

Impact of Leadership Perception on Job Involvement, Organizational Politics and Commitment: An Empirical Evaluation in Banking Industry of Pakistan

Huma Sarar

Department of Management Sciences, COMSATS Institute of Information Technology, Pakistan

ABSTRACT

This study empirically examined a chain of workplace influences involving the influence of leadership on organizational politics and, in turn, the influence of organizational politics on job involvement and organizational commitment. The overarching question addressed by the study is to what extent, if any, do employees' experiences of leadership affect their political perceptions and, in turn, to what extent do those political perceptions then influence employees' involvement in their job and commitment to their organization. This was a study of patterns of organizational influences and how leaders shape organizational realities through their influence on employee perceptions of workplace politics. The concept of leadership examined in this study was obtained by tapping employees' experience and perception of their supervisors and analyzing how that affects, in the first hypothesized causal link, the perceptions of organizational politics. The second hypothesized causal link was then expected to occur between the perception of politics influencing levels of job involvement and organizational commitment.

Keywords: Leadership, Involvement, Politics, Commitment, Pakistan

INTRODUCTION

An employee's experience and perception of leadership may represent important antecedents to his or her perception of politics in the workplace. The conceptual relationship between the constructs was established in two ways. First, leadership, organizational politics, job involvement, and organizational commitment shared the same organizational DNA researchers described as endemic and inevitable (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Greenberg, 1987; Pfeffer, 1981; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Secondly, these constructs shared many of the same influence effects and outcomes (Zellers, Hochwarter, Perrew, Miles, & Kiewitz, 2001; Scandura, 1998). Discussing the aspect of influence, Pfeffer (1977) suggested that the primary function of leadership is the management of the perceptions and meanings that influence organizational outcomes. Among these perceptions, perception of politics is an influential type of organizational phenomenon. The predominant focus of the empirical research to date has centered on the adverse nature of political perceptions in the work environment.

Research found correlations between political perceptions and largely negative outcomes such as job related stress (Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy, 1989); uncertainty (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995); job ambiguity (Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980); organizational ambiguity (Perrew, Ferris, Frink, & Anthony, 2000); lack of understanding regarding the wider organizational impetus (Zahra, 1986); job anxiety (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Ferris, Frink, Galang, et al., 1996); intent to

turnover (Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999), and psychological withdrawal (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). Further, political perceptions negatively linked to desired outcomes such as organizational commitment (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997), citizenship behaviors toward the organization and the supervisor (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003), job satisfaction (Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, Zhou, & Gilmore, 1996), and supervisor satisfaction (Ferris, Frink, Galang, et al., 1996). In general, people in organizations typically responded to their perceptions of politics in one of three ways: by withdrawal or planning to quit (intent to turnover), by increased work involvement, or by reacting with similar or more aggressive political behaviors (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992).

While the variables included in this study occur across individual, job-work environments and organizational levels, the survey instruments specifically tapped individual (employee) perceptions of politics, leader-member exchange, leadership orientation, job involvement, and organizational commitment occurring at the job-work level. The study design specifically explored the relationship between an employee's experience and perception of the leader, and the nature of the relationship between employee and leader, that could create or inhibit perceptions of politics, which, in turn drove individual responses, and yielded specific organizational outcomes (Carlson & Perrewe, 1995). According to this model, supervisors (as leaders) directly affected the political environment, shaping individual affect toward their job and the larger organization. This is especially germane to the implementation of organizational strategies designed to manage employees' perceptions of understanding and control (Valle & Perrewe, 2000).

The purpose of this study specifically responded to the Kacmar and Baron's (1999) call for a closer examination of possible links existing between organizational politics and leadership as a fundamental organizational process. While many of the predictors outlined in Kacmar and Baron's (1999) meta-analytic are conceptually related to the notion or function of leadership (Machiavellianism, relationship with supervisor; hierarchical level, feedback, and promotional opportunities), there are few empirical, leadership-specific, studies of the leadership-organizational politics relationship. This study was focused on two causal links. The first linkage in the research examined the role of leadership on political perceptions. The second linkage considered the influence of political perceptions and job involvement and organizational commitment. While the political perceptions-outcomes relationship has received greater research attention, research specific to the first linkage considered in this study, individual-level predictors of organizational politics, remains a fruitful area of inquiry (Kacmar & Baron, 1999).

The intent of this study was to contribute toward satisfying a conceptual and empirical gap existing in the understanding of leadership-politics-outcomes processes. This study responded to a need for further examination of the antecedent influences on these variables within the dynamic network of affective and behavioral responses linking to political perceptions and its outcomes. Thus, the overarching research objective was to contribute to understanding the relationship between leadership, organizational politics, and organizational outcomes by empirically examining the influence of two leadership constructs, leader-member exchange and the full range leadership model, as predictors of perceptions of politics and, in turn, to test the influence of perceptions of politics as a predictor of two organizational outcomes - job involvement and organizational commitment.

The significance of the study is two-fold: first, it contributes to the nomological network in the field of leadership by illuminating the relationship between leadership, organizational politics, and organizational outcomes. The study proposes an integrated, process model of leadership and organizational politics that reinforces the importance of leadership influence on

organizational politics. The study addresses the need for a clearer understanding of how leaders, in their role as social constructionists, are able to frame the organizational environment, thus altering perceptions of events as positive, rather than negative, affect. The conceptual and empirical integration of the leadership and POP constructs promises to benefit the organizational politics research literature. Secondly, the study considers larger conceptual questions about the role of leadership within organizational life in establishing or deconstructing political perceptions. The study also contributes to research on the perception of politics by examining political perceptions in relation to other important constructs. Additionally, the research identifies differences in the predictive value of various factors within the constructs of interest. The overarching objective of the study is to contribute to its field by integrating important research streams.

