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A Critical Review of Literature on Organizational Politics and Work Outcomes

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Abstract:

There is not an organization on earth that does not have to deal with politics, only that the degree of organizational politics varies from one organization to another. It is true that organizations have some sort of internal political struggle that can rip it apart. Therefore dealing with this struggle awareness of the landscape, players and rules in which the political game is played must be taken keenly. This is because in one sphere of our life or another are we not both users and recipients of power? For instance a visit to any factory tea-break, office lunch gathering, or faculty meeting would seem to indicate that we are all familiar with office politics and bureaucratic gamesmanship. The concept of organizational politics is key social influence process that can be either functional or dysfunctional to employees and organizations. The relationship between perception of organizational politics, job satisfaction and employee turnover are of paramount importance towards overall organizational success. Social exchange theory, equity theory and theory of procedural justice theory are the different theories which have been postulated in the area of organizational politics. This paper aims at understanding employees' reaction to organizational politics and its relationship with perception of organizational politics, job satisfaction, employee turnover intentions and organizational conflicts.

Keywords: Organizational Politics, Employee Turnover, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Conflicts

1. Introduction

Each of us works in an organization in order to fulfill certain objectives. According to (Foa and Foa, 1974; Cropanzano, Kacmar and Bozeman, 1995), these may be concrete and economic, such as pay, or abstract and social, such as status attainment. Therefore in order to fulfill these objectives, work requires a considerable expenditure of effort. Consequently, choosing to affiliate with a given form can be seen as an investment of personal resources (Thibault and Kelly, 1986; Taylor and Moghaddam, 1987). While Mainous, & others (1988) added that a workplace, is like a market place in which different individuals and groups interact to exchange outcomes. Hence a fuller understanding of organizational politics is beneficial to practitioners, because by identifying and measuring the perceived presence of organizational politics, its causes and effects, practitioners may take corrective action to minimize factors that inhibit innovation efforts and encourage those behaviors that enhance innovation activity.

Bradshaw-Camball & Murray, (1991) observed that Organizational politics is thought by some researchers to have three dimensions: (i) Structure (who are the parties? What are their interests? How much power do they have? What are the bases of power?) (ii) Process (how is power used in pursuit of each party's interest?) and (iii) Outcomes (Who gets what? What is the impact on the ongoing relationship of the parties and on the others who comprise the organization and its stakeholders?) Therefore the importance of organizational politics (OP) lies in its potential consequences and effect on work outcomes. Theoretical arguments suggest that politics often interferes with normal organizational processes (e.g., decision making, promotion, and rewards) and damages productivity and performance on individual and organizational levels.

1.1. Organizational Politics Defined

Hartel & Berry, (1999) in their research concluded that "there is no standard definition of organizational politics since organizational politics was most often perceived and described as behaviors that the organization itself (as personified by top management) undertook to influence employee behaviors and attitudes". During the last few decades, organizational theorists and researchers have suggested many definitions of organizational politics and reviews of the literature have concurred with Hartel and Berry (1999) that there is not a single, widely accepted definition (Cropanzano et. al., 1995).

However, (Cropanzano et. al., 1997) has noted that at least two definitions of organizational politics have been used widely. First, politics is seen as an influence process that includes a general set of social behavior and can be functional or dysfunctional. Second, politics includes generally dysfunctional behavior that is strategically designed to serve long-term or short-term self-interest.

These definitions of organizational politics appear within the functionalist/pluralist paradigm where much of the conversation about organizational politics takes place.

