T2).

Table 30 *Regression results of Hypotheses 2b-d*

	OCB-O (T2)			**OCB-I (T2)**			**Innovativeness (T2)**		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1									
Age	-.03	.05	-.09	-.02	.06	-.05	-.04	.10	-.05
Gender	-.34	.92	-.04**	-2.38	.87	-.28**	-4.32	1.20	-.35***
Family Status	-.40	.69	-.07*	-1.26	.58	.22*	1.48	.80	.18
Education	.28	.26	.13**	-.25	.31	-.09	.65	.38	.17*
Working Years	-.01	.07	-.03	.03	.08	.01	-.02	.104	-.02
Hierarchy	.01	.34	.01	.04	.40	.12	.45	.46	.03
ΔR²			.18**			.18**			.24***
F			2.97*			2.94*			4.27***
Step 2									
POPS (T1)	-.04	.04	-.09	.02	.05	.05	-.07	.06	-.10
R²			.17			.18			.22
Adj. R²			.12			.12			.16
ΔR²			.01			.03			.01
F			2.72*			2.58*			3.75**

Note. N= 105

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

The regression results in **Table 31** demonstrate that POPS (T1) was a significant predictor of organisational cynicism (β=.56, p<.001*).* As a whole, POPS (T1) related positively and significantly to organizational cynicism and the change in explained variance was also significant ΔR^2 =.29, (p<.05), and F (9,229) =17.16 (p<.001). Variance inflation factor (VIF) scores for each variable included in the regression analysis and organisational cynicism were (1.05) below 2, suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem in the analysis. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Table 31 *Regression Results Of Hypothesis 3*

	Cynicism (T1)		
	B	*SE*	*β*
Step 1			
Age	.09	.06	.14
Gender	1.7	.91	.14*
Family status	.60	.76	.06
Education	.15	.30	.04
Working Years	.01	.08	-.11
Hierarchy	-.74	.37	-.02*
Desirability	-.45	.18	-.16*
ΔR^2			.08*
Step 2			
POPS (T1)	.43	.04	.56***
R^2			.35***
Adj. R^2			.33***
ΔR^2			.29***
F			17.16***

Note: N=238 .Standardized regression coefficients are shown.
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Hypothesis 4a-c suggests that organisational cynicism (T1) is associated with supervisors' ratings of OCB-O (4a), OCB-I (4b), and innovativeness (4c) as were measured at Time 2 (T2). The regression results in **Table 32** illustrate that organisational cynicism does not appear to have the expected relationship with OCB-I (β=.07, *ns*), OCB-O (β=-.04, *ns*), and Innovativeness (β=-.06, *ns*). As can be seen in Block 2 when organisational cynicism entered the change in explained incremental variance was not significant for OCB-I (ΔR^2 =.01, ns, and F(9,203)=1.76, p<.05), OCB-O (ΔR^2 =.00, ns, and F(9,203)=2.12, p<.05), innovativeness (ΔR^2 =.01, ns, and F(9,203)=.73, ns). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a-c found no support.

Hypothesis 6a predicts that POPS (T1) would be associated with organisational trust (T2) and Hypothesis 6b states that POPS (T1) is associated with interpersonal trust (T2). The regression results displayed in **Table 33** illustrate that POPS (T1) has a significant relationship with organizational trust (β=-.23, p<.05) and explained significant variance in organisational trust (ΔR^2 =.05, p<.05 and F(7,104)=1.78, p<.05), but it does not have with interpersonal trust (β=-.07, ns). Similarly, in Block 2 when POPS entered ΔR^2 was not significant (ΔR^2 =.04, *ns*, F(8,103)=1.02, *ns*). Therefore, Hypothesis 6a was supported but Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Table 32 *Regression Results of Hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 4c*

	OCB-I			**OCB-O**			**IRB**		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1									
Age	.16	.07	.24*	.05	.04	.11	.04	.06	.07
Gender	.09	.99	.01	.06	.62	.01	-.59	.80	-.05
Family Status	.16	.84	.01	.94	.51	.13	.92	.67	.10
Education	-.31	.32	-.08	.36	.18	.15*	.08	.26	.03
Working Years	.23	.08	-.30**	-.03	.05	-.07	-.07	.07	-.12
Hierarchy	.14	.39	.03	.25	.24	.07	.39	.31	.09
Desirability	.50	.20	.18*	.29	.12	.17*	.04	.16	.02
ΔR^2			.07*			.08*			.03
Step 2									
Or.Cynicism (T1)	.02	.07	.02	-.01	.04	-.05	-.01	-.06	.02
R^2			.06			.08			.03
Adj. R^2			.02			.05			-.01
ΔR^2			.01			.00			.01
F			1.76*			2.12*			.73

Note. N=208. Standardized regression coefficients are shown.
*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 33 *Regression results of Hypothesis 6a-6b*

	Organisational trust (T2)			*Interpersonal trust (T2)*		
	B	SE	β	B	*SE*	*β*
STEP 1						
Age	.01	.03	.04	.07	.06	.16
Gender	-.78	.44	-.15	.17	.89	.02
Education	.06	.35	.02	.01	.56	.01
Familystatus	.08	.12	.07	.48	.27	.18
Working Years	-.01	.03	-.05	-.26	.47	-.06
Hierarchy	.24	.18	.14	.07	.06	.16
ΔR^2			.07			.08
F			1.10			.23
STEP 2						
POPS (T1)	-.05	.02	-.23*	-.03	.05	-.07
R^2			.10*			.02
Adj. R^2			.05*			-04
ΔR^2			.05*			.01
F			1.78*			1.02

Note. N=110

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

Hypothesis 7a, 7b, and 7c predicts that **organisational trust** is associated with supervisor's ratings of OCB-I (7a), OCB-O (7b), and Innovativeness (7c), respectively. The regression results depicted in **Table 34** illustrate that organisational trust does not appear to have a significant relationship with OCB-I (β=.04, *ns*), OCB-O (β=.03, *n*s) and innovativeness related behavior (β=.07, *ns*). These results indicated that employees' organizational trust did not contribute significantly to the ways in which employees offer help to their organisation when such help is not required (OCB-O), or help others (OCB-I) and being innovative at work (IRB). In other words individuals' organizational trust had not a significant effect on supervisor's ratings of their employees OCB-I, OCB-O, and innovativeness. Therefore this provided no support for Hypothesis 7a, 7b and 7c.

Consistent with this, **Table 35** depicts regression results for the Hypothesis 8a, 8b, and 8c. These results illustrate that **interpersonal trust** (T2) was not a significant predictor of supervisor's ratings of OCB-I (β=.07, ns), OCB-O (β=.10, ns) and Innovativeness (β=-.08, *ns*). As shown in this **Table 35** interpersonal trust does not predict significant variance in OCB-I (ΔR^2 =.00, *ns* and F(8,103)=2.95, p<.05), OCB-O, (ΔR^2 =.01, *ns* and F(8,103)=2.43, p<.05) and Innovativeness (ΔR^2 =.01, ns, and F(8,103)=3.76,p<.01), respectively. Therefore, these findings provide no support for Hypothesis 8a, 8b, and 8c.

Table 34 *Regression results of Hypothesis 7a-c*

	OCB-I (T2)			***OCB-O (T2)***			***IRB (T2)***		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1									
Age	-.03	.05	-.08	-.02	.04	-.06	-.01	.07	-.02
Gender	-2.32	.78	-.27**	-1.75	.69	-.24**	-3.66	1.10	-.29
Family status	1.27	.51	.23*	1.06	.44	.22	1.54	.71	.19**
Education	.16	.25	.06	.31	.22	.14	.63	.35	.16*
Working Years	.02	.06	.04	.04	.05	.09	-.03	.08	-.05
Hierarchy	.29	.31	.09	-.13	.27	-.05	.47	.43	.10
ΔR²			.15**			.13*			.19**
Step 2									
Organisational trust (T2)	.08	.19	.04	.05	.17	.03	.19	.27	.07
R²			.15			.13			.19
Adj. R²			.09			.07			.14
ΔR²			.00			.00			.01
F			2.70*			2.19*			3.69**

Note. N=113
*p<.05. **p<.001, ***p<.001

Table 35 ***Regression results of Hypothesis 8a-c***

	OCB-I (T2)			**OCB-O** (T2)			**IRB** (T2)		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Step 1									
Age	-.02	.05	-.06	-.02	.04	-.05	-.01	.07	-.01
Gender	-2.10	.77	-.28**	-1.59	.68	-.22*	-3.45	1.09	-.28**
Family status	1.33	.49	.19**	1.11	.44	.24	1.59	.71	.20
Education	.19	.24	.07	.42	.23	.18*	.66	.35	.17*
Working Yrs	.00	.06	.01	.03	.05	.07	-.05	.08	-.07
Hierarchy	.27	.30	.08	-.14	.27	-.05	.45	.43	.09
ΔR^2			.16**			.13*			.19**
Step 2									
Interpersonal trust (T2)	.07	.09	.07	.06	.08	.10	-.13	.12	-.08
R^2			.16			.14			.19
Adj. R^2			.10			.08			.15
ΔR^2			.00			.01			.01
F			2.95*			2.43*			3.76**

Note. N=113

*p<.05; **p<.001; ***p<.001

Table 36 *Regression results of Hypothesis 9 and Hypothesis 11*

	TURNOVER INTENTIONS (T2)			***AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (T2)***		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1						
Age	-.02	.04	-.05	-.04	.06	-.09
Gender	.38	.62	.06	-1.43	.90	-.16
Family status	.16	.40	.04	-.22	.59	-.04
Education	.67	.20	.32**	-.27	.29	-.09
Hierarchy	-.01	.05	-.02	.35	.35	.10
ΔR^2			.14**			.06
Step 2						
Organisational trust (T2)	-.31	.15	-.19*	.64	.23	.27**
R^2			.18*			.11**
Adj. R^2			.13*			.05**
ΔR^2			.03*			.08**
F			2.99**			2.18*

Note. $N = 113$
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 9 predicts that organisational trust is associated with turnover intentions, and Hypothesis 10 predicts that interpersonal trust is associated with **turnover intentions**. The regression results displayed in **Table 36 and Table 37** show that there is a negative significant relationship between organisational trust (β=-.19, p<.05) and turnover intentions. Additionally, organisational trust did explain significant incremental variance in turnover intentions (ΔR^2 =.03, *p<.05*, and F=2.99, *p<.01*); similarly, for interpersonal trust the results were ΔR^2 =.05, (*ns)*, and F=2.34, *p<.05*. Interpersonal trust as predictors did not demonstrate a significant association with turnover intentions (β=-.07, *ns*). This provides support for Hypothesis 9 but no support for Hypothesis 10.

Table 37 *Regression results of interpersonal trust Hypothesis 10, and Hypothesis 12*

	TURNOVER INTENTIONS (T2)			***AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (T2)***		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1						
Age	-.02	.04	-.05	-.04	.05	-.08
Gender	.38	.62	.06	-1.54	.89	-.17
Family status	.16	.40	.04	-.27	.59	-.05
Education	.67	.20	.32**	-.14	.29	-.05
Hierarchy	-.01	.05	-.02	.37	.35	.11
Working Years	.03	.06	.01	-.06	.08	-.12
ΔR^2			.14**			.05
Step 2						
Interpersonal trust (T2)	-.05	.07	-.07	. 28	.11	. 25*
R^2			.16			.09*
Adj. R^2			.09			.04*
ΔR^2			.01			.06*
F			2.34*			2.48*

Note. N = 112
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 11 proposes that organisational trust will be associated positively with affective commitment and Hypothesis 12 predicts that interpersonal trust will be associated positively with affective commitment. The regression results displayed in **Table 36 and 37** illustrate that both organisational and interpersonal trust were significantly associated to affective commitment (β=.27, *p<.01* and, β=.25, *p<.05*, respectively). The regression results indicated that Organisational trust (ΔR^2 =.08, *p<.01,* and F=2.18, p<.01) and interpersonal trust (ΔR^2 =.06, *p<.051* and F=2.48, p<.05) did explain significant incremental variance in affective commitment. Hence, Hypothesis 11 and Hypothesis 12 found support in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis 14 states that POPS is associated with political influence behavior in workplace. The regression results displayed in **Table 38** demonstate that POPS does not appear to have the expected significant relationship with political influence behaviour (β=-.11, *ns).* Further inspection in table indicates that in Step 2 the overall model did not predicted incremental variance in political influence behavior (ΔR^2 =.01, *ns*, and F(8,103) =2.72, *ns*). Therefore, no support found for Hypothesis 14.

Hypothesis 15 further postulates that the political behaviour is associated with affective commitment. The regression results depicted in **Table 39** illustrate that political influence behaviour did not contribute significantly in the prediction of affective commitment (β=.16, *ns).* Similarly, results in Table 39 displayed that overall model (included political influence behaviour, and controls) did not predict incremental variance in affective commitment (ΔR^2 =.01, *ns,* and F(8,103) =1.38, *ns*). Accordingly, this finding reveals that the political influence behaviour was no

significantly related to affective commitment and therefore, Hypothesis 15 was not supported.

Table 38 *Regression results of Hypothesis 14*

	Political Behavior		
	B	**SE**	**β**
Step 1			
Age	.06	.11	.08
Gender	-2.67	1.74	-.15
Family status	1.53	1.46	.11
Education	-.19	.58	-.03
Children	.02	.13	.00
Working years	-.00	.71	-.00
Hierarchcy level	.06	.11	.08
ΔR^2			.04
Step 2			
POPS (T1)	.10	.09	-.11
ΔR^2			.01
Final R^2			.22
Adj. R^2			.05
Fchange			2.72

Note. N=111, * $p < .05$;** $p < .01$; ***p<.001

Hypothesis 16 contended that Political influence behaviour (T2) would associate with turnover intentions (T2). The regression results depicted in **Table 39** indicate that political influence behavior had not a significant effect on turnover intentions (β=.09, *ns*). Further findings revealed that in step 2, political influence behaviour did not explain significantly incremental variance in turnover intentions (ΔR^2 =.01, *ns,* and F(8,103) =2.84, *p<.05).* Hence, these results provide no support for Hypothesis 16.