A greater understanding of these relationships enables better management of rapidly changing organizational environments, while reducing perceptions of organizational politics and its negative outcomes (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Ferris, Frink, Galang, et al., 1996). Because political behaviors and perceptions of those behaviors generally occur in the highly ambiguous and uncertain settings of organizational change, understanding the interplay between contextual factors and politics is critical to employ leadership strategies that create psychological consistencies and yield desired affective and cognitive reactions (Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2002). Leadership represents an important strategic mechanism that either contributes to or reduces employee perceptions of politics. Strategies targeting the job-work environment are increasingly important as managers and leaders implement methods of coping with organizational uncertainty.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The original goals of organizational redesign did not simply involve downsizing to reduce overhead, but reassessing and altering the company's fundamental business practices in response to competitive forces. This quest involved altering organizational processes and systems and even meant eliminating hierarchical levels and entire business units (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Cameron, Freeman, & Mishra, 1993; Freeman, 1994; Mishra & Mishra, 1994; Grey & Mitev, 1995). As an increasing number of organizations pursued these goals, Kets de Vries and Balazs (1997) identified a progression in organizational change in which restructuring (getting smaller), led to reengineering organizational processes (getting better), and ultimately resulted in reinventing the organization (getting smarter). The original hope for leadership, in this process, was that it would create effective organizations by demonstrating change capacity, adapting to situational uncertainty, and functioning well within ambiguous contexts. This adaptation, however, depended on other countervailing factors such as trust, perceptions of trustworthiness attributed to authorities and other social entities, particularly in an uncertain or ambiguous environment (Van den Bos, 2001; Van den Bos & Lind, 2001). Furthermore, because this organizational reinvention focused primarily on the human resources aspect, leadership was charged with recreating employee identification, loyalty, and involvement with the organization. The goal was to create effective yet flexible patterns amidst organizational chaos (Gleick, 1987; Stacey, 1996; Wheatley, 1999). While this flexible pattern in organizations emerged as innovation behaviors, the lack of structure gave rise to a proactive employee attitude of "better to ask for forgiveness than to seek permission" (Frost & Egri, 1990).

Leader-member exchange theory posits that leaders possess limited personal, social, and organizational resources and must discriminate between and among their subordinates in order to allocate such resources selectively (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Leaders do not interact with all subordinates equally, and this, over time, results in the formation of exchanges between leaders and followers that vary in quality. Interactions in higher-quality exchanges are characterized by increased levels of information

exchange, mutual support, informal influence, trust, and greater negotiating latitude and input in decisions. In contrast, lower quality exchanges are characterized by more formal supervision, less support, less trust, and less attention. Given this phenomenon, leader-member exchange focuses on the influence of the manager-employee dyadic relationship on work attitudes and organizational well-being (Basu & Green, 1995, 1997; McCrane, 1991). Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) referred to this focus as a "relational demography" that mapped the differences existing between supervisor and subordinate. A conceptual premise underlying the supervisor-subordinate exchange in leader-member exchange theory is the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), which suggests that individuals are attracted to one another based on various shared features, such as demographic characteristics and attitudes. These factors influence interpersonal attraction (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) and inclusion or exclusion in proximal groups.

Another organizational dynamic linking leadership and politics is uncertainty. Greiner and Schein (1988) pointed to the "push-pull effect" on personnel in organizations that are attempting to respond to environmental cues through adaptive change. This change is a major source of uncertainty, and uncertainty, in turn, is a major source of organizational politics. Ferris and King (1991) have seen uncertainty and ambiguity as two environmental antecedents underlying organizational politics. Dealing with this uncertainty, however, is the responsibility of leadership. Thus, leadership involves shifting employee perceptions and encouraging effectual response to increasingly ambiguous and uncertain conditions in the organization. Jongbloed and Frost (1985), therefore, suggested that the real job of leaders in the organization is the management of employee interpretations or understandings of organizational life. The chief function of leadership is to provide essential cues that frame organizational conditions, goals, and demands and that foster for employees the perception of congruence between organizational conditions and positive outcomes for the organization.

Putnam and Mumby (1993) pointed to myth of rationality pervading Western culture and underlying the organizations within. While ideally predictable, consistent, and scripted, the organizational environment is more accurately described as a political stage. Organizational actors seek to satisfy not only their organizational interests but also personal desires and personal needs. This is one reason why exclusively rational models of organizational behavior explain only a portion of observed behaviors (Farrell & Petersen, 1982). Individuals in an organization are acting both as partners with and rivals of other individuals—rivals, that is, for the beneficial allocation of resources. These partner/rival roles are interchangeable, depending on goal orientation and the skill with which that orientation is operationalized (Witt, 1998). Farrell and Petersen (1982) suggested that employees who are artful in the practice of organizational politics access higher levels of power. Once attained, a higher level of power in turn reinforces political behavior because increased opportunity creates the potential for fulfilling even more personal goals. This is all the more likely in organizations where individual and organizational goals do not align (Randall et al., 1999).

As research evolves in the area of organizational politics, one important consideration is how organizations can strengthen the employees' sense of understanding and control. Several studies link the variables of understanding and control to organizational conditions, an employee's tenure within the organization, and an employee's tenure with his or her supervisor (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons 1994; Katz, 1980; McGrath, 1976); tenure working for a supervisor (Gilmore et al., 1996); lessening perceived ambiguity within the organization (Sutton & Kahn, 1987); person-climate fit (Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997); person-organization fit (Judge & Ferris, 1992, Farmer & Maslyn, 1999); organizational exposure increasing familiarity (Tetrick & LaRocco, 1987); socialization (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994); participative decision-making (Witt et al., 2000); met

expectations (Cohen & Vigoda, 1998); trust (Shore & Wayne, 1993); teamwork (Valle & Witt, 2001); contingency approach for demographic subgroups (Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996); development and exercise of political skill (Valle & Perrewe, 2000); and participative goal-setting (Witt, 1998). Kacmar and Baron (1999) pointed to research suggesting the antecedents and outcomes of political perceptions reach far beyond the framework of the early political perception models (Ferris, Fedor, et al., 1989; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Gilmore, Fried, & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar, & Ferris, 1989) to other important organizational variables that serve as mechanisms of understanding and control.