Author	Definition
Schelling (1960)	The tactical use of power to retain or obtain control or real or symbolic resources
Burns (1961)	Individuals are made used of as resources in competitive situations
Pettigrew (1973)	Behaviors by individuals or groups that makes a claim against the resource-sharing systems of the organization
Frost and Hayes (1977)	The activities of organizational members...when they use resources to enhance or protect their share of an exchange...in ways that could be resisted, or ways in which the impact would be resisted, if recognized by the other party (is) to the exchange.
Mayes and Allen (1977)	The management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned means
Tushman (1977)	The use of authority and power to effect definitions of goals, directions, and other major parameters of the organization
Allen et al. (1979)	Intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups
Pfeffer (1981)	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 dissensus about choices
Porter et al. (1981)	Social influence attempts that are discretionary, intended to promote or protect the self-interests of individuals and groups, and threaten the self-interests of others
Mintzberg (1983)	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 one of these
Gray and Ariss (1985)	Intentional acts of influence undertaken by individuals or groups to enhance or protect their self-interest when conflicting courses of action are possible.
Ferris et al. (1989)	A social influence process in which behavior is strategically designed to maximize short-term or long-term self-interest, which is either consistent with or at the expense of others' interests.
Ferris et al., (1995)	Associated with behavior not formally sanctioned by the organization, which, although it occurs naturally and may be useful, also may have the potential to produce uncertainty, conflict, and disharmony in the work environment
Cropanzano et al. (1995)	Social influence attempts directed at those who can provide rewards that will help promote or protect the self-interest of the actor
Bacharach and Lawler (1998)	The efforts of individuals or groups in organizations to mobilize support for or opposition to organizational strategies, policies or practices in which they have a vested stake or interest.
Kacmar and Baron (1999)	Actions by individuals that are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others within the organization.
Ferris et al. (2000)	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 the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior
Butcher and Clarke (2001)	Deliberate efforts by individuals and groups in organizations to use power in pursuit of their own particular interests.
Ferris et al. (2003)	The extent to which political behaviors are pervasive in the work, decision-making, and resource allocation processes within the organization.
Huang et al. (2003)	Phenomena in which organizational members attempt either directly or indirectly to influence other members by means not sanctioned by formal standard operating procedures or informal norms, in an attempt to achieve personal or group objectives.
Vigoda (2003)	Individual or group, vertical or horizontal influence process. Has a formal or informal aspect, Inter organizational or intra-organizational. Includes positive and negative behaviors

Table 1

Source: Karen Cacciattolo 2014

Current literature on organizational politics shows that explicit references to workplace politics began to appear in the organizational behavior literature in early 1960's. The earliest description of organizational politics in the research literature is Burns (1961), who suggested that it occurs when "others (individuals) are made use of as resources in competitive situations".

1.2. Evolution of Organizational Politics

Provis in Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, (2006) noted that Aristotle (1934) portrayed the idea of politics as a 'master-craft' which is a tolerable and practical social phenomenon. In the late 1950s; Lawswell (1958) claimed that politics is important because it represents the secrets of who gets what, when, and how in a social system. In the 1970, politics in organizations received little or no attention; it only won the recognition that as in the national arena, organizations have to deal with the conflicts, resource-sharing processes and power struggles among their members.

In the late 70s and early 80s, some studies established a theoretical framework for inquiry into the role of politics in the workplace (Mintzberg and others 1983). In early 1990s Pfeffer argued that organizations particularly large ones are like governments in that

they are fundamentally political entities. Few have used a balanced approach to determine the effects of organization politics on employees' attitudes behavior and performance in the workplace. During the 1990s and on into the 21st century, the interest in organization politics began to focus on people's perceptions about the political maneuvers in their workplaces.

1.3. Drivers of Organizational Politics

Amongst the many drivers of organizational politics according to several writers for instance (Latifetal, 2011; Mintzberg, 1985; and Poon, 2003, identified the "informal" nature as a means of making decisions and especially where there is uncertainty involved. Essentially, this according to (Ferris et al, 1989; Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010; Othman, 2008; Poon, 2003) presents them with an opportunity to engage in political behavior.

Romm & Pliskin (1997; and Seo, (2003) are of the opinion that organizational politics is often created within the workplace where various types of coalitions have a tendency to grow among individuals. However Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, (2006) argues that group politics may be encouraged or weakened by the organizational cultural values, which may also mould the route that the group politics will take.

Among the many types of groups in organizations, consist of either managers and subordinates in a department, employees that fall in the same hierarchical level, or employees that fall in the same social circle. Romm & Pliskin, (1997), observed that political behavior may be present between other stakeholders of an organization, such as unions and employers. Consequently the amount of politicking intensifies as the issue concerned is presumed as Significant from the concerned group's position.

Organizations typically have limited resources that must be allocated in some way. Individuals and groups within the organization may disagree about how those resources should be allocated, so they may naturally seek to gain those resources for themselves or for their interest groups, which gives rise to organizational politics. Scarcity of resources therefore breeds politics.

Similarly Ladebo, (2006) added that politicking among members of an organization may also occur to some key people in organizations resulting to 'bulldozing' to have what they perceive as fair share of the limited resources available in the organization for themselves or the group they belong to.