Hypothesis 17a, 17b, and 17c posited that political influence behaviour (T2) is associated with OCB-I (T2), OCB-O (T2), and Innovativeness (T2), respectively. The regression results in **Table 40** displayed that political influence behaviour does not have a significant relationship with OCB-I (β=.06, *ns*), OCB-O (β=.06, *ns*), and Innovativeness (β=.09, *ns*). Neither the overall model nor the main effect variable (political influence behaviour) predicted significant variance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, ns, $\Delta R^2 = .00$. and $\Delta R^2 = .01$, respectively) thereby, providing no support for Hypothesis 17a, 17b, and 17c.

Table 39 *Regression Analysis Results of Hypothesis 15, and 16*

		TURNOVER INTENTIONS (T2)			***AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (T2)***	
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
STEP 1						
Age	-.05	.05	-.15	.07	.06	.15
Gender	.67	.62	.10	-1.68	.85	-.19*
Family status	.48	.41	.11	-.44	.57	-.08
Education	.70	.21	.34**	-.25	.28	-.09
Hierarchy	-.16	.24	-.06	.30	.33	.09
Working years	.04	.05	.10	-.15	.07	-.31
ΔR²			.13**			.08
STEP 2						
Political behaviour (T2)	.04	.04	.09	.02	.05	.04
Final R²			.13			.08
Adj. R²			.07			.00
ΔR²			.01			.01
F			2.84*			1.38

N = 111; * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01, ***p<.001

Table 40 *Regression Analysis Results of Hypothesis 17a-c*

	OCB-I (T2)			**OCB-O** (T2)			**IRB** (T2)		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Step 1									
Age	.01	.06	.02	.01	.05	.01	.07	.08	.12
Gender	-2.16	.79	-.25**	-1.73	.69	-.24*	-3.66	1.12	-.29**
Family status	1.27	.53	.23*	.95	.46	.20*	1.35	.74	.17*
Education	.16	.26	.06	.41	.23	.18	.607	.37	.16*
Working Yrs	.25	.31	.08	-.11	.27	-.04	.43	.43	.09
Hierarchy	-.03	.07	-.06	.01	.06	.03	-.12	.09	-.18
ΔR^2			.16*			.14*			.21**
Step 2									
Political behaviour (T2)	.03	.05	.06	.03	.04	.06	.06	.07	.09
Final R^2			.14			.11			.15
Adj. R^2			.08			.05			.09
ΔR^2			.01			.00			.01
F			2.42*			2.34*			3.96*

N = 110; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 19 suggested that POPS (T1) would be associated with Political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) at time 2. The regression results in **Table 41** show that the relationship was not significant, indicating that POPS (T1) was not associated with individual's political skill self-efficacy (PSSE). In step 1, the model did not predict a significant change in variance (ΔR^2=.09) and in Step2 POPS also did not significantly predict Political skill self-efficacy (β=-.12, ΔR^2=.01, ns) and F in the last model F=1.42, *ns.* Thus, this result provides no support for Hypothesis 19.

Table 41 *Regression Results of Hypothesis 19*

	PSSE (T2)		
	B	*SE*	*β*
Step 1			
Age	.17	.10	.25
Gender	-1.73	1.42	-.12
Family status	1.70	.96	.18
Education	.08	.48	.02
Hierarchy	-.01	.12	-.02
Working years	-.37	.56	-.07
ΔR^2			.09
Step 2			
POPS (T1)	-.09	.08	-.12
Final R^2			.08
Adj. R^2			.02
ΔR^2			.01
F			1.42

N = 111; * p < .05. ** p < .01, ***p<.001

Hypothesis 20 posited that Political skill self-efficacy (T2) is associated with employees' turnover intentions (T2). The regression results displayed in **Table 42** illustrate that PSSE does not appear to have the expected relationship with turnover intentions (β=-.01, *n*s). Education was the only main effect variable that was statistically significant (β=.34, p<.001). Within the second Step the model overall did not predict incremental variance in PSSE (ΔR^2=.00, ns), and F (8,102)=2.69, *p<.05,* thus, providing no support for Hypothesis 20.

Hypothesis 21 suggests that PSSE (T2) is associated with affective commitment (T2). The variables entered in Step 1, and Step 2 did not indicate a significant relationship with affective commitment, and the change in explained variance (ΔR^2) was not significant (ΔR^2=.02, *ns*). This shows clearly that PSSE does not contribute significantly in the prediction of affective commitment. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 21.

Table 42 *Regression Results of Hypothesis 20 and 21*

	TURNOVER INTENTIONS (T2)			*AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (T2)*		
	B	*SE*	*β*	*B*	*SE*	*β*
STEP 1						
Age	-.05	.04	-.15	.07	.06	.15
Gender	.66	.62	.10	-1.68	.85	-.19
Family status	.48	.41	.11	-.44	.57	-.08
Education	.70	.21	.34***	-.25	.28	-.09
Hierarchy	-.16	.24	-.06	.30	.33	.09
Working Years	.04	.05	.10	-.15	.07	-.31*
ΔR^2			.16***			.08
STEP 2						
PSSE (T1)	-.03	.04	-.01	.09	.06	.16
Final R^2			.13			.05
Adj. R^2			.08			.00
ΔR^2			.00			.02
F			2.69*			1.78

N = 111; * p < .05, ** p < .01, ***p<.001

Mediation analysis

Hypotheses 5a-c, 13a-g, and 18a-b were tested by conducting the following a three-step regression analysis as suggested by Baron & Kenny (1986). Analytically, I used hierarchical moderated multiple regression analyses (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) and firstly entered the controls variables. In Step (1) I ran a regression to examine whether the predictor variable had a significant effect on mediator (path a). In Step (2) the mediator was regressed on outcomes variable (e.g., OCB-I, OCB-O, Innovativeness behavior) (path b), and in step (3) I test whether the effects on the dependent variable (e.g. OCB-I, OCB-O, Innovativeness behavior) remained significant when both the predictor and mediator entered simultaneously (path c`). In all the regressions I included the same controls variables. Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) procedures full mediation is only possible if the step 1 and step 2 regression models yielded significant results for the predictors. Analytically, the results are presented below.

Hypothesis 5a-c

Hypothesis 5a-c predicts how the effects of POPS (T1) on OCB-O (5a) OCB-I (5b), and innovativeness (5c) may be mediated by organisational cynicism. The results in Table 43 and 44 revealed that: (1) POPS had a significant effect on organizational cynicism (β=.56, p<.001), F=19.66, (p<.001) satisfying the first condition for mediation (Baron & Kenny 1986) (2) Organizational cynicism had not a significant effect on OCB-I (β=-.11, *ns*, *ΔR^2=.01 ns)*, OCB-O (β=-.04, *ns*, *ΔR^2=.08, ns)* and Innovativenees (β=-.01, *ns*, *ΔR^2=.02)*. The findings reported here did not support the second condition for mediation and (3) when both POPS and

organizational cynicism entered in the main regressions then the effects of POPS on OCB-O, OCB-I and innovativeness (β=-.19, *ns*, β=.04, *ns* and β =-.19, *ns* respectively) remained non-significant (path c) after controlling for the effects of organisational cynicism on OCB-I, OCB-O and innovativeness. Therefore, the first part of the analysis was supported providing support for condition 1 (path a) but the second (path b) and third part of the analysis was not supported suggesting no support for condition 2 (path b). These results suggest that Organisational cynicism does not play a role of mediator in this case. Hence, Hypothesis 5a-c was not supported.

Table 43 *Regression Results For Mediation Of Hypothesis 5a-b*

	OCB-O (T2)	***CYNICISM (T1)***	***OCB-O (T2)***	***OCB-I (T2)***	***CYNICICM (T1)***	***OCB-I (T2)***
	β		*β*	*β*		*β*
Step 1						
Age	-.02	.05	-.02	-.05	.05	-.03
Gender	-.26**	.11	-.12	-.12	.11	-.11
Family status	.23*	-.00	-.03	-.09	-.00	-.09
Education	.19	.01	.24	.05	.01	.06
Hierarchy	-.03	-.06	-.06	.02	-.06	.03
POPS (T1)	-.07			-.02		
ΔR²	.18**			.03		
Step 2						
POPS (T1)		.56***			.56***	
Final R²		.34***			.34***	
Adj. R²		.32***			.32***	
ΔR²		.29***			.29***	
Step 3						
CYNICISM (T1)			.10			-.11
POPS (T1)			-.19			.04
Final R²			.18			.18
Adj. R²			.12			.11
ΔR²			.02			.01
F			1.52			.48
N	105	233	105		105	105

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

Table 44 *Regression Results For Mediation Of Hypothesis 5c*

	IRB (T2)	**CYNICISM** (T1)	**IRB** (T2)
	β		β
Step 1			
Age	-.05	.05	-.03
Gender	-.11	.11	-.08
Family status	.09	-.00	.07
Education	.18	.01	.22*
Hierarchy	.09	-.06	.11
POPS (T1)	-.18		
ΔR^2	.11		
Step 2			
POPS (T1)		.56***	
Final R^2		.34***	
Adj. R^2		.32***	
ΔR^2		.29***	
Step 3			
Org.CYNICISM (T1)			-.01
POPS (T1)			-.19
Final R^2			.09
Adj. R^2			.03
ΔR^2			.02
F			1.64
N	105	233	105

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

Hypothesis 13a-c

Hypothesis 13a-c predicts that trust in organisation will mediate the relationship between POPS-OCB-I (13a), POPS-OCB-O (13b), POPS-Innovativeness (13c), POPS-turnover intentions (13d), and POPS-affective commitment (13e). I first regressed POPS (T1) on trust in organisation (T2) along with the control variables. The results in **Table 45** indicate that after the demographic variables were controlled organizational trust was significantly and negatively predicted by POPS (T1) (β=-.23. $p<.05$). Thus, the first part of the analysis was supported. In the second step, the regression results suggest that neither the effects of organizational trust on OCB-O (β=-.03, *ns*), OCB-I (β=.04 ,*ns*), and innovativeness (β=.04 *ns*) were significant suggesting that organisational trust might not have the predicted effect on these variables providing no support for the second condition of the mediation. No support was also found for the third part of the mediation analysis. When POPS and organisational trust entered simultaneously, controlling for the effects of organisational trust on OCB-O, (β=-.03, ns), OCB-I (β=.04, ns) and innovativeness (β=.04, *ns,*) then the effect of POPS on these variables (OCB-O, OCB-I, and innovativeness) remained non-significant.

Taken these results together, I infer that stage 2 and Stage 3 in the mediation analysis found not support (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and as a result organizational trust is not a mediator for the relationships among POPS-OCB-I, POPS-OCB-O and POPS-innovativeness. Therefore, these findings revealed that Hypotheses 13a-b-c were not supported. The hierarchical regression analysis results are depicted in the Table 45 below.

Similarly, the regression results in **Table 46** illustrate that POPS (T1) was positively and significantly related to turnover intentions (β=.26, p<.01) while negatively associated with affective commitment (β=-.28, p<.01). These results also indicate that Organisational trust at Time 2, was significantly predicted by POPS (T1) (β=-.19, p<.05), satisfying condition 1 for the mediation. Similarly, the results indicate the significant associations between organisational trust, turnover intentions and affective commitment (β=-.20, p<.05, and β=.25, p<.05, respectively). Again, these findings meet the second condition for mediation. I was then controlled for the effects of organisational trust on turnover intentions, and affective commitment on the third step of the regressions. Thus, the analysis suggests that the effects of POPS (T1) on turnover intentions and affective commitment remain significant (β=.22, p<.05, and β=-.23, p<.05). To determine whether organisational trust fully or partially mediate the relationship, I also inspected the effects of POPS on turnover intentions and affective commitment (PATH C'). Hence, results show that organisational trust partially mediated the relationship between turnover intentions (13d) and affective commitment (13e). Overall, these results provide only partial support for Hypothesis 13d and 13e. Therefore, Hypotheses 13d and 13e were not fully supported.

To further test Hypotheses 13d and 13e I conducted the Sobel test, which provides a direct test of the indirect effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Sobel, 1982). A Sobel test performed on the results of this analysis shows that the indirect effects of POPS on affective commitment and turnover intentions through organisational trust

were significant (Sobel=.025, and .023, $p<.05$, respectively). The results again provide only partial support for Hypotheses 13d and 13e.

Table 45 *Results of Hierarchical Regression for the Hypothesis 13a-c*

	OCB-O (T2) *β*	*Organisational trust* *β*	*OCB-O (T2)* *β*	*OCB-I (T2)* *β*	*Organisational trust* *β*	*OCB-I (T2)* *β*	*IRB (T2)* *β*	*Organisational trust* *β*	*IRB (T2)* *β*
Step 1									
Age	-.08	-.08	-.02	-.09	-.08	-.08	-.04	-.07	-.04
Gender	-.28**	-.22*	-.26*	-.29**	-.22*	-.28*	-.29**	-.24*	-.29**
Family Status	.24*	-.02	.18	.26	-.02	.26*	.24*	-.00	.20*
Education	.20*	.01	.22**	.10*	.01	.10	.19*	-.01	.19*
Hierarchy	.10	.06	-.02	.04	.06	.12	1.0	.07	.09
POPS (T1)	-.09			.05			-.11		
ΔR²	.18**			.19**			.23***		
Step 2									
POPS (T1)		-.23*			-.23*			-.23*	
Final R²		.11*			.11*			.11*	
Adj. R²		.06*			.06*			.06*	
ΔR²		.11*			.11*			.11*	
Step 3									
Organisational trust (T2)			-.03			.04			.04
POPS (T1)			-.08			.06			-.10
Final R²			.17			18			.23
Adj. R²			.11			12			.17
ΔR²			**.01**			**.02**			**.00**
F			2.98*			3.25*			4.12**

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

Table 46 *Results of Hierarchical Regression for the Hypothesis 13d-e*

	Turnover intentions (T2) *β*	*Organisational trust (T2)* *β*	***Turnover intentions*** *(T2)* *β*	*Affective commitment (T2)* *β*	*Organisational trust (T2)* *β*	*Affective commitment (T2* *β*
Step 1						
Age	-.14	-.08	-.12	-.04	-.08	-.02
Gender	.01	-.22*	-.05	-.08	-.22*	-.03
Family status	-.10	-.02	-.11	.13	-.02	.15
Education	.38***	.03	.38***	-.09	.01	-.09
Hierarchy	.03	.07	.04	.22	.06	.00
POPS (T1)	.26**			-.28**		
ΔR^2	.22**			.12**		
Step 2						
POPS (T1)		-.19*			-.19*	
Final R^2		.11*			.11*	
Adj. R^2		.06*			.06*	
ΔR^2		.11*			.11*	
F		2.09*			2.09*	
Step 3						
Organ. trust (T2)			-.20*			.25*
POPS (T1)			.22*			-.23*
Final R^2			.26***			.18*
Adj. R^2			.20*			.12*
ΔR^2			.03*			.05*
F			4.73**			2.96***
N	105		105	105		105