Vigoda (2000) pointed to an emerging and increasingly complex view of organizational politics as an ongoing social construction, the meaning, significance, and consequences of which vary as a function of the perceptions of organizational actors. Differences in the use of power, degree of organizational fairness (justice), and the social exchanges occurring across levels of an organization's hierarchy are factors that influence organizational outcomes, including the occurrence of politics (Galang & Ferris, 1997; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). The relationship of organizational politics to these factors, therefore, varies in direction and magnitude according to the degree to which they influence feelings of understanding and perceived control. Operationalizations of moderating influences on perceptions of politics are myriad, but they include the following: understanding (Ferris, Frink, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1994; Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996); personal control (Bozeman et al., 2001); power orientation (Dill & Pearson, 1984); interpretation of political behavior (Buchanan & Badham, 1999); trust (Parker et al., 1995); person-organization fit (Vigoda & Cohen, 2002), and organizational commitment (Vigoda, 2000); and job stress or job burnout (Perrewe et al., 2000). The concepts of understanding and control are among the most widely cited moderators serving as "antidotes" for organizational politics.

The focus of this study, the influence of the relationship between supervisor and employee on perceptions of politics and organizational outcomes, warranted attention to how research has linked perception of politics to outcomes such as organizational commitment, turnover, and performance (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Tsui, Egan, & Porter, 2002). Perception of politics has been linked to scores of variables including hierarchical level (Allen et al., 1980; Zahra, 1986; Parker et al., 1995); organizational formalization (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001); span of control (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Anderson, 1994); skill variety, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Ferris & Kacmar); advancement opportunity (Cross, 1973; Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981); supervisor influence (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986); co-worker influence (Price & Mueller, 1986a, 1986b); demographic information (self-reported information); Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970; Biberman, 1985); self-monitoring (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Kirchmeyer, 1990); personality and work attitude (Biberman; Kirchmeyer); and need for power (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001). As with politics and political perceptions in general, these outcomes of political perceptions are predicated on the assumption that organizational politics is largely a negative, downward spiraling phenomenon. This makes escalation an important characteristic of political perceptions, because it represents the affective and behavioral scope and severity of political spirals (Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995). Further, Ralston and Gustafson (1989) argued that escalation of perceptual cues suggests that individuals react to political environments by increasing their use of impression management tactics.

The results of other recent research studies also suggest that job involvement differs from other related constructs such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, organizational support, and organization commitment (Blau, 1985; Shore, Thornton, & Shore, 1990; Patterson & O'Driscoll, 1990; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Elloy, Everett, & Flynn, 1991, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). These findings counter concerns over concept redundancy (Morrow, 1983), among the broad range of what Bateman and Organ (1983) referred to as citizenship behaviors that routinely surrogate for various forms of

workplace commitment. Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1995) argued the psychological importance of job involvement and link organizational commitment to individuals who are relatively high in job involvement as more susceptible to organizational change. Conversely, lower job involvement employees are immune to shifts in the work environment and are more consistent in their level of organizational commitment (Elloy et al., 1995). Finally, Witt, Patti, and Farmer (2002) pointed to a closely related construct, work identity, moderated the link between perceptions of politics and the outcome of organizational commitment commenting “employees who identified primarily with their occupations were less affected by the level of perceived politics in the organization in the consideration of their commitment than were employees who identified primarily with their employing organizations” (p. 486).

Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with, and is willing to put forth effort on behalf of, the organization. Organizational commitment is a central construct in organizational research as a critical variable influencing many aspects of organizational life and outcomes. These related constructs include psychological withdrawal, absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job involvement, and quality of leader-member exchange (Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Commitment to the organization, generically termed “organizational commitment” is most often operationalized as an affective or psychological state central to the employee organizational relationship influencing employee behaviors such as intent to turnover, job satisfaction, and has implications for the employee’s decision to remain or leave the organization (Benkhoff, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A key element of affective commitment is the employee-organization goal congruence that influences positive job performance behaviors as well as extra-role behaviors. As with the leadership framework, affective organizational commitment links to central organizational constructs such as withdrawal, intent to turnover, job satisfaction, job involvement, motivation, loyalty, and leader subordinate relations (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Katz, 1964; Locke, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Epitropaki and Martin (1999) note the volume of research attention examining the role of organizational commitment and link a similar construct, organizational identification and positive psychological reactions to leadership behaviors (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001).

Hypotheses

The primary research interest, as presented throughout the review of the literature, centers on the function of perceptions of politics. As discussed in the review of the literature, political perceptions represent both a ubiquitous and influential organizational phenomena. As such, it is important for organizational researchers and practitioners to understand the antecedents and outcomes of organizational politics. The expectation is that leadership represents an influential construct in the creation of many organizational and individual behaviors and perceptions. In review of the research questions, the notion that leadership behaviors observed by the employee influence perceptions of a political organizational environment is reflected in the hypothesized relationships between leadership behaviors measured by the multi-factor leadership questionnaire. Following a behavioral, observational approach to leadership, the leader-member exchange construct takes a perceptual approach to leadership by tapping employee perceptions of the leader-follower relationship. The hypothesized relationships between the variables contained within the two leadership constructs measured by the scale and perceptions of organizational politics measured by the POP scale, are outlined below.

H1: Charismatic leadership style, a type of transformational leadership, is negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics.

H2: Individualized consideration leadership behaviors, a transformational leadership factor, are negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics.

H3: Intellectual stimulation as a transformational leadership behavior is negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics.

H4: Contingent reward, a transactional leadership style, is positively related to political perceptions.

H5: Active management-by-exception, a transactional leadership approach, is positively related to perceptions of politics.

H6: Laissez-faire leadership behaviors, a transactional form of leadership, are positively related to political perceptions.

H7: The perceived quality of the relationship between the employee and supervisor, as measured by the leader-member exchange, is negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study was designed to examine whether specific causal relationships existed between four central constructs across seven independent leadership variables, one mediating variable of political perceptions, and two dependent variables of job involvement and organizational commitment. The central question of the study centered on whether leadership influences political perceptions, which in turn, influence critical organization and individual outcomes. In order to assess the predictive linkages, the variables were tested using multiple and simple regression analyses.