Likewise individuals are more likely to engage in political behavior when there is uncertainty involved in decision-making procedures and performance measures, and when competition is present among individuals and groups for limited resources (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010; Othman, 2008; Poon, 2003). Moreover, according to Vigoda-Gadot (2007) the lack of nominal integrity and equality in these systems is a main root of higher perception for organizational politics.

Vigoda- Gadot & Drory (2006) established that increased internal organizational politics may be due to the external competitive demands experienced by organizations, resulting from globalised economies and technological transformations. Buchanan (2008), was the opinion that politics may also be caused by Structural relationships within an organization. This means that one group of employees may have Particular performance indicators and tasks to fulfill that are very different to those of another group. Jehn (1997) refers to these diversities as task-focused conflicts.

Perceptions of fairness are another driver. In his study Ferris et al. (1996b) found out that perceptions of fairness stemming from internal politics will be primarily reflected in one's attitudes as an element which one considers responsible for the political climate. These elements may include supervisors, co-workers, and other factors in the organization, which together generate overall job satisfaction. A political organizational climate may suppress unfair and unjust activities that are easily observed by employees. When an employee feels deprived and unfairly treated because of political considerations, he/she will be inclined to react initially by reducing voluntary obligation and attachment to the organization.

2. Literature Review

Organizational politics can be understood in terms of what people think of it rather than what it actually represents and therefore politics in organizations reflect the organizational climate. Organizational politics and power have been regarded as critical factors affecting various organizational practices (Kim, 2004). However Morgan, (1998) added that organization is a premise composed of people who have varied task, career, and personal interests which allows us to understand it as a political entity. In view of the above, this paper will review literature on only three aspects including job satisfaction, employee turnover and organizational conflicts.

2.1. Job Satisfaction

(Robbins, 1998) defined satisfaction as the contentment felt after a need is fulfilled. Further (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004:116) suggested that it is a general attitude that is determined by job factors (i.e., pay, work, supervision, politics, etc), individual or personal characteristics (demographics) and other social and group factors. According to (Newstrom, 2007) people bring with them certain drives and needs that affect their performance and therefore, understanding how needs stimulate performance and how rewards on such performance lead to the job-satisfaction is indispensable for the managers.

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a positive emotional state that arises when people appraise their job or job experiences. He further says that it is a multi disciplinary concept and an affirmative emotional situation which is the outcome of positive or favorable working conditions within an organization.

Ferris (1989) observed that the higher the perceptions of organizational politics the lower the level of job satisfaction of employees. Gandz and Murray (1980); Ferris and Kacmar (1991) and Bodla and Danish (2009) also confirmed negative relationship between these two variables. Ferris and Frink et al. (1996) suggested that job satisfaction in general and satisfaction with supervision is more influenced by POP.

Empirical studies have found that the core job characteristics are related to employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction and turnover intention (Sainfort et al., 2005; Saks, 2006). Employee's job satisfaction and turnover is influenced by outcomes directly

derived or by factors associated with the work itself such as achievement in the work, the nature of their jobs, chances for personal growth and recognition and promotion opportunities.

2.2. Turnover/ Turnover Intentions

Turnover is “voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organization”. Drory, (1993), suggested that a change in job attitudes may be regarded as the immediate reaction to OP, potentially signaling more negative responses by employees in the long run. It is widely accepted in organizational behavior theory that job attitudes may lead to behavioral intentions and, with the passage of time, to actual behaviors.

Hirschman’s (1970) theory suggests that option of exit (leaving the organization) as a possible destructive reaction to decline in organizations. This behavior differs substantially from other, more constructive traits, such as voice (intention to stay and fight for one’s beliefs and occupational goals) and loyalty (willingness to adjust and comply with the current environment).

According to Cropanzano et al., (1997), employees who view the organization as political in nature, unequal, or promoting only the aspirations of the powerful members may be encouraged to leave it physically and also psychologically. Organizational can cause disengagement or psychological withdrawal of individuals. Employees may be physically present at the workplace but their minds are elsewhere.

2.3. Organizational Conflicts

A basic definition of organizational conflict is disagreement by individuals or groups within the organization, which can center on factors ranging from resource allocation and divisions of responsibility to the overall direction of the organization. A common example of organizational conflict occurs when workers advocate for higher pay and the business owner or management wants pay levels to remain the same. This can breed either negative or positive organizational politics.