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

Table 47 *Results of Hierarchical Regression for the Hypothesis 13d-e*

	OCB-I (T2) *β*	*Interpersonal trust (T2)* *β*	*OCB-I (T2)* *β*	*OCB-O (T2)* *β*	*Interpersonal trust (T2)* *β*	*OCB-O (T2)* *β*	*IRB (T2)* *β*	*Interpersonal trust (T2)* *β*	*IRB (T2)* *β*
Step 1									
Age	-.08	.16	-.09	-.02	.16	-.03	-.04	.16	-.03
Gender	-.28**	-.01	-.29**	-.25**	-.01	-.26**	-.30**	-.01	-.30**
Family status	.20*	.07	.19*	.14	.07	.13	.16	.07	.16
Education	.12	.21**	.11	.22**	.21**	.21*	.20*	.21**	.22*
Hierarchy	.18	-.16	.13	-.02	-.16	-.01	.09	-.16	.08
POPS (T1)	-.05			-.07			-.11		
ΔR^2	.18**			.17**			.22**		
F	3.50**			3.12**			4.07**		
Step 2									
POPS (T1)		.06			.06			.06	
Final R^2		.08			.08			.08	
Adj. R^2		.02			.02			.02	
ΔR^2		.08			.08			.08	
F		1.36			1.36			1.36	
Step 3									
Interpersonal trust (T2)			.06			.07			-.09
POPS (T1)			.05			-.08			-.10
Final R^2			.18			.17			.23
Adj. R^2			.12*			.11			17
ΔR^2			.01			.00			.01
F			3.07**			3.06**			4.26
N			105			105			105

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

Table 48 *Results of Hierarchical Regression for the Hypothesis 13d-e*

	Turnover intentions (T2) *β*	*Interpersonal trust (T2)* *β*	*Turnover intentions (T2)* *β*	*Affective commitment (T2)* *β*	*Interpersonal trust (T2)* *β*	*Affective commitment (T2)* *β*
Step 1						
Age	-.10	.16	.12	-.06	.16	-.08
Gender	-.01	-.01	.01	-.03	-.01	-.07
Family status	.02	.07	-.09	.07	.07	.13
Education	.33**	.21**	.40***	-.09	.21**	-.14
Hierarchy	.00	-.16	.13	.01	-.16	.06
POPS (T1)	.26**			-.34**		
ΔR²	.18**			.14**		
Step 2						
POPS (T1)		.06			.06	
Final R²		.08			.08	
Adj. R²		.02			.02	
ΔR²		.08			.08	
F		1.36			1.36	
Step 3						
Interpersonal trust (T2)			-.09			.25*
POPS (T1)			.27**			-.29**
Final R²			.22			.18**
Adj. R²			.17			.12**
ΔR²			.02			.06**
F			4.01**			3.07**
N		105		105		105

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

Hypothesis 13 d-f

Similarly, to test whether or not the effects of POPS on affective commitment and turnover intentions may be mediated by interpersonal trust (Hypotheses 13f-g) I conducted three regressions.

As hypothesised POPS (T1) was positively associated with turnover intentions and negatively associated with affective commitment. The results of this test as shown in **Table 48** indicate that POPS (T1) did not predict significantly interpersonal trust (T2) (β=.06, *ns*) and condition 1 for mediation was not supported. Similarly, the results indicate that interpersonal trust had a significant effect on affective commitment (β=.25, $p<.05$) providing support for second condition of mediation. The findings reported **in Table 48 above** also suggest the lack of such a significant association between interpersonal trust and turnover intentions. These results do not support mediation in that case (13g).

Again, in the third regression step, interpersonal trust was entered and the significant relationship established in the first analysis (path c) remains significant when controlling for the effects of the interpersonal trust on the turnover intentions and affective commitment. However, because condition one for the mediation (path a) was not supported, then interpersonal trust cannot play the role of mediation in that case. Therefore, these results provide no support for Hypothesis 13f, and Hypothesis 13g.

Hypothesis 18 a-b

Hypotheses 18a-b stated that political influence behavior will mediate the relationship between POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (Hypothesis 18a) and affective commitment (Hypothesis 18b) at time 2 (T2).

The regression analysis results in **Table 49** indicate that POPS (T1) did not predict significantly the political influence behavior (β=.11, *ns*) at time 2 providing no support for condition 1 for the mediation. Similarly, political influence behaviour found to have no significant impact on turnover intentions and affective commitment (β=.02, *ns*, β=.11, *ns*) and in stage 3 when political influence behaviour entered in the main regressions only the effects of POPS on affective commitment (β=.27, p<.01, β=-.29, p<.01) and turnover intentions were significant. Therefore, these results suggest that Political influence behavior did not qualify as a mediator of the relationship between POPS-affective commitment and POPS-turnover intentions. Furthermore, these findings do not provide support for condition 1 and condition 2 for mediation. Hence, Hypothesis 18a-b was not supported.

Table 49 *Results for mediating effects of Hypothesis 18a-b*

	Turnover intentions (T2)	*Political behaviour (T2)*	*Turnover intentions (T2)*	*Affective commitment (T2)*	*Political behavior (T2)*	*Affective commitment (T2)*
Step 1	*β*	*β*	*β*	*β*	*β*	*β*
Age	-.14	.07	-.14	-.04	.07	-.05
Gender	.01	-.17	.01	-.08	-.17	-.06
Family status	.10	.16	.03	.13	.16	.12
Education	.38***	-.06	.38**	-.09	-.06	-.08
Hierarchy	.03	.01	.02	.02	.01	.02
POPS (T1)	.26**			-.28**		
ΔR²	.22**			.12**		
F	4.52**			2.22**		
Step 2						
POPS (T1)		.11			.11	
R²		.05			.05	
Adj. R²		.00			.00	
ΔR²		.05			.05	
F		.861			.861	
Step 3						
Political behaviour (T2)			-.02			.11
POPS (T1)			.27**			-.29**
R²			.22			.13
Adj. R²			.16			.07
ΔR²			.00			.01
F			3.85**			2.09

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

Moderation analysis

Hypotheses 22a-c suggested that political skill self-efficacy (T2) would moderate the relationship between POPS (T1)-turnover intentions (22a), POPS-affective commitment (22b), and POPS-innovativeness (22c). To test these Hypotheses I applied multiple regression analysis using SPSS (version 17.0).

In order to guard against potential threats caused by multicollinearity, I mean-centered the predictor variables before calculating the cross-product terms (Aiken & West, 1991) in the moderation analysis. According to the literature mean-centering can reduce the covariance between the simple effects and their multiplicative interaction terms, thereby reducing collinearity and in practice problems resulted in the interpretation of the regression results (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim, & Wasserman, 1996). This viewpoint is echoed by Irwin and McClelland (2001, p.109) as well as Aiken and West (1991) who imply that centering reduces the variance between the linear-interaction terms, and increases the determinant of X'X. In other words, they emphasised that the use of non mean-centered variables makes difficult to distinguish the separate effects of x_1 and x_1x_2 on y. Therefore, in light of these suggestions mean-centeting allows me to minimize any potential problems of multicollinearity and to better interpret the results. The VIFs for all variables were below 1.5 indicating that multicollinearity was not a problem in this analysis.

Analytically, I followed three steps (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) as suggested by scholars: (1) I entered the control variables namely age, gender, family status, education, number of children, working years, and hierarchical level (2) I entered political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) and POPS (T1) (3) the cross-product terms of PSSE and POPS (T1). A significant change in R^2 in the final step indicated a significant interaction effect. Moderated regression results for Hypotheses 22a-c are shown in Table 50.

Hypothesis 22a

The regression results displayed in Table 50 show that the control variables entered in Step 1 of the regression equation did not predict a significant portion of the variance in turnover intentions (ΔR^2=.08, ns). Within the second step, only POPS (T1) (β = .27, $p < .001$) was positively related to turnover intentions (T2). However, political skill (β = -.03, ns) does not appear to have a significant relationship with turnover intentions. The results revealed that the model overall significantly predicted incremental variance (ΔR^2=.06, $p < .05$). In Step 3, the political skill self-efficacy x POPS interaction term was significant (β =-.21, $p< .05$), and explained incremental variance (ΔR^2=.04, $p< .05$). Hence, Hypothesis 22a was supported. Due to the significant interaction term in Step 3, the relationship was graphed (Fig.9).

Hypothesis 22b

The regression results presented in **Table 50** illustrate that in Step 1 variables, as a whole, did not significantly predict affective commitment (ΔR^2=.03, ns). Specifically, further inspection indicates that only education was a

significant predictor of affective commitment (β =-.24, p<.05). In Step 2, while the model significantly predicted incremental variance (ΔR^2=.13, p < .001) POPS (T1) was the only main effect variable that was statistically significant (β =-.32, p<.001). Together, in the last step, the cross-product interaction term of POPS (T1) and political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) was not statistically significant in this equation (β =-.08, ns, and ΔR^2=.01, ns), thus, without supporting Hypothesis 22b.

Hypothesis 22c

Hypothesis 22c posited that Political skill self-efficacy would moderate the relationship among POPS (T1) and innovativeness related behaviour at time 2.(T2) The regression results displayed in Table revealed that in Step 1, gender predicted the innovativeness behaviours (β=-.34, p<.01), suggesting that men engaged in more innovative activities at financial institutions while women engaged in less. In addition, family status (β=.21, p<.01), predicted employees' innovativeness related behaviour.

Together, the control variables predicted a significant portion of variance in innovativeness (ΔR^2= .23, p < .001). In Step 2, neither the overall model nor the main effect variables predicted significant variance (ΔR^2= .01, ns). Similarly, the interaction term entered in Step 3 was not statistically significant (β =.12, ns) and results showed that did not predict incremental variance over and above the other steps (ΔR^2= .01, ns). Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 22c.

Table 50 *Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results – Hypotheses 22a-b-c*

	TURNOVER INTENTIONS*(T2)*		AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT*(T2)*		IRB *(T2)*	
	β	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
STEP 1						
Age	-.08	.04	.18	.06	-.04	.09
Gender	-.01	.69	-.02	.98	-.34***	1.14
Family	.16	.54	-.01	.76	.21***	.75
Education	.20*	.19	-.24*	.28	.20*	.36
Working	-.03	.05	-.23	.07	-.02	.10
Hierarchy	.07	.28	-.01	.39	.11	.45
ΔR^2	.08		.03		.23***	
F	1.51		1.03		4.58***	
STEP 2						
PSSE(T2)	-.03	.04	.15	.05	-.15	.08
POPS (T1)	.27**	.04	-.32***	.05	.09	.06
R^2	.14*		.16**		.26	
Adj. R^2	.07*		.09**		.19	
ΔR^2	.06*		.13**		.04	
F	2.08*		4.20***		3.38**	
STEP 3						
POPSxPSSE	-.21*	.01	-.08	.01	.12	1.28
R^2	.18*		.16		.27	
Adj. R^2	.11*		.08		.20	
ΔR^2	.04*		.01		.01	
F	2.40*		3.74**		3.39**	

Note. N = 110; * p < .05, ** p < .01, ***p<.001

FIGURE 10 ***POPS x PSSE Interaction On Turnover Intentions***

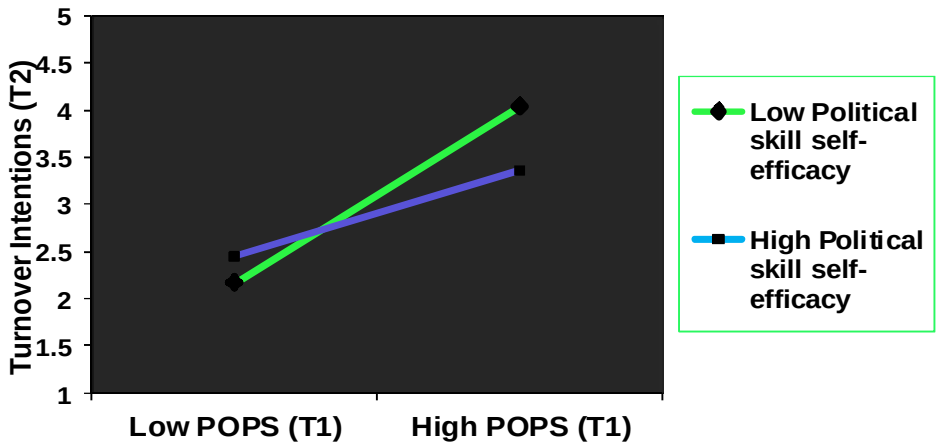


Figure 10 graphically presents the interaction between POPS (T1) and Political skill self-efficacy on turnover intentions (T2). As shown in Figure above when political skill self-efficacy was low and POPS was also low then turnover intentions were high. On the other hand, when political skill self-efficacy and POPS were both high then turnover intentions were low. In other words, those performers who have low levels of political skill self-efficacy show more intentions to quit their job when POPS is low. Thus, low levels of POPS were more positively related to turnover intentions (T2) for those performers who have lower levels of political skill self-efficacy.

These patterns further supported Hypothesis 22a.

CHAPTER 9 –*DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS*

9.1 *General conclusions*

Having completed the data analysis utilising various statistical methods, Chapter 9 concludes the thesis by summarising the key findings of this research, noting several limitations and discussing its broader implications.

As it has been mentioned previously, a major goal of this study was to examine a model of the antecedents and consequences of POPS. Thus, I hypothesized that personality traits predict POPS and as expected the findings revealed that the prediction of POPS is affected significantly by individual traits such as extraversion and neuroticism.

Surprisingly, the results suggest that extraversion negatively predicts POPS. Contrary to my expectations this result indicates that extravert individuals are less likely to engage in political and power games when perceived their working environments highly political. For example, previous research showed that extravert individuals seek excitement at work, and generally tend to be in a good mood (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992); they are also described as sociable, assertive, and energetic. However, at times political environments are not always extremely beneficial, but they are reported to be deep chaotic, pervasive associated with conflicts, coalition building (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Hochwarter, Kolodinsky, et al., 2006).

One possible explanation is that employees who intended to be sociable, and assertive in building friendship ties at work, in such political contexts, were indeed less extraverts. The distracting nature of political behaviour permeates employees' activities (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Hochwarter, Kolodinsky et al., 2006) and it is likely to limit extraverts' tendency to seek interaction opportunities to express their extraversion.