While positivist in its foundation, the study was not entirely free from a constructivist influence as research that taps individuals' subjective understanding of their experiences forming what Berger and Luckman (1966) referred to as a social construction of reality. Hypothesized causal relationships map the phenomenon or reality by empirical examination through logical and statistical positivism (Czaja & Blair, 1996). The causal path model statistically determines how close the proposed path models relationships are to reality. The aim of the research from an axiological perspective was to conduct the study free from researcher bias and value-neutral. Following the dominant quantitative approach, the quantitative method identifies causes that influence outcomes by empirical observation and measurement within a non-experimental statistical design.

It is important to consider the definition of non-experimental research as ordered empirical inquiry in which the researcher, as Kerlinger (1986) stated, "does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables" (p. 348). Also referred to as "ex-post facto" research, this type of research is designed to investigate cause-effect relationships by "observe g existing consequences and searching back through the data to identify probable causal factors" (Isaac & Michael, 1997, p. 54).

The full range leadership model was measured by the multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). The Multi-Factor Questionnaire measured the employees' experience of supervisor's leadership style whether transactional or transformational, also included the non-leadership model referred to as laissez-faire leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1993). This survey used the MLQ Form 5X-Short Form 36-item, 9-factor version (Bass & Avolio, 1995) that focused on the condensed six-factor version (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999) including the transformational leadership styles of charismatic, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The transactional leadership styles included contingent reward and active management-by-exception. The non-leadership style, laissez-faire, was operationalized as

passive/avoidant. Considered a multi-dimensional measure of leadership styles, the MLQ subscales do not represent opposite ends of a unidimensional continuum, but measure distinct styles a leader may exhibit simultaneously or independently.

Leader-Member Exchange Questionnaire (LMX). The multi-dimensional leader-member exchange (LMX-MDM) scale measures in-group, out-group leader-to-follower orientation. Four indicators or factors operationalized the predictor variable of leader member exchange as measured by the 12-item scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The scale measured the quality or level of an employees' relationship with their supervisor across four dimensions. Employees categorized as part of the supervisor's "out-group" are more likely to report low quality exchanges, while employees considered as part of the "ingroup" more frequently report high quality exchanges with their supervisor. This unidimensional scale measuring relational quality was comprised of four factors including professional respect, loyalty, contribution, and affect.

Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS). This study used the 15-item Perceptions of Organizational Politics scale (POP) (Ferris, Fedor, et al., 1989; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) validated by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). This POP model originally included fifteen items, with six items from the earlier 1991 (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991) original model that loaded across three factors: general political behavior; go along to get ahead; and pay policies and procedures. This study kept the three indicators (factors) that tapped the employee's perception of the frequency and degree to which politics occurs within their workplace. While there was support for the predictor variables that negatively and positively relate to political perceptions, the hypothesized relationships between the variables posited that transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles positively related to political perceptions while transformational leadership styles and high-quality (levels) leader-member relationships negatively related to perceptions of politics.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Organizational commitment was measured using Mowday et al. (1979) 9-item short-form five-point version. The Organization Commitment Questionnaire consistently yielded satisfactory internal and temporal stability, discriminant, convergent and predictive validity discussed further in Chapter 4. The scale focused on the affective commitment of the employee commitment to the organization. Commitment in this instrument was characterized as devotion and loyalty to an employee's employing organization, and not occupation or job (Meyer et al., 2002).

Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ). The instrument used to measure job involvement was Kanungo's (1982) Job Involvement Questionnaire. This scale is a one dimensional measure consisting of 10 items, designed to assess an employee's psychological identification specific to the job and not the organization, or career field. The scale tapped the employees' affective attachment and the extent of job-personal identity congruence.

Data were collected by means of a survey questionnaire that contained the measurement scales as well as demographic questions including gender, organizational tenure, educational level, and job-work category. The 82-item questionnaire is presented at the end of this dissertation. The returned questionnaires were checked for missing data at the various sites. Incomplete returns were only eight total as the supervisors encouraged the respondents to fully complete the surveys. After discarding incomplete surveys, 214 fully completed questionnaires were left which were then entered into an electronic version for data collection. The data were coded and entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program. The next step was to clean the data and check for errors by looking at the individual responses and using the frequencies function to identify data entry errors, for example, entries that were above or below the scale choices of 1 through 5. The dataset

provided 214 useable responses for the key variable scales as well as demographic data of the sample (N = 214). The sample demographics comprised 214 respondents in which 54% were male and 46% female. The average employee age was 38 ranging from 19 to 69 years with 24.3% earning a high school diploma, 22.4% completing some college coursework, and 35% attaining a Bachelor's degree. All employees attained at least a high school diploma.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the mean, standard deviation score, and a scale range index for each sub-scale contained within the measurement instruments.

Table 1: Descriptive Results

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Contingent Reward	8.5	2.502
Intellectual Stimulation	10.19	3.065
Active Management	6.76	3.402
Passive/Avoidant	21.29	6.804
Charismatic	33.03	8.446
Individualized Consideration	10.09	3.378
Leader-Member Exchange	32.84	10.148
Perception of Politics	24.90	12.282
Job Involvement	20.97	7.635
Organizational Commitment	22.44	7.207

Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) cautioned the researcher to be particularly careful in referring back to the original research framework in interpreting the results. Bocarnea (2003, personal communication) suggested that finding a mathematically significant model without an understanding of the theory or extant research underlying the finding was like driving a car that gets 100 miles per gallon, but not knowing where you are going. The primary reason for conducting stepwise regression in this study was to gain the advantage of incorporating both regression variable selection approaches while eliminating researcher bias toward the expected outcomes. The independent variables were entered in as a stepwise regression equation in SPSS in a multiple regression analysis, the results of which are shown in Table 2 containing each of the leadership subscales contained within the full range leadership model, the leader-member exchange scale presenting the unstandardized (B), and standardized (β) regression coefficients, and t-statistics.

In regression, the standardized regression coefficient indicates how much each independent variable contributes to the variability in the dependent in the units being measured. In this study the units of measure were consistent among all the scales and simply represented a rating of disagreement to agreement along a 0-to-4 (rescaled from 1-to-5) continuum. Although the standardized units quantified the level of agreement with each scale item, the importance was being able to predict variability relative to the other variables, e.g., that with each increase of one unit of leadership, perceptions of politics decreased by one unit (Agresti & Finlay, 1997). One important feature of this regression analysis included being able to compare the relative importance of two or more independent variables by interpretation of betas, and the increase of the predictive value over other independent variables shown in Table 2. The incremental increase for each independent variable in the causal model explained the variation in the dependent variable, political perceptions. The regression results, R², Adjusted R², and the change in R², are presented in the following paragraphs.