2.3.1. Negative Outcomes

In one view, organizational conflict produces negative outcomes. Conflicts cause stress, which reduces worker satisfaction. This diminished satisfaction can lead to increases in absenteeism and turnover. Conflict can also diminish trust in supervisors and fellow employees, which can slow or stop progress on projects. The pileup of internal negative consequences, such as lost trust and slowed progress, can generate a negative impact on customer satisfaction due to missed deadlines and reduced work quality.

2.3.2. Positive Possibilities

In a different view, organizational conflict represents an opportunity for productive change. The use of effective communication lies at the heart of this view. Organizational conflicts develop for a reason. By acknowledging the existence of the conflict and divining the source of it, the business leadership opens the door for creative solutions. The simple act of acknowledging and seeking solutions to organizational conflicts can defuse them and draw employees into a stronger relationship with the business. It can also encourage an adaptable organization that copes efficiently with the rapid changes faced by modern businesses.

The result is conflict between employees and the organization itself. On an individual level employees may develop resentment and apathy. In some circumstances, sentiments can take on larger dimensions and employees begin to formally or informally organize--sometimes forming unions. Organizations that promote a high degree of specialization and little mobility may find themselves with higher turnover as a result of the conflict stemming from Maturity-Immaturity Theory.

2.4. Theoretical Framework

Organizational politics have largely been anchored on social exchange theory, equity theory and theory of procedural justice theory.

2.5. Social Exchange Theory

Theory of Social exchange which evolved from Thorndike's (1932, 1935) work on the development of reinforcement theory and Mill's (1923) marginal utility theory states that modern-day influences have been derived from the work of sociologists such as Homans (1950, 1961), Blau (1964), and Emerson (1972). The model that emerges to explain social exchange theory is comprised of five central elements:

2.5.1. Behavior Is Predicated Upon the Notion of Rationality

That is, the more a behavior results in a reward, the more individuals will behave that way. However, the more an individual receives a reward, the less valued it becomes, and as a result the individual seeks alternative rewards through other behaviors or from other sources.

2.5.2. The Relationship Is Based on Reciprocation

That is, each individual in the relationship will provide benefits to the other so long as the exchange is equitable and the units of exchange are important to the respective parties. An exchange between two individuals must be seen as fair by both for the relation to continue, or at least to continue as strongly. This point out that it is not only important to respond fairly, but also with an item (not necessarily material) deemed to be important by the other person.

2.5.3. Social Exchange Is Based on a Justice Principle

In each exchange, there should be a norm of fairness governing behavior. That is, the exchange must be viewed as fair when compared in the context of a wider network or to third and fourth parties. This notion of distributive justice goes beyond the equity between the two principals' contribution. It involves each person comparing his or her reward to that of others who have dealt with this individual and what they received for the same or a similar contribution.

2.5.4. Individuals Will Seek to Maximize Their Gains and Minimize Their Costs in the Exchange Relation

It is important to understand that the notion of costs does not relate exclusively to financial issues; rather, costs can be incurred through the time and energy invested in a relationship.

2.5.5. Individuals Participate in a Relationship Out of a Sense of Mutual Benefit Rather Than Coercion

Thus, coercion should be minimized.

Similarly, Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) also pointed out that to the social exchange theory as a possible explanation for justice and fairness in organizations, thereby indicating the usefulness of social exchange variables (trust, social support, social reciprocity, and helping behavior) in understanding workplace politics. Hence, it is possible that employees tend to view the work sphere as more fair and just in cases where social ties can support their interests and ambitions.

2.6. Equity Theory

Adams, (1965) found out that power, influence and politics have at least some effect on every member of an organization and thus on the entire organizational unit. Based on the equity theory and on the idea of social exchange and social reciprocity (Blau, 1964), established that the motivation to perform better and the development of positive employee attitudes and behaviors depend on the display of similar positive attitudes and behaviors by other members of the organization (peers, supervisors, the management and the organization as a whole). Therefore, many scholars have argued that the relationship between organizational politics and organizational outcomes is an important one that deserves careful and thorough investigation (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar & Carlson, 1994; Zhou & Ferris, 1995) and one that has the potential to enhance our understanding of multiple aspects of performance.