Conversely, neuroticism has been proven to predict and heighten the perceptions of organizational politics (T1) as hypothesised. Consistently with accounts highlighting the importance of personality traits, employees who score high in neuroticism tend to experience high levels of stress, and self-doubt (Hogan & Briggs, 1984; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) and view the world with a pessimistic and defensive lens, interpreting many stimuli as threatening (McCrae & John, 1992). In the world of work, neurotic workers due to their proclivity to consumes resources through anxiety, anger, and/or sensitivity to negative conditions (Perry et al., 2010) it is more plausible to enlarge unfavorable political actions and perceived them as stressors. For this reason, the negative outlook held by those individuals along with their tendency to be easily distracted off-task by worry (Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007; Walsh, Balint, Smolira, Fredericksen, & Madsen, 2009) leads them to treat political events as a stressful and threatening situation. Therefore, they appear most likely to experience increased levels of POPS when surrounding with the political internal environments.

As the results suggested in this research, it was perplexing, however, that POPS (T1) is not related significantly to the supervisors' ratings of OCB-I and OCB-O at Time 2. This finding does not echo that of scholars (Ferris et al., 1989; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) who found POPS to be highly related to OCB-I and OCB-O. Typically, when employees perceive excessive organizational politicking (Poon, 2003), they are likely to exhibit reduced levels of organizational citizenship behavior (Randall et al., 1999), and overall organizational performance (Vigoda, 2000). However, this finding is consistent with Vigoda (2000), and Randall et al. (1999) assertion that a non-significant correlation exists among POPS and job performance. As scholars (Witt, 1998, Treadway et al., 2005) reported the nature of the direct relationship between POPS and job performance might be dependent on individual considerations and contingent on the context of the environment. Therefore, these relationships are more intricate than firstly believed.

Finally, results did not suggest a significant impact of POPS on employee innovativeness (IRB). Interestingly, it does not appear that employees who perceive their working environment unfavourable (organisational politics) have received lowest (or highest) innovation performance ratings from their supervisor. In other words, findings did not demonstrate the negative association between POPS (T1) and innovativeness (T2) which was in contrast to what was predicted. Literature findings (e.g., individual innovation; Janssen, Van De Vliert, & West, 2004; Scott & Bruce, 1994; creativity; Woodman et al., 1993) demonstrate that

factors such as organisational culture and climate, and relationships with supervisor, carry a strong influence in defining innovation.

Additionally, it is important to acknowledge that the overall findings regarding managers' ratings of employee OCBs and Innovativeness behavior obtained by survey questionnaires at time 2 were not significant. In keeping with earlier findings (Bolino and Turnley, 2003; Bergeron, 2007), it is likely that the value of OCBs about these organisations may lose its discretionary quality because of the belief by employees that OCBs are simply part of their jobs and what they originally did voluntarily is no longer considered 'extra' but instead is viewed as requirements of their jobs. Further, prior work suggests (Witt and Ferris, 2003) that employees may engage in OCB that are not visible or directed towards low power members of the organization, such as members of the out group. Clearly, as a result, their persistent efforts to engage in citizenship behaviors may be misinterpreted or ignored by their managers. Indeed, a number of studies have highlighted that engaging in OCBs (i.e., acts of helping, civil virtue) must not be required but instead should be performed voluntarily (Organ, 1988). Ideally, thus, it would be helpful to have data from both objective and subjective job performance measures obtained from the same samples.

Among other things, it is interesting to note, however, the many complexities associated with findings involving translated the measures in countries where English is not the working language. In fact, operationalizations

of OCB and IRB may be differentially sensitive to culture values, norms and practices for Hellas and Anglo countries.

Although POPS (T1) did not relate to organizational citizenship behaviors (T2), did relate to turnover intentions (T2). This finding is consistent with the literature outcomes of POPS (a meta-analysis of outcomes of POPS by Miller, Rutherford and Kolodinsky, 2008) and provides further evidence for the notion that POPS increases employees' intentions to quit. For one possible explanation of this result I return to social exchange theory suggesting that when organisations do not recognise individuals' efforts or workers do not associate their work with favourable rewards (e.g., economic and social), then employees may respond in same manner as their employer. Differently phrased, risky political work contexts seem to attenuate employees' turnover intentions. When POPS is present, individuals may not be assured that their hard work will lead to desired outcomes (i.e., expectancy) and as a result may feel that their efforts may not be rewarded (Ferris et al., 2002; Valle et al., 2003).

Next, it was predicted that perceptions of organisational politics (T1) would have a significant relationship with affective commitment (T2). Once again, the results revealed that POPS (T1) has a significant negative relationship with affective commitment (T2). This finding was consistent with literature findings (Miller at al., 2008; Ferris et al., 2000) as my hypothesis set to determine. For a theoretical explanation I propose that social exchange and expectancy theory might be able to explain this result. Furthermore, this prediction seems to

encapsulate the fact that employees tend to feel less emotionally attached to their organization when they perceive it as highly political because this political climate does not offer in return the investment and resources (e.g., payment, promotions, opportunities for socialization) as it was expected.

Noteworthy, however, was the confirmation that POPS (T1) had not a significant relationship with political influence behaviour (T2). Surprisingly, this result was inconsistent with previous findings (Vigoda, 2003, Rosen et al., 2009) suggesting that managers and employees who perceive high levels of organisational politics then routinely exert political influence behaviours in order to maximize their self-interest, satisfy their needs and arrive at the promised-land (e.g., support, rewards, satisfaction). In fact, employees appear to be reluctant to exert the types of political influence behaviours measured in this study. Further, the impact of political influence behavior on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior and innovativeness was not also confirmed. Finally, the results suggested that political influence behavior did not mediate the relationship of POPS-affective commitment. Thus, we continue to know relatively little about the long term effects of political influence behavior and research should explore the ways in which political influence behavior affects evaluation of types of performance.

My results seem to reveal the complexity of modern working institutions and the ways in which POPS can influence interpersonal outcomes. One expected finding was that perceptions of political actions did imply low levels of trust in management. The results provided support for the negative association between

POPS (T1) and trust in management at time 2. This finding seems to suggest that distorted image of the organisation (after employees experience negative derivations as a result of the economic crisis) makes it fairly difficult for employees to continually demonstrate high levels trust (Time 2) in an organisation as a whole. In fact, literature suggests that POPS damages trust (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995) and as previously mentioned in trust reports (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007), trust is the willingness to be vulnerable, to act on the basis of the words and decisions of the trustee (McAllister, 1995) based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action. All in all, the results presented herein highlight the importance of POPS in predicting organisational trust.

This finding coincides with studies which indicate that after employees receive poor treatment by their organisation then would view any psychological investment as risky, therefore, they ruminate that one party will be negligent. In this vein, highly political environments trigger unfair and risky situations (i.e., regarding its decision-making processes, and the resulting strategies and policies of the organization). Then, employees may go through personal conflicts (e.g., Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Duhlebohn, 1999) and organisation neglects them and their expectations which in turn decrease their trust in it. There is also evidence in this research that employees who trust their organisation may more likely to have strong commitment to it and experience less turnover intentions. This result indicates the importance of organisational trust for employees and organisations.

In the present research, I responded to the suggestions of scholars for examining more complex substantive relationships than linear on the organisational politics (Harris, Kacmar, & Witt, 2005; Hochwarter et al., 2005 Ferris et al., 2006). I explored the mediating role of organisational trust between POPS (T1) and affective commitment (T2), POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2), and I indeed find evidences that organisational trust (T2) partially mediated the relationship between POPS (T1) and turnover intentions.

The mediation finding in this research requires further comment. POPS (T1) negatively predicts affective commitment (T2) and positively predicts turnover intentions (T1) via organisational trust. Since employees perceived their working environments as inherently political (unfavourable), and power structures in organizations (Krackhardt, 1990), as non-manageable they may be intend to withdrawn more and show weak commitment to their organisation. It may be that low levels of trust in organisation exist in the face of high perceptions of politics in organizations.

Though POPS carries very little weight toward interpersonal trust (no significant association was found), the results provide support for the hypothesis that POPS (T1) significantly contributes to organisational cynicism (T1). This expected finding seems to reinforce the assertion that employee perceptions of organisational politics are, indeed, negative events. Such unfair treatments and uncertainty dominate their workplace increase cynical attitudes toward

supervisors and organisations. This is most likely because turbulent and threatening organisational environments promote ascription of cynical attitudes toward management and to the organisation as a whole (Cartwright and Holmes, 2006). The mediating role of organisational cynicism in linking POPS (T1) to OCBs and innovativeness (IRB) at time 2 was, however, not supported.

The findings also supported the moderating effects of PSSE. Results indicated that employees' turnover intentions were high when PSSE was low and POPS was also low. This result is line with previous investigations in the literature focused on political skill (Perrewe et al., 2004; Shi, Johnson, Liu& Wang, 2013). No effect of the PSSE on the interaction of POPS (T1) and affective commitment (T2) was detected.

Since the term political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) in organisational contexts has never been tested, my purpose was to design this measure to depict individuals' appraisal for their own capacity to engage effectively in political behavior (enjoy gamesmanship environments, Buchanan, 2008). The focus was on developing a reliable and valid measure to investigate PSSE at work. Drawing from the literature review, I designed a 12-item scale and identified four dimensions across which PSSE is generally exerted. One aspect of PSSE associates with a high sense of self-confidence and personal security that can engage in political activities, and be good at it. Furthermore, critical aspects of PSSE refer to people's networking, and communication ability. The coalition building ability reflects employees' ability to influence important others in effective ways and to

develop ties only with those that have status, and power in making decisions for the future of the company. More aptly, I propose that, individuals rather being apathetic in political environments at work can possess the belief that have the capabilities and knowledge to respond to these political incidents as an opportunity to grow..

Like other scholars who have attempted to unravel issues in the scale development of creative self-efficacy, leadership self-efficacy, core self-evaluations (e.g., Shelley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004; Tiemey and Farmer, 2011; Paglis & Green, 2002; Judge et al., 1997; Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998), I conduced three studies in order to test the psychometric properties of the scale. Throughout these surveys and the results of the confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis, this possibility as theorised, has been explored and the validation of the PSSE has been established. The results presented in Chapter 7 support the psychometric properties of the PSSE scale and the analysis of the nomological network suggests the support of convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the PSSE scale.

This thesis strongly suggests that the inclusion of the political skill self-efficacy in POPS research contributes to a more holistic understanding of the organizational politics. Prior research failed to capture the notion of political skill self-efficacy and given the novelty of this social effectiveness construct, any future efforts will undoubtedly contribute to the way in which it is developed and used. Therefore, it stands to reason that an individual political skill self-efficacy would also carry many important applications for organisations.

In this research the measure of innovativeness related behaviour scale; I refer to this as 'IRB' has also been identified, and developed. In general, the results in the confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis show that the scale (10-items) fits the data very well, and provide evidence that the items loaded on two factors.

Furthermore, this research took place in financial firms in Hellas and the salience of the features of organisational changes in these organisations due to the economic crisis (e.g., competiveness over limited economic and social valued resources) may be impact on employees' organisational trust, turnover intentions, affective commitment, and organisational cynicism. These findings may also reflect the environmental and work context. Such considerations coincide with the literature suggesting that both instability in working environments and organizational changes including downsizing, pay cuts and freezes, management changes, restructuring organizations influence occurrence of workplace aggression experienced by employees (Baron and Neuman, 1996; Kelloway, 2002; McFarlane-Shore et al., 1990).

9. 2 General contributions

This study has several strengths that are worth highlighting. One of the strengths is the use of two-wave surveys at two separate time period whereby same participants were responded at time 1 and time 2 and so that predictions could be made. It employs a multiwave design (including the POPS, OCBs and performance ratings by supervisors in Survey 1 and Survey 2). To date, the

majority of research on organisational politics and political skill has relied on a single source, cross-sectional data (Ferris et al. 2005). As such, this thesis provides a rigorous examination of the hypothesised model. Second, my findings reveal that our set of variables consists exclusively of job performance collected by supervisors were non-significant. Contrary to our expectations though, I find no effect of POPS on political influence behavior perhaps because different aspects of POPS may be related to different political behaviors' experience. Findings further demonstrate that personality traits of neuroticism and extraversion are significant drivers of POPS. Finally, on the whole most of the results of this study for my observed direct and moderated relations are not surprising. Thus, overall the findings of this study provide some general support for the proposed framework.

The second contribution emerges with the discovery that POPS (T1) related to turnover intentions (T2), trust (T2) affective commitment (T2), organizational cynicism (T1). This longitudinal design is particular important because as allows to capture and predict the effects of POPS over time (i.e., turnover intentions, trust, affective commitment data were collected about six months prior POPS time one data).

The present research is the first to offer a political skill self-efficacy scale (PSSE) and to inform that some employees have the capacity to be adjustable within political contexts at work along with the confidence to engage in 'political games' and be good at it. In doing so, it gave meaning to a construct that were difficult previously to explore. My conceptualisation of the political skill self-

efficacy scale provides a useful perspective to study POPS. Ferris et al. (2007) suggested that organizational politics is a multilevel phenomenon and not all individuals perceive organizational politics the same way. Some individuals might be more confident than others to deal with political working places and may be able to take appropriate actions so as to alleviate the ambiguity POPS provokes. For instance, an individual who exercises PSSE is portrayed as self-confident, dynamic, political savvy who knows how to act successfully helping organizations and obtaining gains for him/her. Generally, this thesis has moved the research agenda in POPS one step further, advancing the way we think about inherently political phenomena at work.

By including political skill self-efficacy in organizational politics research, this study has elucidated the moderating role of political skill self-efficacy in the relationships among POPS and turnover intentions, POPS and affective commitment. By doing so, it addresses previous calls to do so (Ferris et al., 2007; Ferris & Judge, 1991). In fact, this thesis has demonstrated that political skill self-efficacy in this particular sample had not the role of moderator between POPS-affective commitment relations but had a negative association with POPS. Thus, it provides an insight as to how and when a person's political skill self-efficacy influences the effects of POPS (T1) on work outcomes (turnover intentions at T2).While these findings are encouraging, it should be noted that this is only the first step in providing evidence of validity of this construct, as PSSE validation is an ongoing process.