In step 1 (Model 1), passive/avoidant (R) explained 65% of the variation in political perceptions (R² = .644, $p > .01$). The next step (Model 2), the variable, active management-by-

exception with passive/avoidant (R) explained 67% ($R^2 = .677, p > .01$) of the total variance that provided an additional .04% of the model's predictive value. The next variable added in step 3 (Model 3) was charismatic leadership, together with the other predictors explained 69% ($R^2 = .692, p > .01$) and added a .016% increase in the variance in the dependent variable above the single variable model. The final hierarchical analysis step 4 (Model 4), added the last significant predictor of the dependent that explained, along with the other three predictors, 70% of the variance in political perceptions ($R^2 = .700, p > .01$). The standardized regression coefficients demonstrated that the four predictor variables accounted for 70% of the variance in perceptions of politics. There were no significant effects found beyond this four predictor variable model. The four significant independent variables, therefore, represented the independent leadership constructs retained for further analysis in the study.

The next step further examined these four variables: passive/avoidant (R), active management (R), charismatic, and leader-member exchange in a stepwise multiple regression analysis. The multiple regression analysis was conducted using a stepwise regression approach. Hypotheses 1-3, proposed that the individual constructs of transformational leadership would be a significant predictor of political perceptions. Hypotheses 4 and 5 anticipated that the two constructs of transactional leadership would also predict perceptions of politics. Hypothesis 6 posited that the laissez-faire leadership construct and that leader-member exchange (Hypothesis 7) also represent significant predictors. Multiple regression analysis is an appropriate method in determining variance in a dependent variable with multiple independents as in this case. Results from this analysis are discussed and presented in the following sections. The unstandardized regression coefficients (b), standardized regression coefficients (β) values, and t-ratio scores for each of the individual predictors are presented in Table 7. The beta scores allowed the variable units of measure to be "standardized" allowing for interpretation between the regression coefficients. The assumptions applied to the use of standardized coefficients (absence of multicollinearity), allows for comparative interpretation and relative importance of the individual predictors.

Table 2: Regression Results

Variable	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Passive/Avoidant (R)	-.857	.131	-.475
Step 2			
Passive/Avoidant (R)	-.857	.131	-.475
Active Management (R)	-1.01	.207	-.278*
Step 3			
Passive/Avoidant (R)	-.857	.131	-.475*
Active Management (R)	-1.01	.207	-.278*
Charismatic	-.507	.119	-.349*
Step 4			
Passive/Avoidant (R)	-.857	.131	-.475*
Active Management (R)	-1.01	.207	-.278*
Charismatic	-.507	.119	-.349*
LMX	.245	.094	.202*

Note. $R^2 = .645$ for Step 1 ($*p < .01$); $\Delta R^2 = .035$ for Step 2 ($*p < .01$); $\Delta R^2 = .016$ for Step 3 ($*p < .01$); $\Delta R^2 = .010$ for Step 4 ($*p < .01$).

Perceptions of politics and job involvement were analyzed in a simple regression analysis. Political perceptions represented a significant predictor of job involvement ($F(1,212) = 138.982, p < .001$), accounting for 36% of the variability of job involvement with an R^2 for the model of .396 and the adjusted R^2 of .393. Table 3 presents the unstandardized regression coefficient (B), intercept, and standardized regression coefficient (β) for the variable job involvement.

Table 3: Regression POP & Job Involvement

Variable	B	SE B	β
POP	.391	0.033	-.629

Note. $R^2 = .396$ (* $p < .01$).

The regression analysis between the dependent (organizational commitment) and the independent variable, political perceptions, revealed that political perceptions significantly predicted organizational commitment ($F(1,212) = 166.451, p < .001$) indicating a significant relationship between the variables accounting for 44% of the variability with an R^2 for the model of .440 and the adjusted R^2 of .437. Table 4 displays the unstandardized (B) and standardized (β) regression coefficient for the variable organizational commitment.

Table 3: Regression POP & Organizational commitment

Variable	B	SE B	β
POP	-.398	0.030	-.663

Note. $R^2 = .396$ (* $p < .01$).

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

Kacmar and Baron (1999) stated that “all political behavior is either initiated by and [sic] directed at individuals” (p.13). Following the general approach to the study of organizational politics, the current study contributes to the majority of research conducted at dyadic or micro-level between individuals, specifically, employee and supervisor. Witt (1995) underscored the importance of this research focus in order to aim efforts to reduce organizational politics “below the level of the organization, even if the goal is to reduce dysfunctional political behavior that is systemic” (p. 53). Witt (1995) suggested that this includes equipping front-line supervisors with the interpersonal and leadership skills to ameliorate the perceptions and effects of organizational politics.

The purpose and approach of this research specifically aligned with prior research examining the role of leadership, operationalized in the leader-member exchange model of leadership, and its relationship to Perceptions of Organizational Politics model (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Kacmar et al., 1999). This study also followed the more general direction of POP research examining the wider role of leadership across a range of operationalizations contained within the full range leadership model as a general conceptually fruitful area of study (Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Ammeter et al., 2002). Finally, the continuity between prior research and this study is evident in that this study mirrored a large body of research that demonstrated the linkage between organizational politics and critical organizational outcomes such as job involvement (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Witt, 1995) and organizational commitment (Maslyn & Fedor, 1998; Witt et al., 2002).

The purpose of this study was to investigate if, and to what extent, leadership operationalized as leader-member exchanges (LMX) and transformational-transactional orientations (full range leadership model) predicted perceptions of organizational politics (POP). It then further investigated if, and to what extent, perception of politics predicted organizational outcomes specific to the employee, operationalized as job involvement (JIQ) and

organizational commitment (OCQ). To review, the study makes an important contribution to the field of leadership and organizational politics by examining the hypothetical relationship between the constructs of leadership and perceptions of politics. Operationalizing the construct inter-relationships between perception of politics and organizational outcomes yielded the following set of hypotheses, which were tested in the study:

H1: Hypothesis 1 was supported. Charismatic leadership style, a type of transformational leadership, did have a negative relationship with, and was a significant predictor of, perceptions of organizational politics.