According to (Adams, 1965; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano, Kacmar, & Bozeman, 1995), one such possible argument can be found in the theory of fairness, equity, and justice in organizations and its relation with organizational politics. In fact, both social capital and perception of organizational politics (POPs) lay the groundwork for employees' perceptions of fairness and equity in organizations. The idea that politics and fairness are related has already been noted by (Ferris et. al. 1989) and used extensively in later studies (Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006). Based on this line of thinking, self-interests and politically-oriented decisions that do not take into consideration a collective goal of the work unit or the organization as a whole tend to be viewed negatively by employees and reflect a greater tendency toward injustice, inequity, and bias in resource distribution.

2.7. Procedural Justice Theory

Studies by (Ferris et. al., 1996b; Folger, Konovsky, & Cropanzano, 1992) used the theory of procedural justice to arguing that OP is related to the efficiency of human resource systems and to decision-making processes. Lack of minimal justice and fairness in these systems is found as a main cause of higher perceptions of organizational politics and therefore hampers organizational outcomes. All these studies relied on Kurt Lewin's (1936) argument that people respond to their perceptions of reality, not to reality itself. Likewise, politics in organizations should be understood in terms of what people think of it rather than what it actually represents. Studies thus proposed that perceptions of justice and fairness reflect a political climate in the workplace and may also be related to a variety of work outcomes. Ferris, Kacmar, and their colleagues (1992) extensively advocated these ideas in numerous studies.

2.8. Empirical Findings on Previous Studies on Organizational Politics

Drory (1990) and Drory and Romm (1988) in their two field studies established that politics has a more deleterious impact on the attitudes of low status employees and a less deleterious impact on the attitudes of high status individuals. Drory (1990) posited that this occurred because the higher status individuals were in a better position to shape and benefit from political decision making.

Ferris and Kacmar (1992) and others in earlier research found out that formal organizational processes are negatively related to perceived organizational politics. Moreover, scarce resources also encourage political involvement of employees while on the other hand sufficient organizational resources make achievement of disjointed goals a little easy. Further they continue to say that the likelihood of exhibiting political behavior increases with the increase in role ambiguity, and goal ambiguity. Similar outcomes were observed by (Buchanan & Badham, 1999; Gray & Ariss, 1985) that political behaviors play significant role in the organizational change process and that structural factors like; uncertainty and ambiguity, resource management, and redistribution of power, in the process of change in organization stimulate employee involvement in organizational politics.

According to (Cropanzano et.al, 1997) employees who view the organization as political in nature, unequal, or promoting only the aspirations of the powerful members may be encouraged to leave it physically and also psychologically, since OP can cause disengagement or psychological withdrawal of individuals. However empirical studies provide only marginal support for this idea. Ferris et. al. (1993, 1996) and Bozeman et. al. (1996) established that those individuals who understand or can control political dynamics respond less negatively than those who lack understanding or control. These perceptions of politics were negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment as identified by (Drory (1993), Vigoda-Gadot and others (2003) found

out that workplace politics was perceived as self-serving behavior by employees to achieve self-interests, advantages, and benefits at the expense of others and some-times contrary to the interests of the entire organization or work unit. These results do not concur with the employees' job satisfaction and intentions to leave.

Aryee et. al., (2004); Byrne, (2005); Chen and Fang, (2007); Zivnuska et al., (2004), provided evidence that OP has direct influences on the job performance and that political perceptions were negatively related to affective commitment and job satisfaction. They were positively related to turnover intentions and uncorrelated with continuance commitment. Politics was not significantly associated with performance. However, Organizational support was positively related to affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance. Similar conclusion was drawn by Buchanan & Badham, (2007), that employee involvement in organizational politics affects organizational performance, effectiveness, decision making, and change processes in organization.

Mao (2006) established that the organizational level and workplace friendship are negatively correlated. That is, employees of higher organizational level have weaker workplace friendship than employees of lower organizational level. While, Wen-Wei, Shih-Chin and Shih-I (2009) did not find any significant relationship between organizational level and perception of organizational politics, Nasirand Zaki (2009) essentially showed inconclusiveness between job status and job satisfaction. It would have seemed natural that those who are higher should fare better, but their results showed a mixed conclusion. While Ofoegbu, Akanbi and Alhanolu (2012) established that there was a strong association between pay and promotion policy and job satisfaction. Further there is positive association between perception of organizational politics and workplace friendship.

Gotsis & Kortezi, (2010) studies established that organizational politics was negatively related to performance of organization. Similarly other studied established that managers are positively related to the involvement of organizational politics. These studies concluded that managers who are highly involved in organizational politics were found to be achieving goals of organization with the help of organizational politics. Therefore managerial involvement in organizational politics was proposed to be necessary for the survival of the organization (Madison et al., 1979).