Unlike the majority of studies in POPS, this is one of the few that tests the impact of POPS on innovativeness related behavior. As seen in Chapter 3, POPS is viewed fundamentally as egocentric events causing considerable anguish (Hochwarter, Ferris, Laid, Treadway, & Gallagher, 2003), dissatisfaction, stress and depression[20]. This aspect of the research warrants researchers' attention, and I suggest future researchers to continue to make use of innovativeness scales as a potential outcome of POPS by using self-report rating of IRB (innovativeness related behavior scale). Therefore, this study is one of only handful to have developed and utilized the measurement scale of the innovation- related behavior (IRB) into banking sector and looked into POP'S effects on innovativeness. Scholars interested in this type of research should take into account that organizational politics is, indeed, an important driver in conflict resolution (Frost & Egri, 1999).

Another aim of this study was to carry forward an integrated model of POPS and to investigate mediators' variables (at Time 2) between POPS-turnover intentions and POPS-affective commitment. These relationships aiming at responding to the call made by scholars that 'we are still missing a significant portion of the story concerning the effects of political behavior in organizations' (Fedor et al., 2008; p.77). By recognizing the importance of mechanisms through which relationships exist, this study using a social exchange framework, proposed

[20] Studies have identified depressed mood (Byrne et al., 2005), age (Treadway et al., 2005), perceived organizational support (Hochwarter et al., 2003), justice (Harris et al., 2007), and social acuity (Brouer et al., 2006) as influencing factors of POPS (Hochwarter and Thompson, 2010)

the role of and found support for the role of organizational trust as a partial mediator in the relationship among POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2). As such, it identified one possible reason why POPS relates to turnover intentions (i.e., via the mediating effect of organisational trust).

Another strong point and asset of this study is that it investigated organizational politics perceived in the eyes of employees and not the actual political events based on the literature that politics is amenable to individual interpretation (Ferris et al., 1989). At the same time, in keeping with previous findings, this thesis has pointed out the predicting role of POPS in organizational cynicism and the detrimental effects of POPS on affective commitment and turnover intentions.

An additional contribution of this study was the methodological strong points. Previous research which examined the links between POPS and outcomes has typically although not exclusively (e.g. Randall et al., 1999; Vigoda. 2000a; Zivnuska et al., 2004; Rosen et al., 2006), relied on samples comprised of working students and a single source of data. In light of this, the study used data collected from employees and their supervisors (matched dyads) eliminating any concern to common method variance.

A further contribution derives from its Greek research settings. So far, theories of organizational politics have limited to one cultural sphere (American and Anglo-Saxon countries) and there are only few studies empirically tested out of this context (Vigoda, 2001; Kapoutsis et al., 2011; Romm & Drory, 1988). In

short, I applied POPS within the Greek cultural context in an effort to unfold the consequences that relate to POPS and to reveal more about the complexities involved in these types of organizational and interpersonal relationships. These findings, therefore, should be interpreted taking this issue into account.

9.3 Practical implications

The results of this two-wave longitudinal investigation have reveal several practical implications and shed a new light on POPS research by recognizing its importance for every member of the organization. Overall, this thesis highlights three key areas that organizations might benefit from knowing more about: a) the antecedents and consequences of POPS b) the impact of organizational cynicism on employees, and c) the role of trust and political skill self-efficacy in organizational politics.

On the whole, though, the results of this study at first glimpse simply suggest that POPS in some cases might represent behaviors that are associated with high levels of organizational cynicism, decreased affective commitment and, ultimately, increased turnover intentions. The implications for acknowledging such outcomes could be worthwhile. In this way, POPS provides the foundation for evaluating again the organizations that are political arenas.

Although individuals generally focus on the dark side of the organizational politics overall, this sensitive topic is important for everyone's survival. Particularly, managers spend substantial amount of time dealing with

political incidents at work and should acknowledge this certainty. The common trend for managers to operate with ‘a head in the sand’ mentality when discussing political behavior appears to be reversing (Ferris and Hochwarter. 2012). The first step should be the recognition that politics exist where this study helps explain more about why employees who perceive their environment as political behave in certain ways.

For instance, managers who are aware of the existence of political behaviors within organizations may be able to address such political events clearly and improve the communication they have with their employees. The open dialogue will provide the information about who is *going along* to *get ahead* in the department and recognize that a certain types of employees might perform as political entities than originally acknowledged to accumulate undeserved outcomes. This could boost managers’ confidence in realizing that unsound and unwanted political conducts should be discussed and not only whispered.

Although the interpretation of all the social dynamics (Buchanan. 2008) is a difficult task for managers, the recognition of multiple types of political behavior (i.e., influence tactics) and reactions across individuals offers necessary conditions for advancement. In this regard, managers’ motivation to observe these phenomena at higher and lower organizational levels would likely emerge with the knowledge the effects POPS have on various (organizational) outcomes such as high turnover intentions. Hence, sharing important information about political ramifications with their managers, subordinates may possess hopes that can improve their work environment. Indeed, determining what type of ‘healthy’

political behavior interacts with what sort of employees would encourage them to establish benefits of favorable politics. These would change the way organizations train their employees and leaders, particularly newcomers.

Consistent with prior research and theory (Lux, Ferris, Brouer, Laird, & Summers, 2008) individuals react to organizational politics based on their perceptions and not the reality. For example, results have shown that employees are less likely to be committed to his/her organisation as a whole when perceived it as political because they have low trust in it. This implies that managers and organizations may benefit by monitoring perceptions of employees (Liu et al., 2010) rather than excluding all political behavior. This can be achieved through open communication, supportive community building, the utilization of sources in the training centre, social events, and electronic media especially as it relates to political gain (Kuzmits, Sussman, Adams & Raho, 2002) and is available to those in need.

The findings also suggest that POPS (TI) increases turnover intentions at time 2 via organisational trust. Reviews of the pertinent literatures on trust (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin. 2002) provide a number of recommendations for the management of trust problems. For example, studies have shown that supervisors can be trained through seminars and training programs to adhere to justice principles (Skarlicki & Latham. 2005), because it affects the way individuals form their impressions about trusting in their supervisors. For example, offering honest explanations and using sound values to guide actions, organisations raise employees' awareness of the political incidents

within working contexts and show them how to deal with them. Furthermore, scholars alluded to the idea that employees need to provide feedback about their levels of trust to their supervisors which in turn might help managers maintain their levels of fairness and trustworthiness. Alternatively, managers being concerned about the welfare of their employees when they know that are working in a highly political environment, they can prevent conflicts (as a result of politics) and turnover intentions.

Moreover, it seems likely that all would benefit from the incorporation of political skill self-efficacy. Here, as anticipated **in Hypothsesis 22a** PSSE appears as a moderator in the relationship between POPS (T1) and turnover intentions (T2). Thus, the findings of this study go one step further to suggest that employees need to develop their own political skill self-efficacy in workplaces successfully. This scale can be also used as a diagnostic tool providing insight into the degree to which an individual is flexible and adaptable in political environments. Alternatively, realizing that politics is not a misery but an area full of advantages to be conquered individuals should use their political skill self-efficacy to actively develop social relationships with members of the organizational elite over time and gain great amounts of valuable career assistance (Ferris et al., 2007; Rosenbaum. 1979; Sonnenfeld et al., 1988). This can be achieved by participating in training courses that help to strengthen their political skill self-efficacy, and learn of how to be authentic and sincere in their relationships.

Additionally, employees that are aware of the dominance of POPS may take appropriate actions that would enable them to raise their speed in political events at work. For example, understanding that a modern enterprise lacking politics, at some level, will almost guarantee its demise (Buchanan, 2008) that could facilitate the use of their capacities such as political skill self-efficacy for their survival. Rather than leaving the organization it would prove to be beneficial to discuss with their managers the implications of political behaviors; such a discussion may foster a positive outlook concerning the political aspects of organizations. Further, it is imperative to spend fewer hours gossiping[21], a political activity that destroys their well-being and inner resources.

In addition such a positive outlook may bridge differences in their relationships with supervisors and potentially lessen POPS unfavorable outcomes altogether (i.e., turnover, organizational cynicism). Finally, the wise use of the 'value of connections' would enable employees' to enhance their work performance (Sparrowe. Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001) and improve themselves.

Overall, the results reveal that employees who perceived their working place as political correspond positively to organizational cynicism. This finding demonstrates the implicit role managers play in managing people's organizational cynicism. It might be also fruitful from a managerial perspective to focus on

[21] gossip assumes to be a ''political'' function in the formation of inter-organizational power relations (Van Iterson and Clegg, 2008)

interventions that alleviate stressful events such as levels of organizational cynicism; to illustrate, this might be achieved by providing several flexible work arrangements and introducing strategies or training methods for employees' conflict resolution and anger confrontation.

Similarly, it may be also useful for managers searching for subgroups that carry out political activities with egocentric purposes which destroy the harmony within workplaces and increase organisational cynicism. For example, employees and managers should bend the rules of circumvent institutional policies (Meurs, Perrewe, Ferris, 2011) whilst it would be useful for Human Resource Officers to develop models (Shippmann et al., 2000) discouraging the dark sides of organizational politics and promoting and protecting healthy organizations against over-political and extremely-political employees (Chang, Chen and Levy, 2009). However, in order to be effective such interventions need to be consistent with the proposals by Rubin et al., (2009) which demonstrated that leader cynicism towards organizational change holds the seeds for employee cynicism to grow. Characteristically, they asserted that people 'manage the way they were managed' and as expected these employees did employ cynicism as a coping technique when they perceived POPS highly.

Again, the results reveal that POPS are associated with decreased levels of affective commitment and increased turnover intentions. Therefore, it might be useful for all policy makers who participate in political activities to be aware of the risks and effects of these actions not only to specific individuals but to the

entire organization. It would also be proven beneficial for employees to receive clear feedback and information regarding which behavior is desired by the organization (Rosen et al., 2006) or to align their individual goals with the goals of the organization (Witt, 1998).

Although eradicating all the dark sides of organizational politics is both implausible and unjustifiable, many beneficial outcomes can be achieved when organizations and their members shift their emphasis on ethical theory for any assessment of types of POPS. For example, this may be realized by sharing a common deontological framework and showing a strong commitment to shared ethics, values, and goals.

9.4 Limitations

Although the findings presented above contribute to the POPS literature in several ways, my research is not without its limitations. A variety of precautionary actions were taken in order to avoid potential limitations to this study; however, several limitations should be noted. Despite the fact that this thesis uses multiwave design whereby I collected repeated measures over time of the same individuals. The only way to draw definitive causal conclusions is to utilize an experimental method in which a random assignment can be used to eliminate alternative explanations. Finally, as scholars note a true longitudinal study involving at least three repeated measures of data should theoretically imply causality (Singer & Willet, 2003). Therefore, experimental methods should

continue to be used in conjunction with other methods in order to reinforce the validity of results.

In addition, numerous studies in organizational behavior have addressed the role of time in the relationships between constructs, thus, I theorized the role of time (before the economic crisis and six months after that) in my research and collected data at two points in time over a 6 month period. However, taking into account George and Jones (2000) recommendations it may be more appropriate to use different lags for measuring trust, Innovativeness and testing relationships among POPS and political influence behavior. Methodologically, some scholars (Pitariu and Ployhart in press) propose the measurement of variables of interesting in the longitudinal change at least three times.

Another limitation is that any and all change from Time 1 to Time 2 is by default linear and is impossible to determine the form of change over time (Rogosa, 1995). For example, my research design did not allow to address how quickly or how steeply POPS declines or increases over time and whether the changes observed were due to the true change or were the result of the measurement error suppressed scores (Rogosa, Brandt, & Zimowski, 1982; Singer & Willett, 2003). Therefore, my results should be interpreted accordingly.

Other limitations center on my choice of measures for interpersonal trust (trust to fellow workers). One explanation of this is based on the notion that interpersonal trust and POPS have different foci. The interpersonal and political behavior, as measured in this study, pertain more to fellow workers, while POPS

scale directs at the organisation as a whole, especially its management. Similar findings have been reported by Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud (2010).

Another limitation is the small sample in the pilot study (N=31). It should also be mentioned that in this pilot study the majority of the participants were professional women working in banking sector and the results (regarding the trust and POPS scales) should be interpreted within this context. The gender imbalance in this pilot may draw on women's accounts of difference and gender may also influence the findings drawn from the main surveys. Although these findings cannot be viewed as conclusive, however, echo prior studies that organizational politics operates as a gendering process (Mackenzie-Davey, 2008). Additionally, studies (i.e., Doldor et al., 2012) and political behaviors are seen consistent with masculine norms making politics 'a man's thing'.

One limitation is that common method variance may affect some of the analyses since I use supervisors' ratings to measure employee innovativeness behavior, OCB-I, and OCB-O. To illustrate, in the main study one supervisor provided ratings for multiple employees (1-5) which is nevertheless possible the results, are biased by the individual's response characteristics of different supervisors (Landy & Farr, 1980; Mount, Judge, Scullen, Sytsma, & Hezlett, 1998). Specifically, previous research uses self-reports measures of creativity and innovation (e.g., Axtell et al., 2000; Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2009). However, this is less a serious issue in the present investigation because multiple data (dyads matching) sources were used at different time points Time 1 and Time 2, thereby reducing threats of common method variance (Podaskoff et al., 2003).

In terms of data analysis of the main research, it may be argued that my model should tested using other algorithms for mediation and moderation in the structural equation modelling (SEM). That is, following an alternative analytic framework (i.e., all hypothesised relations to be estimated simultaneously) in the examination of my hypothesized model might be lessen problems associated with causal steps approaches (Bauer et al., 2006; Preacher et al., 2010). However, the relatively small sample at time 2 (<250) prevented me from following this path. Therefore, I took the more solid approach for using hierarchical regressions.

In addition, another limitation of this study pertains to the lack of evidence for full mediation support of my hypothesised model. As such, there may also be some concern with the mediation statistical examination following the Baron and Kenny's (1986) classic approach. It should be noted that the total direct relations were small and no significant in my mediation model (see analysis in Chapter 8). The significant direct effects (between the independent and dependent variables. path c) is a required condition for assessing mediation by users of the Baron and Kenny method. However, recent suggestions (Zhao, Lynch, and Chen, 2011; Hayes, 2009) indicated the direct effect condition is not a prerequisite for mediation assessing also indirect effects. Nonetheless, on the basis of my data future attempts are needed to take note of these suggestions and redress this limitation by employing Hayes (2009) approach when exploring mediation.