H2: Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Individualized consideration leadership behaviors, a transformational leadership factor, while was shown as negatively related to political perceptions, was not a significant predictor of perceptions of organizational politics.

H3: Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Intellectual stimulation as a transformational leadership style was negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics, but was not a significant predictor of political perceptions.

H4: Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Contingent reward, a transactional leadership style, was found positively related to, but not a significant predictor of, political perceptions.

H5: Hypothesis 5 was supported. Active management-by-exception, a transactional leadership approach, was shown as positively related to, as well as and a significant predictor of, perceptions of politics.

H6: Hypothesis 6 was supported. Laissez-faire leadership behaviors, a transactional form of leadership, was found to be positively related, and a significant predictor of political perceptions.

H7: Hypothesis 7 was supported. The perceived quality of the relationship between the employee and supervisor, as measured by the leader-member exchange scale, was found as a negatively related and significant predictor of perceptions of organizational politics.

An unexpected but interesting feature in the study was the finding of significant correlation between what are generally considered distinct leadership factors, raising the question of what it is, exactly, that the leadership scales are measuring. There is an overwhelming number of constructs, definitions, and operationalizations of leadership reflected in the most widely used and tested instruments that Winston (2003) likened the situation to the Indian proverb about the blind men describing different parts of an elephant, and this study's results suggest that there may be a significant degree of conceptual overlap in component constructs of different leadership models. A clearer picture of leadership might result, therefore, if a composite or "hybrid" measure of transformational elements were developed from a judicious selection of items in the MLQ and the LMX. This is consistent with Kolodinsky and Douglas' (1999) view that such a confluence would allow researchers to "feel" a larger portion of the elephantine construct of leadership. Another, more precise, less reductionist approach would be to further delineate the constructs of leadership examining them in a structural equations model yielding further insight to more precise causal effects.

Campbell and Stanley (1963) posited that external validity is contingent upon the generalizability of causal inferences to, and across, target populations. As discussed earlier, the study sample, being a nonprobability convenience sample, represented an external threat to validity leading to a large and unmeasured bias. The use of a unique convenience sample in this study presented a limitation to the generalizability across other industries (populations), different locations (settings), other organizations outside the industry (situations), and for future studies within the same population (across time). One critical characteristic of external

validity is the ability to speculate beyond the boundaries of what the researcher can see within the scope of the data (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

The primary issue surrounding external validity, as it relates to this study, is the generalizability of the outcomes. This convenience sample was limited to one division in one subsection of one regional department in a single state government. One consequence of examining this specific sample is that an unknown portion of a representative population outside the specific site, outside that department, and beyond that region that was excluded and therefore not generalizable to a larger population (Fowler, 1984). A second limitation that would influence the study's reliability may have arisen from the data collection method of self-reporting. Research has found that self-reporting tends to introduce a positive response bias in empirical research (Paulhus, 1991), and although this reporting was "other-rated" reporting, this bias may have contributed to the generally positive responses toward the leadership constructs tested in this study, as well as to the generally low level of perceived politics. Finally, Spector (1994) and Spector, Van Katwyk, Brannick, and Chen (1997) pointed to the item direction effect citing substantial psychological literature on positive and negative affect as two correlated, distinct constructs rather than opposite ends of a continuum. While the reverse scored items were not reworded in the positive context, those items could present a different bias if reworded outside of a simple method effect accounting for the separability of positively and negatively worded items on the scale. It may be worth further exploring the substantive implications of rewording, rather than simply recoding some transactional leadership constructs as well as the perception of politics scale.

Ammeter et al. (2002) underscored the need for new research into leadership and politics - research that will restructure the previously negative view of the political processes. Another direction for further research would include examining new elements of effective leadership, including emotional intelligence, impression management, and social skill. Such a study might investigate the way in which these factors provide a basis for (a) positive leader-member relationship formation and (b) coalition building as a political skill set within the organizational politics framework. Theoretical and empirical investigation in the area of political skill and the contribution of leadership in reframing organizational politics could represent an important research direction, both for its research contribution and for its potential organizational applications (Ferris, Berkson, et al., 1999; Ferris, Kolodinsky, et al., 2001).

Further research should address the potential limitation inherent within the nonprobability convenience sample presented in this study that could lead to a large and unmeasured bias. As discussed earlier, one consequence of such a sample is that an unknown portion of a representative population is excluded and therefore not generalizable to a larger population. To overcome this limitation, future research could involve conducting a cross-sectional study of the specific variables within a variety of organizational settings. Research involving a representative sample within a wider variety of organizational contexts could address the limitation of researching within a convenience sample.

The next recommendation for further study addresses the potential for self-reporting, positive response, bias in empirical research (Paulhus, 1991). Future research could address "other-rated" reporting bias that may contribute to the generally positive responses toward the leadership and low level of perceived politics as in this study by administering both self-rated, and other-rated, survey design. Future research should also address the length of the survey that could influence response accuracy. Additional research could examine these specific constructs by using reduced-item survey instruments, thus reducing the possibility of respondent fatigue. Additionally, further research should consider developing new survey instruments that go beyond recoding to compensate for item-direction effect to

reconceptualization of the phenomena of organizational politics adding to our understanding in the field of organizational politics.

CONCLUSION

The analyses in this study were conducted specifically to explore the relationships between the variables directly relating to the hypotheses posited in Chapter 2, addressing the general research question, that is, whether leadership behaviors (operationalized in the full range leadership model), or affective states held by the employee regarding their leader (operationalized by the leader-member exchange model), influence the development political perceptions and in turn, its influence on organizational outcomes such as involvement and commitment. Overall, the significance of the study is two-fold. First, it makes a specific contribution toward understanding the role and influence of specific types of leadership behaviors and orientations on the development or prevention of perceptions of organizational politics. Further, the study contributes to answering the larger conceptual question of the merit of organizational strategies such as leadership styles, behaviors, and relationships contribute or have no influence on establishing or deconstructing perceptions of politics.