Other empirical conclusion of interest to my intended paper is that OP is negatively related to the employee perception about the fairness and justice in the organizational processes (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Aryee, Chen, & Budhwar, 2004; Beugre & Liverpool, 2006; Ferris et. al., 1999). Drory & Beaty 1991) also suggested that gender should be investigated as a variable which potentially affects the attitudes and behaviors of organizational members with regard to organizational politics and that the possible unique effect of internal politics on public agencies and public servants is still unclear and deserves more attention.

Most all the studies done on Organizational Politics (OP) have been done in the West. Therefore it cannot be conclusively said that OP has either negative or positive influence on job outcomes. Within African context in terms of culture and region, very different results can be realized from the ones' that have been carried out in the west. Therefore this paper intends to carry out a study on whether OP has influence on job satisfaction, organizational conflicts and turnover intentions plus also if demographics e.g. age, gender, sex education or culture contributes to these work outcomes.

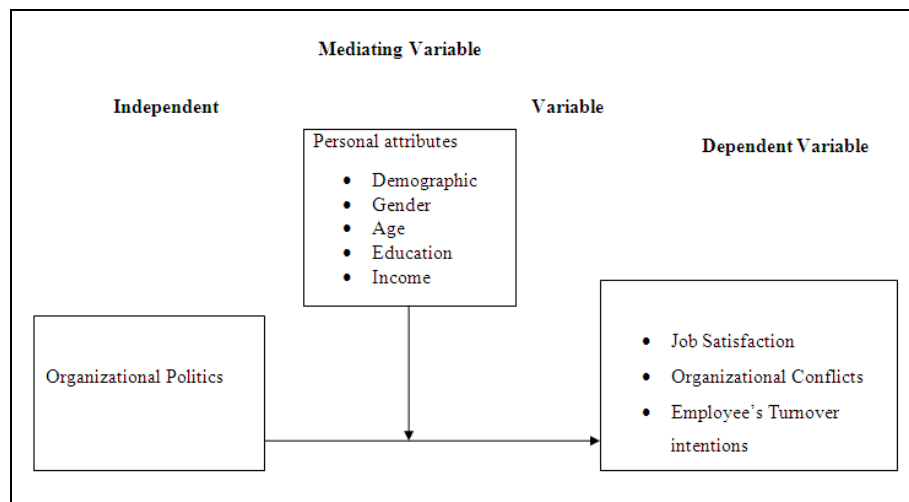


Figure 1: Proposed Conceptual Framework
Source Researcher 2014

3. Methodology

From the reviewed literature, organizational politics can have influence on work outcomes such as Job satisfaction, Turnover intentions and organizational conflicts. The research therefore proposes to carry out a research on the following questions. Can OP influence on Job satisfaction? Can OP influence Turnover intentions? And can OP influence Organizational Conflicts?

To carry out this study, the researcher will use survey design. Descriptive research design will be employed to determine whether there is significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables and to ascertain any association between these variables.

4. Findings

All the studies that have been carried out have some commonalities in that organizational politics has influence on work outcomes. In this case job satisfaction, employee turnover intention and organizational conflicts.

However, there are both positive and negative work outcomes driving some researches to conclude that not all organizational politics is bad for the organization.

A few research gaps are identified with the help of literature reviewed and findings of this study, whereby a meta-analysis on the subject of organizational politics will be used to work out correlations so as to clear on the subject of how the organizational politics influences work outcomes in our African region where culture and gender is very different from those viewed from the West.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Organizational politics is not inherently bad although often portrayed negative. Instead, it's important to be aware of the potentially destructive aspects of organizational politics in order to minimize their negative effect. Of course, individuals within organizations can waste time overly engaging in political behavior which is detrimental to the organization. However, as John Kotter wrote in *Power and Influence*, "Without political awareness and skill, we face the inevitable prospect of becoming immersed in bureaucratic infighting, parochial politics and destructive power struggles, which greatly retard organizational initiative, innovation, morale, and performance."

In keeping with these studies, there is a perceived expectation that political atmosphere in public agencies would result in negative job attitudes. Hence, public employees with high perceptions of organizational politics will tend to show lower levels of job satisfaction and other negative outcomes than other employee.

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