The sample size in the Time 2 (N=114) survey is another slight limitation. Scholars argued that the cut-off from other research regarding dyads seems to be around N=100 (e.g., Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). Although there is no standard rule with this type of research scholars, however, suggested that it should be enough power to test for non-independence and recommended that 35 dyads is a substantial amount (Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger 1998). Therefore, the sample size for both Time 1 and Time 2 appears to meet these criteria. Furthermore, the results reveal that the moderation and mediating hypotheses were significant, so this sample is unlikely to be a problem (Evans, 1985).

A limitation in the Pilot Study 1 (PSSE in English) is that the sample size was small (N=26). However, the results henceforth, based upon the sampled in the Pilot Study 3 (N=104) and CFA analysis (N=217), provided sufficient evidence for the PSSE scale validity. Consequently, they were strong to be detectable despite then low sample size employing in the Pilot Study 1. In summary, I made all possible efforts to attenuate these limitations.

Moreover, the sample consists of employees from a specific type of organization. In order to enhance the generalizability of political skill self-efficacy in organizational contexts, data should be collected from different types of organizations with a more diverse workforce and future studies should test the validity of the political skill self-efficacy scale in a larger sample.

The responses collected for Pilot Survey 1 and Pilot Survey 2 were based on self-reported responses which enhance the possibility for common source variance. Given, however, that these variables are best assessed via self-report, as others cannot observe employee political skill self-efficacy or internal locus of control, it was wise to ask respondents to assess their own political skill self-efficacy and perceptions of organizational politics.

9.5 Future research

Given that this research has addressed the impact that POPS has on individual, organizational and interpersonal variables, future research should explore other potential antecedents and consequences that fall within these domains. Taking into account that this research has explored the impact that personality has on perceptions of politics, it seems that future research should address other potential antecedents of POPS that fall within these domains. For example, scholars might be interested in examining whether narrow personality traits (e.g., Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2002) such as likeability with supervisors, or organizational attraction (Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinars, 2003; Kausel and Slaughter, 2011) may address an impact on prediction of POPS.

Further, researchers might be interested in considering the investigation of potential moderators and mediators beyond those included in the model. For instance, it would be useful to explore whether optimism could moderate the relationship among POPS and organizational outcomes (e.g., commitment, career success). Scholars suggest that POPS (Hochwarter and Thompson, 2010;

Hochwarter et al., in press) and optimism (Milam et al., 2004) have curvilinear effects on outcomes and may be most beneficial when employees are experiencing moderated levels of optimism and low levels of POPS. It is documented in the literature that optimists are individuals who seek control when facing uncertainty (Thompson and Schlehofer, 2008) and are better psychologically and physically adjusted than those less hopeful (Scheier and Carver. 1992).

Moreover, another interesting avenue waiting for investigation is the topic of hope and it might be appealing to explore whether a potential moderator to these relationships exists. Additionally, scholarship may benefit by considering the role of humor as a remarkable antidote (potential moderator) for stressful work environments like those governed by politics. Consistent with earlier assertions in the literature, Youssef and Luthans (2007) proved that hope, optimism, and resilience uniquely predict job satisfaction and work happiness. Furthermore, future research should also contemplate potential mediators to these relationships. For example, it might be worthy to determine whether the outcomes of POPS (e.g., burnout and turnover) are contingent on the psychological breach violations and perceived organizational support (Rousseau. 1998; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, Rhoades, 2002).

Clearly, future research should seek to further investigate alternative valid measures of political behavior (e.g., Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Andrews & Kacmar. 2001; Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Levashina & Campion, 2007) and clarify the

conceptual overlaps among these measures. It was emphasized (Judge, Erez, Bono, Thoresen, 2002) that greater consistency and careful separation regarding the labels used to describe these behaviors (self-monitoring, influence tactics, political skill) should be achieved (Bolino et al., 2008). At this point, additional components of political behavior should be tested as foci-specific (types of political behaviour focus on co-workers, supervisors, organisation as a whole) despite using a 'global' measure of political behaviour.

For instance, researchers could also examine political influence behaviour toward the highest level of the organisation and might consider measuring different types of political behaviors and their intensity (Byrne et al., 2005; Hochwarter, 2003a) by applying the methods used in the main study but extending them over longer time periods. It might be also useful for example, to develop a full scale validation that includes a comprehensive picture of a potential range of political behavior (i.e., sanctioned and non-sanctioned political behaviour) and what types of political tactics men and women use at work.

An interesting research question that deserves attention is whether the causal order of the relationships between POPS and trust as well as POPS and organizational cynicism can be reversed. For example, what would be the implications for an employee who mistrusts the manager and perceives its organization as a political entity, while the manager thinks that he performs fairly? Is the manager a highly political agent or the employee who does not display trust? Any future efforts would undoubtedly contribute to the way trust relates to POPS by incorporating a closer examination of managers who represent

the organization (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2010) and exploring (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011) whether 'top management' or 'overall organization' is used as a referent for the trust (a willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee).

As this study is one of the first to make salient the use of individual political skill self-efficacy this research should encourage organisational scholars to further validate it and consider whether certain levels of political skill self-efficacy are related to potential interpersonal outcomes. For example, it might be interesting to capture its impact on enjoyment (Shin & Zhou. 2003), its associations with goal attainment, promotability, productivity, negotiations and work happiness. In addition, it might be worth exploring its possible mediating role in the relationship between POPS and innovation.

Moreover, future research should consider uncovering the demographic characteristics (i.e. gender, race) that are related to a person's PSSE. For example, it could, therefore, consider whether political skill self-efficacy is particularly important for women, in terms of career (Gentry et al., 2012) advancement, and promotion (De Pater, Van Vianen, Bechtoldt, & Klehe, 2009) in male dominated organisations. Research has suggested that (Ely, 1995; Watkins et al., 2012); members of particular identity group (i.e. men) tend to occupy certain types of organisational groups (i.e. power positions) throughout the ranks of an organisation. This may strength employees' understanding of the gender-based related challenges that may emerge in organisations that are political arenas.

I also encourage future scholars to further investigate individual emotional reactions to POPS and PSSE. To explore how increased levels of political skill self-efficacy are related to expressions of aggression or joy. Finally, other scholars might wish to further validate the political skill self-efficacy scale either by using experiments or through more qualitative approaches.

Finally, as the development of any new scale needed ongoing validation, thereby this measure should be tested in a variety of settings and contexts. I have tested this scale in Hellas over a period of 6 months collecting two waves of data and for studies extending longer time periods more frequent measures may also be warranted. Furthermore, translating it in different languages aids to robust its psychometric properties (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). A variation is also likely to occur in the time it takes the form of political skill self-efficacy to shape efficacy views (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Detection of political skill self-efficacy may affect performance requirements such as creativity and productivity that we failed to detect in the current study (PSSE Study 2) .In sum, this study open the door for future research on the relationship of PSSE and other important work-related variables.

At a more macro-level, it would be also interesting for future research to assess its associations with positivity, job satisfaction and copying with organizational change (Aven, Luthans, Youssef, 2009; Judge et al., 1999). In addition, an interesting avenue that warrants attention is the positive psychological capital and this examination would add value in the application of

PSSE scale. Finally, it would be very interesting to test how proactive personality interacts with political skill self-efficacy and influences career success and networking behaviour. A question that requires further investigation is 'those who are proactive and scored highly in PSSE do they set higher career goals for themselves and have better career success than others who do not?' Due to recent transformations in the managerial role have given rise to the relevance of social effectiveness for managers' performance (Semadar, Robins and Ferris, 2006), the utility of political skill self-efficacy will increase our understanding of the competencies that affect the performance of managers. Therefore, it might be useful testing political skill self-efficacy in different types of industries and jobs including sales and customer services.

In addition, the main body of this study took place in Hellas, and in saying that, I suggest researchers to consider future investigations in different organizations, jobs, countries and cultures. The generalizability of the results to non-Greek cultural context is unknown without testing them in those contexts. Specifically, dark political activities in one culture may be a must in another.

Complementing the theory behind this thesis, it would be important for politics scholars to recognise an amalgam of theories which will help to explain deeper aspects of POPS such as virtue theory (cf. Rosen et al., 2009b) based on the participation and equity/fairness in the workforce and empowerment of employees (Gotsis & Kortesi, 2010). Overall, the available avenues for future research on the POPS seem to be plentiful.

9.6 Epilogue

This study is an attempt to examine the antecedents and outcomes of POPS, including mediating and moderating variables in these relationships. I hope that gaps are filled and answers are offered to questions previously arisen. Drawing from social exchange, and expectancy theory the model tested here shows the path to enter into new explorations for understanding POPS. The introduction, development and utility of political skill self-efficacy (PSSE) construct provides a framework for explaining organisational politics, and how differently employees act in the workplace when this is perceived as political entity.

As it is often the case POPS remains a fact of organizational life[22] (Vigoda, 2003). Many hidden aspects of POPS are still waiting for examination and the deeper scholars explore this phenomenon, the richer and more complete the advancement of knowledge would be. I trust that future researchers will fulfill POPS needs in the literature.

Although the existent literature on POPS defines all that we currently know this thesis sheds a fresh and new light in this knowledge and stimulates more theory building leading to constructive organizational politics. Future efforts to capture the essence of this immerse topic might not be in vain if they are based on the researchers' imagination; as noted by Albert Einstein

[22] Organizational politics are pervasive and, to a certain extent, necessary for organizations to function (Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Mayes & Allen,1977)

‘imagination points are more important than knowledge because they define all that we might yet discover and create’. Finally, unexplored areas in the world of POPS lay ahead of us.

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Appendices

APPENDIX 1

Durham Business School

DURHAM UNIVERSITY BUSINESS SCHOOL

2008

Dear employee

- **The present questionnaire pertains to a study about attitudes and views towards work. The study consists part a doctoral project undertaken in the Business School.**
- **The questionnaire should take 6-8 minutes to complete. Responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence. Your help is essential for the completion of the research, and will be greatly appreciated.**
- **Alternatively, to complete this questionnaire online please lick on the following link http://www.survey.bris.ac.uk/durham/creativity**

If you have any queries please contact Ms Stergiopoulou at Elena.stergiopoulou@durham.ac.uk or Prof Nikos Bozionelos at nikos.bozionelos@durham.ac.uk

Thank you very much for your help and cooperation!

Don't spend much time to each item but it is important to respond to all of them. Please keep in mind that there are not *wrong* or *right* answers!

Instructions: Using the following response scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about **YOURSELF** or **your ORGANISATION.**

Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Neither Agree Or Disagree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.	1	2	3	4	5
It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.	1	2	3	4	5
I understand people very well.	1	2	3	4	5
I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.	1	2	3	4	5
I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.	1	2	3	4	5
When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.	1	2	3	4	5
I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done	1	2	3	4	5
At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.	1	2	3	4	5
I spend a lot of time and effort at work developing connections with others.	1	2	3	4	5
I am good at getting people to like me.	1	2	3	4	5
It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.	1	2	3	4	5
I try to show a genuine interest in other people.	1	2	3	4	5
I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.	1	2	3	4	5
I have good intuition or "savvy" about how to present myself to others.	1	2	3	4	5
I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others.	1	2	3	4	5
I pay close attention to peoples' facial expressions.	1	2	3	4	5

Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability	1	2	3	4	5
When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work	1	2	3	4	5
When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky	1	2	3	4	5
I have often found that what is going to happen will happen	1	2	3	4	5
I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life	1	2	3	4	5
I am usually able to protect my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it	1	2	3	4	5
My life is determined by my own actions	1	2	3	4	5

I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others	1	2	3	4	5
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to do things as well as most other people	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I do not have much to be proud of	1	2	3	4	5
I take a positive attitude toward myself	1	2	3	4	5
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5
I wish I could have more respect for myself	1	2	3	4	5
I certainly feel useless at times	1	2	3	4	5
At times I think I am no good at all	1	2	3	4	5
I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	1	2	3	4	5
In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.	1	2	3	4	5
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	1	2	3	4	5
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	1	2	3	4	5

I have the ability by using verbal and no verbal expression to create a favourable image in the eyes of my boss	1	2	3	4	5
I am very good in creating a good impression at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am very political savvy employee	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident I can play up politically at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	1	2	3	4	5
I am competent to control effectively job decisions (e.g., promotions) in this department	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people at work	1	2	3	4	5

I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this company	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident (I know what to say and do) in using connections with a group of people in my job when I really need to advance my position	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I appear genuine in my interactions with others	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the job decisions procedures (e.g., payment and promotions procedures) used by the managers to arrive at your outcome (e.g. payment/promotions). Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements. To what extent:

Have those procedures been free of bias?	1 2 3 4 5
Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1 2 3 4 5
Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1 2 3 4 5
Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1 2 3 4 5
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1 2 3 4 5
Have you had influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1 2 3 4 5
Have those procedures applied consistently?	1 2 3 4 5

Here are a number of characteristics that you may or may not apply to you. For example do you agree that you are someone who <u>is relaxed most of the time</u>? Please tick a number to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

I see Myself as Someone Who...

Is relaxed, handless stress well	1 2 3 4 5
Can be tense	1 2 3 4 5
Worries a lot	1 2 3 4 5
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1 2 3 4 5
Can be moody	1 2 3 4 5
Remains calm in tense situations	1 2 3 4 5
Get nervous easily	1 2 3 4 5
Is depressed, blue	1 2 3 4 5

Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around here.	1 2 3 4 5
There is no place for yes-men around here: good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors	1 2 3 4 5
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1 2 3 4 5
There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.	1 2 3 4 5
People here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others.	1 2 3 4 5
Rewards come only to those who work hard in this organization	1 2 3 4 5
Promotions in this department generally go to top performers	1 2 3 4 5
I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies	1 2 3 4 5
People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.	1 2 3 4 5
I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of a few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	1 2 3 4 5
There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.	1 2 3 4 5
Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically	1 2 3 4 5

ABOUT YOU

- **PLEASE TICK THE HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION YOU HOLD**

[A]___ CSE
[B]___O' Levels/GCSE
[C]___A Levels
[D] ____ Diploma (e.g., B. Tec)
[E] ____ Bachelor's degree, please specify
[F] ____ Postgraduate Degree please specify

- **PLEASE TICK ONE ANSWER**

ARE YOU: ___Female ___Male

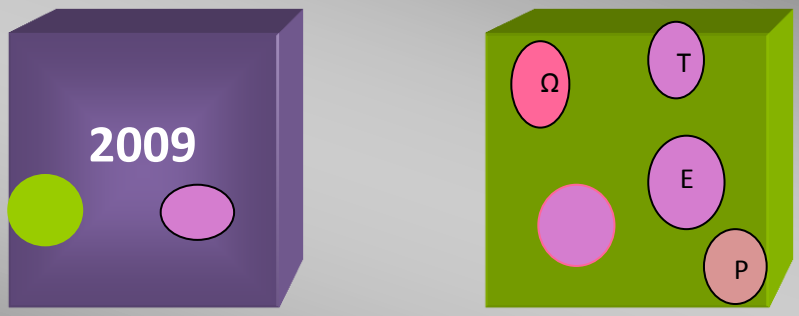
- **WHAT IS YOUR AGE? _____YEARS**
- **WHAT IS YOUR GRADE IN THE UNIVERSITY? (E.G., GRADE 3) _____**
- **HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN WORKED IN THIS ORGANIZATION?___ YEARS**
- **ARE YOU: ____MARRIED _____SINGLE _____DIVORCED**

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for telling us your views!