The second area of contribution provided by this research is that the study represents progress in identifying differences between the predictive values of various factors within leadership constructs for explaining perceptions of politics. Researchers portray organizational politics as social influence processes strategically enacted by employees and consisting of behaviors that are designed to ensure self-interested outcomes at the expense of other employees and of organizational interests (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). In highly political environments, intangible assets such as individual image and effective in-group networks tend to become central to an employee's survival and career progress (Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996). Examples of organizational politics include a range of behaviors from impression-management (Frink & Ferris, 1998) to sabotage (Gilmore et al., 1996).

Politics, as operationalized in the literature, most commonly relates to the pushpull dynamics facing employees within rapidly changing organizational environments. The challenge is to stimulate coping strategies while combating the negative outcomes of political perceptions (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). There is a fundamental dissonance here, however, between the goal of reducing the perceptions of politics that occur in ambiguous environments and the leadership goal of employing coping mechanisms that actually catalyze change and seek to reframe organizational uncertainty. Researchers suggested that the very tools leaders apply to management problems could in fact be counterproductive or the cause of catastrophic consequences if not abandoned at the proper time (Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Weick, 1996). Fuentes (1990) called for a bridge between old organizational knowledge and its tools, and modern prescriptions by monitoring, comparing, and remembering foundational values, modernizing them, keeping their inherent value.

The ability of managers and leaders to implement strategies for coping with political perceptions becomes increasingly important in an environment of organizational uncertainty. Internal strategies outlined earlier such as polyocularity (the ability to view events from multiple perspectives), emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995), improvisation (Weick, 1996), social skills (Zaccaro, 2002), and political skills (Perrewe et al., 2000) become ever more important as the job-work environment becomes increasingly uncertain and ambiguous. Should organizational practitioners focus their efforts on reducing the political perceptions that arise from the natural, processual nature of organizations? A better approach might be to focus organizational efforts on employing tactics that acknowledge and reframe perceptions politics and that encourage employees to master political skills. As organizational boundaries transmogrify and elements of the organization fuse and shift, a new organizational resource

emerges in individuals who can improvise, learn the right things quickly and thus gain relational and situational advantage through their political skill.

Finally, a better understanding of the function of politics in organizations constitutes an opportunity for organizational leaders to find strategies that are specifically effective in reducing the antecedents of organizational politics. It is clear that if a leader wants involved and committed employees, he or she had better find a way to reduce their perception of politics or reframe those perceptions as part of an empowered, emotionally intelligent, and politically skillful workforce. Drawing from an expectancy theory framework (Vroom, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968) of organizational politics, the study was contextual in its approach including models of power, leadership, organizational relationships, and roles as significant influencing factors theoretically related to political perceptions. Theoretical links between the variables of interest are relevant to wider organizational concepts of fairness (equity theory, Adams, 1965); understanding (social exchange theory, Cook & Emerson, 1978); control (perceptual control theory, McClelland, 1994); rewards and motivation (expectancy theory, Vroom, 1964); organizational citizenship and (latent role theory, Larwood, Wright, Desrochers, & Dahir, 1998); and perceptual evaluation of others as political actors (attribution theory, Kelley, 1967).

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (1997). *Statistical methods for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Alexander, S., Sinclair, R., & Tetrick, L. (1995). The role of organizational justice in defining and maintaining the employment relationship. In L. Tetrick & J. Barling (Eds.), *Changing employment relations: Behavioral and social perspectives* (pp. 61-89). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Ammeter, A. P., Douglas, C., Gardner, W. L., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2002). Toward a political theory of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 751-796.
- Andersen, H. C. (2004). *The emperor's new clothes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2001). Discriminating among organizational politics, justice, and support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 347-366.
- Aquino, K. S., & Bommer, W. H. (2003). Preferential treatment: How victim status moderates the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and workplace victimization. *Organization Science*, 14, 374-385.
- Arthur, M., & Rousseau, D. M. (1996). *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Avolio, B. J. (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. New York: Sage.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. (1999). Reexamining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 7, 441-462.
- Babbie, E. (2001). *The Practice of Social Research* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Barry, B. (2001). Influence tactics in organizations from a social expectancy perspective. In A. Y. Lee-Chai & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The use and abuse of power: Multiple perspectives on the causes of corruption* (pp. 19-40). Philadelphia, PA: Philadelphia Psychology Press.

- Bass, B. M. (1998). Transformational leadership: Industry, military and educational impact. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 17, 112-122.
- Basu, R., & Green, S. G. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: an empirical examination of innovative behaviors in leader-member dyads. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27, 477-500.
- Baugh, S. G., & Graen, G. B. (1997). Effects of team gender and racial composition on perceptions of team performance in cross-functional teams. *Group and Organization Management*, 22, 366-383.
- Chatman, J. A., Polzer, J. T., Barsade, S. G., & Neale, M. A. (1998). Being different yet feeling similar: The influence of demographic composition and organizational culture on work processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43, 749-780.
- Christiansen, N., Villanova, P., & Mikulay, S. (1997). Political influence compatibility: Fitting the person to the climate. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 709-730.
- Christie, R., & Geis, F. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism*. New York: Academic Press.
- Cialdini, R. B. (1993). *The psychology of persuasion*. New York: Quill William Morrow.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Elloy D., Everett J. E., & Flynn G. (1991). An examination of the correlates of job involvement, *Group & Organization Studies*, 16, 160-177.
- Elloy, D., Everett, J. E., & Flynn, G. (1995). Multidimensional mapping of the correlates of job involvement. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, 27, 79-91.
- Emerson, R. M. (1972). Exchange theory: Part I: A psychological basis for social exchange and exchange theory: Part II: Exchange relations and network structures. In J. Berger, M. Zelditch, Jr. & B. Anderson (Eds.), *Sociological theories in progress: Vol. 2*. (pp. 38-87). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Kacmar, K. M., Bozeman, D. P., Wayne, S. J., & Anthony, W. P. (1994). *A partial test of the perceptions of organizational politics (POPs) model*. Paper presented at the Southern Management Association Meeting, New Orleans, LA.
- Kacmar, K. M., & Carlson, D. S. (1997). Further validation of the perceptions of politics scale (POPs): A multiple sample investigation. *Journal of Management*, 23, 627-658.
- Kipnis, D., & Schmidt, S. M. (1988). Upward influence styles: Relationship with performance evaluations, salary, and stress. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 528-542.
- Klein, H., & Weaver, N. (2000). The effectiveness of an organizational level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology*, 53, 47- 66.
- Kolodinsky, R. W., & Douglas, S. C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership: An integrative approach. Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Academy of Management 1999, Houston.
- Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, 24, 43-73.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 662-674.

- Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum.
- Maslyn, J. M., & Fedor, D. B. (1998). Perceptions of politics: Does measuring different foci matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 645-653.
- Masuch, M. (1985). Vicious circles in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 30*, 14-33.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Farr, J. L. (1991). Further evidence for the discriminant validity of measures of organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*, 127-133.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin, 108*, 171-194.
- Matthews, R. A., Diaz, W. M., & Cole, S. G. (2003). The organizational empowerment scale. *Personnel Review, 32*, 297-318.
- Mayes, B. T., & Allen, R. W. (1977). Toward a definition of organizational politics. *Academy of Management Review, 2*, 672-678.
- McGrath, J. E. (1976). Stress and behavior in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette, (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 1351-1395). Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing.
- McIntire, S., Moberg, D. J., & Posner, B. Z. (1980). Preferential treatment in preselection decisions according to sex and race. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*, 626-641.
- McKnight, D. H., Ahmad, S., & Schroeder, R. G. (2001). When do feedback, incentive control, and autonomy improve morale? The importance of employee management relationship closeness. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*, 466-482.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 538-551.
- Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63*, 408-414.
- Morgan, G. (1986). *Images of organization*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1991). Measurement and control of response bias. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (pp. 17-59). New York: Academic Press.
- Perrewe, P. L., Ferris, G. R., Frink, D. D., & Anthony, W. P. (2000). Political skill: An antidote for workplace stressors. *The Academy of Management Executive, 14*, 115-123.
- Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. *Academy of Management Review, 2*, 104-112.
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). *Managing with power: Politics and influence in organizations*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Pfeffer, J., Salancik, G. R., & Leblebici, H. (1976). The effect of uncertainty on the use of social influence in organizational decision making. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21*, 227-245.
- Pillai, R. A., Schriesheim, C. A., & Williams, E. S. (1999). Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management, 25*, 897-933.
- Pillai, R., Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (1999). Leadership and organizational justice: Similarities and differences across cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies, 30*, 763-779.

- Prasad, L. (1993). The etiology of organizational politics: Implications for the intrapreneur. *Advanced Management Journal*, 58, 35-41.
- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986a). *Handbook of organizational measurement*. Marshfield, MA: Pitman Publishing.
- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986b). *Absenteeism and turnover among hospital employees*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Schermerhorn, J. R., & Bond, M. H. (1991). Upward and downward influence tactics in managerial networks: A comparative study of Hong Kong Chinese and Americans. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 8, 147-158.
- Schneider, B., Brief, A. P., & Guzzo, R. A. (1996). Creating a climate and culture for sustainable organizational change. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24, 6-19.
- Schneider, M. (2002). A stakeholder model of organizational leadership. *Organization Science*, 13, 209-220.
- Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 580-607.
- Sewell, G. (1998). The discipline of teams: The control of team-based industrial work through electronic and peer surveillance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43, 397-428.
- Sheppard, B. H., Lewicki, R. J., & Minton, J. W. (1992). *Organizational justice: The search for fairness in the workplace*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Shore, T. H., Thornton G. C., & Shore, L. M. (1990). Distinctiveness of three work attitudes: Job involvement, organizational commitment, and career salience. *Psychological Reports*, 67, 851-858.
- Waldman, D. A., & Avolio, B. J. (1986). A meta-analysis of age differences in job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 33-38.
- Weick, K. E. (1979). *The social psychology of organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Wheatley, M. J. (1999). *Leadership and the new science revised: Discovering order in a chaotic world*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66, 297-333.
- Wiener, Y., & Vardi, Y. (1980). Relationships between job, organization, and work outcomes: An integrative approach. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 26, 81-96.
- Wilkinson, L., & Task Force on Statistical Inference APA Board of Scientific Affairs (1999). Statistical methods in psychology journals: Guidelines and explanations. *American Psychologist*, 54, 594-604.
- Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice- Hall.
- 171
- Yukl, G., & Falbe, C. M. (1990). Influence tactics in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 132-140.
- Yukl, G., & Tracey, J. B. (1992). Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 525-535.

- Yukl, G., & Van Fleet, D. D. (1992). Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology: Vol. 3*. (2nd ed., pp. 147-197). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Yukl, G., Falbe, C. M., & Youn, J. Y. (1993). Patterns of influence for managers. *Group & Organization Management, 18*, 5-28.
- Zaccaro, S. J. (2002). Organizational leadership and social intelligence. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, & F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership* (pp. 29-54). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Zahra, S. A. (1986). A canonical analysis of corporate entrepreneurship antecedents and impact on performance. *Proceedings of the Academy of Management, 46*, 71-75.
- Zaleznik, A. (1992). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review, 7*, 126-136.
- Zaleznik, A., Kets de Vries, M. F. R., & Howard, J. (1977). Stress reactions in organizations; Syndromes, causes and consequences. *Behavioral Science, 22*, 151-162.
- Zanzi, A., & O'Neill, R. M. (2001). Sanctioned versus non-sanctioned political tactics. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*, 245-262.
- Zellars, K. L., & Kacmar, K. M. (1999). The influence of individual differences on reactions to co-workers' ingratiation behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 11*, 234-248.
- Zellars, K. L., Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewe, P. L., Miles, A. K., & Kiewitz, C. (2001). Beyond self-efficacy: Interactive effects of role conflict and perceived collective efficacy. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*, 483-500.
- Zhou, J., & Ferris, G. R. (1995). The dimensions and consequences of organizational politics perceptions: A confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25*, 1747-1764.