APPENDIX 2

Durham Business School



Job Attitudes

Employees

QUESTIONNAIRE

- **The present questionnaire refers to a study about employees' attitudes towards their work and their organization. It consists part of a doctoral thesis undertaken at Durham Business School**
- **Your responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence. No any third party will have access in the results which will be used only for the purposes of this research**
- **Your participation is voluntary but your help essential for the completion of the research and will be greatly appreciated**
- **The questionnaire should take around 20 minutes to complete**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION!

Please keep in mind that...

- **IT IS IMPORTANT TO RESPOND TO ALL THE QUESTIONS!**
- **DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME TO EACH QUESTION!**
- **THERE ARE NOT RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS!**

Instructions: *Using the following response scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about YOURSELF or your ORGANISATION. Please tick only ONE answer to each question!*

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
..1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 1	
1. I have the ability by using verbal and no verbal expression to create a favourable image in the eyes of my boss	1 2 3 4 5
2. I am very good in creating a good impression at work	1 2 3 4 5
3. I am very political savvy employee	1 2 3 4 5
4. I am confident I can play up politically at work	1 2 3 4 5
5. I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	1 2 3 4 5
6. I am competent to control effectively job decisions (e.g., promotions) in this department	1 2 3 4 5
7. I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people at work	1 2 3 4 5
8. I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	1 2 3 4 5
9. I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions	1 2 3 4 5
10. I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this company	1 2 3 4 5
11. I am confident (I know what to say and do) in using connections with a group of people in my job when I really need to advance my position	1 2 3 4 5
12. Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	1 2 3 4 5
13. I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments	1 2 3 4 5
14. I believe that I appear genuine in my interactions with others	1 2 3 4 5
UNIT 2	
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1 2 3 4 5
2. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	1 2 3 4 5

3. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1 2 3 4 5
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1 2 3 4 5
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	1 2 3 4 5
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	1 2 3 4 5
7. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1 2 3 4 5

***INSTRUCTIONS*:** *Please think some of your organization members. Choose one of them you contact mostly using the following scale indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable going to this listed contact*

With this individual we ….

UNIT 3[a]	**NEVER**	**SELDOM**	**OCCASIONALLY**	**VERY OFTEN**	**ALWAYS**
1. We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work	1	2	3	4	5
3. We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together	1	2	3	4	5
4. If I shared my problems with this person, I know s/he would respond constructively and caringly	1	2	3	4	5
5. I would have to say that we have both considerable emotional investments in our working relationship	1	2	3	4	5

***INSTRUCTIONS*:** *Please indicate the extent to which you could rely on each of your contact colleagues*

UNIT 3	**NEVER**	**SELDOM**	**OCCASIONALLY**	**VERY OFTEN**	**ALWAYS**
1. This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication	1	2	3	4	5
2. Given this person tract record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.	1	2	3	4	5

3. I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult be careless work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker	1	2	3	4	5
5. Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5
6. If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor him/her performance more closely	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONS*: *Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
..1	..2	3	4	5

UNIT 4	
1. My supervisor keeps my interests in mind when making decisions	1 2 3 4 5
2. I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.	1 2 3 4 5
3. If my supervisor asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I feel comfortable being creative because my supervisor understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.	1 2 3 4 5
5. It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5
6. Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my supervisor would be a mistake	1 2 3 4 5
7. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over decisions that are important to me	1 2 3 4 5
UNIT 5	
1. Favoritism than merit determines who gets ahead around here	1 2 3 4 5
2. There is no place for yes-men around here: good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors	1 2 3 4 5
3. Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1 2 3 4 5
4. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses	1 2 3 4 5

5. People here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others	1 2 3 4 5
6. Rewards come only to those who work hard in this organization	1 2 3 4 5
7. Promotions in this department generally go to top performers	1 2 3 4 5
8. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies	1 2 3 4 5
9. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down	1 2 3 4 5
10. I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of few individuals, not the work UNIT or the organization	1 2 3 4 5
11. There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them	1 2 3 4 5
12. Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically	1 2 3 4 5

UNIT 6	
1. Changes to the usual way of doing things at this organization are more trouble than they are worth.	1 2 3 4 5
2. Most people think that things around here will get better instead of worse.	1 2 3 4 5
3. When we try to change things here at this organization, they just seems to go from bad to worse	1 2 3 4 5
4. Efforts to make improvements are recognized within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5
5. Personal initiative doesn't count for much in this organization	1 2 3 4 5
6. People around here get credit they don't deserve for work they didn't do.	1 2 3 4 5
7. In this organization, it's what you know, not who you know, that counts.	1 2 3 4 5
8. It's hard to be hopeful about the future because people have such bad attitudes.	1 2 3 4 5
9. If people worked together on problems around here, things would improve.	1 2 3 4 5
10. Most projects and solutions around here don't get the support they need to succeed.	1 2 3 4 5
11. Some tough problems could be fixed if management would just get around to them.	1 2 3 4 5
12. I've pretty much given up trying to make suggestions for improvements around here.	1 2 3 4 5
I often think quitting	1 2 3 4 5
I will probably look for a new job in the next year	1 2 3 4 5
It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year	1 2 3 4 5

INSTRUCTIONS: *Please rate yourself as a worker in this company on the extent you perform the following activities.*

For example, <u>how often do you</u>.....

UNIT 7	**ΠΟΤΕ**	**ΠΟΛΥ ΣΠΑΝΙΑ**	**ΠΕΡΙΣΤΑΣΙΑΚΑ**	**ΜΕΤΡΙΑ**	**ΠΟΛΥ ΣΥΧΝΑ**
1. Help others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
2. Help others who have heavy work loads	1	2	3	4	5
3. Assist superiors with his/her work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Takes time to listen to co-workers problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5
5. Goes out of way to help new employees	1	2	3	4	5
6. Takes a personal interest in other employees	1	2	3	4	5
7. Passes along information to co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
1. Always attend and participate in work-related meeting regarding the organization	1	2	3	4	5
2. I keep abreast of developments in the company	1	2	3	4	5
3. I attend functions that are not required, but that aim to help the company's image	1	2	3	4	5
4. Keeps well informed where opinion might benefit organization	1	2	3	4	5
5. I encourage others to speak up at the meetings	1	2	3	4	5

❖ **Please now rate <u>how often</u> do you perform the following working activities.**

For example are you a person who……

UNIT 8	**NEVER**	**SELDOM**	**OCCASIONALLY**	**VERY OFTEN**	**ALWAYS**
1. Adapt novel solutions for conventional problems	1	2	3	4	5
2. I do not hesitate to challenge against the status quo of the organisation (regarding traditional procedures and approaches in pay and promotions)	1	2	3	4	5
3. At work I am trying to solve the same problems in different ways	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am open and responsive to changes provided by the department	1	2	3	4	5
5. In this organisation the best way to get ahead is to think the same way the rest of the employees do	1	2	3	4	5

6. I Spend lot of time at work to develop plans for implementing new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
7. I know how to be flexible and adaptable to the changes happen in this department	1	2	3	4	5
8. I do not stick in what others do during workday	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am pursuing creative ideas and promoting those ideas to my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am not applying new strategies or searching out new working methods and techniques into my job	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am using new ways to communicate with important organization members	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am an innovator	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONS: *The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the different ways people try to influence each other in work organizations. Please describe how much the person indicated above uses each type of behavior in an effort to influence you. For each behavior item, select one of the following response choices*

1 I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me
2 He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me
3 He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me
4 He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me
5 He/she uses this tactic very often with me

This person …..

UNIT 10	**NEVER**	**SELDOM**	**OCCASIONALLY**	**VERY OFTEN**	**ALWAYS**
1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal	1	2	3	4	5
2. Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change	1	2	3	4	5
6. Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change	1	2	3	4	5

7. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice	1	2	3	4	5
8. Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Offers to provide any assistance you need to carry out a request.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something	1	2	3	4	5
16. Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling you what it is	1	2	3	4	5
18. Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something	1	2	3	4	5
19. Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it	1	2	3	4	5
20. Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONS: *Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please tick a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement*

I see Myself as Someone Who...

UNIT 11					
Is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
Is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5

Is original, comes up with new ideas	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is reserved	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is helpful and unselfish with others	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Can be somewhat careless	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is relaxed, handles stress well	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is curious about many different things	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is full of energy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Starts quarrels with others	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is a reliable worker	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Can be tense	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is ingenious, a deep thinker	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Generates a lot of enthusiasm	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Has a forgiving nature	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tends to be disorganized	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Worries a lot	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Has an active imagination	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tends to be quiet	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is generally trusting	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tends to be lazy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is inventive	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Has an assertive personality	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Can be cold and aloof	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Perseveres until the task is finished	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Can be moody	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is sometimes shy, inhibited	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Does things efficiently	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Remains calm in tense situations	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Prefers work that is routine	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is outgoing, sociable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is sometimes rude to others	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Makes plans and follows through with them	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Gets nervous easily	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Likes to reflect, play with ideas	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Has few artistic interests	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Likes to cooperate with others	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is easily distracted	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

ABOUT YOURSELF

Instructions: *Please tick [χ] only one answer in the following statements*

- **Gender**

Male		Female	

- **Age**

	Years

- **Family status**

Married		Single		Divorced	

- **Indicate the number of children under 18 years old that you are responsible for** | |
- **Education Background**

Diploma	Gimnasium	Lyceum	BSc	MSc/MA	PhD	Other

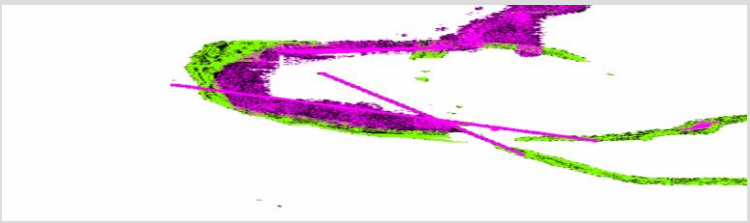
- **How many years do you work in this company? ……**
- **Do you have a permanent or temporary job? ……**
- **What is your hierarchical level in this company? ……**
- **What is your current occupation? ……**

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THE Q-U-E-S-T-I-O-N-N-A-I-R-E

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP!

APPENDIX 3

D B S



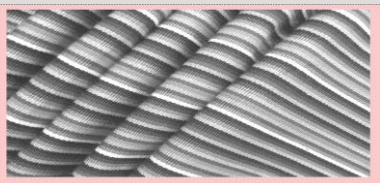
2009

Work attitudes

Εργασιακή συμπεριφορά

- The present questionnaire refers to a study about employees' attitudes towards their work and their organization. It consists part of a doctoral thesis undertaken at Durham Business School
- Your responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence. No any third party will have access in the results which will be used only for the purposes of this research
- Your participation is voluntary but your help essential for the completion of the research and will be greatly appreciated
- The questionnaire should take around 10 minutes to complete

✓ For more information about this research please do not hesitate to contact Elena Stergiopoulou at *Elena.stergiopoulou@durham.ac.uk*



THANK YOU VERY MUCH

FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE AND YOUR TIME

Dear Employee

Please keep in mind that…

- **IT IS IMPORTANT TO RESPOND TO ALL THE QUESTIONS!**
- **DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME TO EACH QUESTION!**
- **THERE ARE NOT RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS!**

INSTRUCTIONS: **Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please tick a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement**

I see Myself as Someone Who…

UNIT 1	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
Is depressive, blue	1	2	3	4	5
Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Is reserved	1	2	3	4	5
Is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
Can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
Is relaxed, handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5
Is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5
Starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
Is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5

	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
Generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5

Has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
Worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be quiet	1	2	3	4	5
Is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
Has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
Can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5

	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
Can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5
Is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
Does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
Remains calm in tense situations	1	2	3	4	5
Prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
Is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
Is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
Makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
Likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
Is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 2	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
I am always courteous even to people who are disagreeable.	1	2	3	4	5
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions: **Using the following response scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about YOURSELF or your BANK. Please tick only one answer to each question**

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE

UNIT 3	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Favoritism than merit determines who gets ahead around here	1	2	3	4	5
There is no place for yes-men around here: good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors	1	2	3	4	5
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1	2	3	4	5
There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses	1	2	3	4	5
People here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others	1	2	3	4	5
Rewards come only to those who					

work hard in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
Promotions in this department generally go to top performers	1	2	3	4	5
I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies	1	2	3	4	5
People in this bank attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down	1	2	3	4	5
I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	1	2	3	4	5
There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them	1	2	3	4	5
Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 4	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Changes to the usual way of doing things at this bank are more trouble than they are worth	1	2	3	4	5
Most people think that things around here will get better instead of worse	1	2	3	4	5
When we try to change things here at this bank they just seems to go from bad to worse	1	2	3	4	5
Efforts to make improvements are recognized within this bank	1	2	3	4	5
Personal initiative doesn't count for much in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
People around here get credit they don't deserve for work they didn't do.	1	2	3	4	5
In this bank, it's what you know, not who you know, that counts.	1	2	3	4	5

It's hard to be hopeful about the future because people have such bad attitudes.	1	2	3	4	5
If people worked together on problems around here, things would improve.	1	2	3	4	5
Most projects and solutions around here don't get the support they need to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
Some tough problems could be fixed if management would just get around to them.	1	2	3	4	5
I've pretty much given up trying to make suggestions for improvements around here.	1	2	3	4	5

About YOU

Please tick only one answer (x) in the following sentences.

- **AGE**

	YEARS

- **GENDER**

MALE	
FEMALE	

- **FAMILY STATUS**

MARRIED	
SINGLE	
DIVORCED	

- **EDUCATION**

Please, indicate the highest Educational qualification you hold

Gymnasium 3yrs	
Gymnasium 6yrs	
Lyceum	
Technical School	
TEI, Diploma	
University **Please specify**	
Postgraduate studies **Please specify**	
Other	

- **Indicate the number of children under 18 years old that you are responsible** ☐

- **How many years do you work in this bank ;** ☐ **Years**

- **What is your current hierarchical level in this bank;**

Employee	
Supervisor	
Manager	
CEO	
OTHER	

- **What was your hierarchical level when starting working in this department and what is now?**

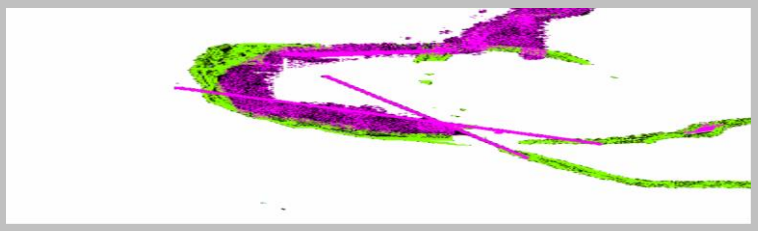
Firstly, I was _____ Now, I am _____

- **What is the department you are working in this bank;_____**

NOW YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE Q-U-E-S-T-I-O-N-N-A-I-R-E

Thank you very much for your time and participation!

APPENDIX 4



D B S

2009

Work attitudes

Εργασιακή συμπεριφορά

Dear Employee

- **The purpose of this second questionnaire is to learn more about the different ways people try to influence each other in working organizations.**
- **Your responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence**
- **Your participation is voluntary but your help essential for the completion of the research and will be greatly appreciated**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME & COOPERATION

Instructions: **Using the following response scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about YOURSELF or your BANK. Please tick only one answer to each question**

1	2	3	4	5
DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY

UNIT 1	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
I am very good in creating a good impression at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am a political savvy employee who can deal effectively with politics at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident I can behave and play up politically at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions in the bank	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident –I know what to say and do – in using connections with a group of people in my job in the bank	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I am a socially flexible worker	1	2	3	4	5

Please think some of your organization members in this bank. Choose one of them you contact mostly and using the following scale indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable going to this listed contact

Does this individual hold…… higher hierarchical position than you? YES ___ NO__
Or lower hierarchical position than you? YES ___ NO__

UNIT 2	NEVER	SELDOM	OCCASIONALLY	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work	1	2	3	4	5
We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.	1	2	3	4	5
We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together	1	2	3	4	5

✓ **Now, please indicate the extent to which you could rely on this individual…..**

UNIT 3	NEVER	SELDOM	OCCASIONALLY	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication	1	2	3	4	5
I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult be careless work.	1	2	3	4	5
Given this person tract record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job	1	2	3	4	5

✓ **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.**

Strongly Disagree ..1…… Somewhat Disagree ……2 …… Neither Agree or Disagree ……3…… Somewhat Agree ……4…… Strongly Agree ……5

UNIT 4	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
My supervisor keeps my interests in mind when making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.	1	2	3	4	5
Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my supervisor would be a mistake	1	2	3	4	5
If my supervisor asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were	1	2	3	4	5

partly to blame.					
If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over decisions that are important to me	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Instructions: **Now think that different individuals use different tactics or types behaviors in an effort to influence you at work. Choose one person and please describe how much that person uses the following types of behaviors in an effort to influence you. For each behavior item, select one of the following response choices**

1 I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me
2 He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me
3 He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me
4 He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me
5 He/she uses this tactic very often with me

Does this person has analogous hierarchical position with you? YES___ NO__
Or Higher than you? YES___ NO__
Or Lower than you? YES ___NO__

UNIT 5	**NEVER**	**SELDOM**	**OCCASIONALLY**	**VERY OFTEN**	**ALWAYS**
Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something	1	2	3	4	5
Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.	1	2	3	4	5
Offers to provide any assistance you need to carry out a request	1	2	3	4	5
Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out	1	2	3	4	5
Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something	1	2	3	4	5
Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem	1	2	3	4	5
Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling you what it is	1	2	3	4	5
Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something	1	2	3	4	5
Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it	1	2	3	4	5
Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.	1	2	3	4	5
Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 6	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5
I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 7	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
I often think quitting	1	2	3	4	5
I will probably look for a new job in the next year	1	2	3	4	5
It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 8	DISAGREE STRONGLY	DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	AGREE SOMEWHAT	AGREE STRONGLY
Favoritism than merit determines who gets ahead around here	1	2	3	4	5
There is no place for yes-men around here: good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors	1	2	3	4	5
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1	2	3	4	5
There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses	1	2	3	4	5
People here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others	1	2	3	4	5
Rewards come only to those who work hard in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
Promotions in this department generally go to top performers	1	2	3	4	5
I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies	1	2	3	4	5
People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down	1	2	3	4	5
I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	1	2	3	4	5
There is a group of people in my					

department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

ABOUT YOU

Please tick only one answer (x) in the following sentences.

➢ **AGE**

	YEARS

➢ **GENDER**

MALE	
FEMALE	

➢ **FAMILY STATUS**

MARRIED	
SINGLE	
DIVORCED	

➢ **EDUCATION**

Please, indicate the highest Educational qualification you hold

Gymnasium 3yrs	
Gymnasium 6yrs	
Lyceum	
Technical School	
TEI, Diploma	
University Please specify	
Postgraduate studies Please specify	
Other	

➢ **Indicate the number of children under 18 years old that you are responsible**

➢ **How many years do you work in this bank ;**

	Years

- **What is your current hierarchical level in this bank;**

Employee	
Supervisor	
Manager	
CEO	
OTHER	

- **What was your hierarchical level when starting working in this department and what is now? Firstly, I was _____ Now, I am _____**

- **What is the department you are working in this bank;_____**

YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE Q-U-E-S-T-I-O-N-N-A-I-R-E

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND YOUR ASSISTANCE!

APPENDIX 5

DURHAM
UNIVERSITY
BUSINESS SCHOOL

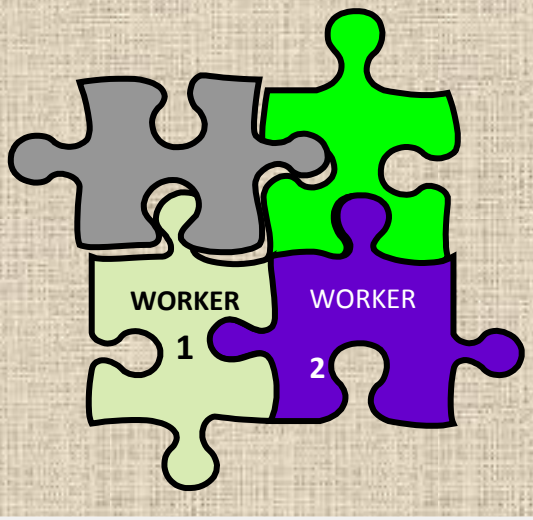
D B S

WORK

ATTITUDES

Dear Manager

- The present questionnaire refers to a study about employees' attitudes towards their work and their organization
- Your responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence
- No any third party will have access in the results which will be used only for the purposes of this research
- Your participation is voluntary but your help essential for the completion of the research and will be greatly appreciated



THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME!

INSTRUCTIONS: **Please rate your employees (no more than 5) on the extent they perform the following activities in this bank. Tick only one answer to each statement.**

Employee 1

✓ **Please rate each <u>how often your employees</u> perform the following working activities in the bank?**

UNIT 1	NEVER	SELDOM	OCCASIONALLY	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
8. Help others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
9. Help others who have heavy work loads	1	2	3	4	5
10. Assist superiors with his/her work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Takes time to listen to co-workers problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5
12. Goes out of way to help new employees	1	2	3	4	5
13. Takes a personal interest in other employees	1	2	3	4	5
14. Passes along information to co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
6. Always attend and participate in work-related meeting regarding the organization	1	2	3	4	5
7. S/he keeps abreast of developments in the company	1	2	3	4	5
8. S/he attends functions that are not required, but that aim to help the company's image	1	2	3	4	5
9. Keeps well informed where opinion might benefit organization	1	2	3	4	5
10. S/he encourages others to speak up at the meetings	1	2	3	4	5

✓ **Is a person who ……**

UNIT 2	NEVER	SELDOM	OCCASIONALLY	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS
1. Adapts novel solutions for conventional problems	1	2	3	4	5
2. S/he does not hesitate to challenge against the status quo of the organisation (regarding traditional procedures and approaches in pay and promotions)	1	2	3	4	5
3. At work s/he is trying to solve the same problems in different ways than others	1	2	3	4	5
4. S/he is open and responsive to changes provided by the department	1	2	3	4	5
5. In this organisation the best way to get	1	2	3	4	5

ahead is to think the same way the rest of the employees do					
6. S/he spends lot of time at work to develop plans for implementing new ideas	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. S/he is pursuing creative ideas and promoting those ideas to my colleagues	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8. S/he is applying new strategies in the job in this bank	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9. S/he is searching out new working methods and techniques into her/his job	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10. S/he is an innovator	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Please answer the following statements (x) about yourself

- **Gender**

MALE	
FEMALE	

- **AGE** | | **YEARS** |
- **Working years …….**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION

APPENDIX 6

DURHAM BUSINESS SCHOOL

2009

Work attitudes

Εργασιακή συμπεριφορά

Dear Employee

- The present questionnaire refers to a study about employees' attitudes towards their work and their organization. It consists part of a doctoral thesis undertaken at Durham Business School
- Your responses are anonymous and will be treated with the strictest confidence. No any third party will have access in the results which will be used only for the purposes of this research
- Your participation is voluntary but your help essential for the completion of the research and will be greatly appreciated
- The questionnaire should take around 10 minutes to complete

✓ If any information required please contact

Elena Stergiopoulou at Elena.stergiopoulou@durham.ac.uk or Pr. Nikos Bozionelos at nikos.bozionelos@durham.ac.uk

Two Birds, Escher 1938

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION

Please keep in mind that…

- **IT IS IMPORTANT TO RESPOND TO ALL THE QUESTIONS!**
- **DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME TO EACH QUESTION!**
- **THERE ARE NOT *RIGHT* AND *WRONG* ANSWERS!**

Instructions: **Using the following response scale, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about YOURSELF or your ORGANISATION. Please tick only one answer to each question.**

Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Neither Agree Or Disagree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

1---------- -2----------3----------4---------- --5

UNIT 1	STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
I am very good in creating a good impression at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am a political savvy employee who can deal effectively with politics at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident I can behave and play up politically at work	1	2	3	4	5
I am capable of making others feel that they are valued workers in this department	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in my ability to communicate easily and effectively with important people in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
I consider that I persuade others for my sincerity and honesty	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I am good at developing ties with those who are important in making economic and promotions decisions in the bank	1	2	3	4	5
I feel confident in influencing those supervisors who have control over my future in this bank	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident –I know what to say and do –in using connections with a group of people in my job in the bank	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to others, my ability to use networking with very important people in the department for making things happen is very good	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I can handle problems that come up in political environments	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that I am a socially flexible worker	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 2	STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself	1	2	3	4	5
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them	1	2	3	4	5
In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I can succeed at most my endeavor to which I set my mind	1	2	3	4	5
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well	1	2	3	4	5
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 3	STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on a equal basis with others	1	2	3	4	5
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to do things as well as most other people	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I do not have much to be proud of	1	2	3	4	5
I take a positive attitude toward myself	1	2	3	4	5
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5
I wish I could have more respect for my self	1	2	3	4	5
I certainly feel useless at times	1	2	3	4	5
At times I think I am no good at all	1	2	3	4	5

UNIT 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability	1	2	3	4	5
When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work	1	2	3	4	5
When I get what I want, it's because I'm lucky	1	2	3	4	5
I have often found that what is going to happen will happen	1	2	3	4	5
I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life	1	2	3	4	5
When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it	1	2	3	4	5
I am usually able to protect my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
My life is determined by my own actions	1	2	3	4	5

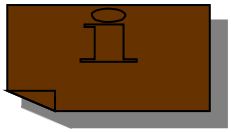
UNIT 5	STRONGLY DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
Favoritism than merit determines who gets ahead around here	1	2	3	4	5
There is no place for yes-men around here: good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors	1	2	3	4	5
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas	1	2	3	4	5
There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses	1	2	3	4	5
People here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others	1	2	3	4	5
Rewards come only to those who work hard in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
Promotions in this department generally go to top performers	1	2	3	4	5
I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies	1	2	3	4	5

People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

UNIT 6	**STRONGLY DISAGREE**	**SOMEWHAT DISAGREE**	**NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**	**SOMEWHAT AGREE**	**STRONGLY AGREE**
My feelings are easily hurt	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am a nervous person	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am a worrier	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am often tense or “high strung”	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I often suffer from “nerves”	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am often troubled by feelings of guilt	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
My mood often goes up and down	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Sometimes I feel miserable for no reason	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am an irritable person	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I often feel fed up	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

INSTRUCTIONS: **The following items refer to the procedures about work decisions (for example payments and promotions) used by managers to arrive at your outcomes such as payments and promotions in the bank. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.**

UNIT 7	**STRONGLY DISAGREE**	**SOMEWHAT DISAGREE**	**NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**	**SOMEWHAT AGREE**	**STRONGLY AGREE**
Have those procedures been free of bias?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have you had influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Have those procedures applied consistently?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**



ABOUT YOUR SELF

Please, tick (X) ONLY one answer in the following statements

- **AGE**

	YEARS

- **GENDER**

MALE	
FEMALE	

- **FAMILY STATUS**

MARRIED	
SINGLE	
DIVORCED	

- **EDUCATION**

Please, indicate the highest Educational qualification you hold

Gymnasium 3yrs	
Gymnasium 6yrs	
Lyceum	
Technical School	
TEI, Diploma	
University Please specify	
Postgraduate studies Please specify	
Other	

- **How many years do you work in this company?**

	Years

- **What is your hierarchical level in this company?**

Employee	
Supervisor	
Manager	
CEO	
Other	

- **What is your current department in this company? _____**

YOU HAVE NOW COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE!