

**PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS AND WORK ENGAGEMENT:
THE ROLES OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE
AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT**

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my parents, Ebun and Shola Ajijala, and to my sisters, Busayo, and Tunmise.

ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationships among perceptions of organizational politics (POP), work engagement, organizational justice, and perceived organizational support. Using Prolific, data were collected from 303 full time workers across different industries in Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom. A regression analysis was carried out to test the effects of POP on work engagement, as well as the moderating and mediating roles of perceived organizational support and organizational justice, respectively. Results showed that that there was no direct effect between POP and work engagement, nor indirect effect of POP through procedural justice on work engagement. However, perceptions of organizational politics had a strong significant relationship with procedural justice, and procedural justice had a small significant relationship with work engagement. Perceived organizational support was not found to be a significant moderator in the relationship between POP and work engagement.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

POP- Perceptions of Organizational Politics

POS- Perceived Organizational Support

PJ = Procedural Justice

WE = Work Engagement

NA = Negative Affectivity

PA = Positive Affectivity

SD = Social Desirability

SupS = Supervisory status

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Although perceived by some to be healthy and advantageous (Ferris et al., 2005; Hochwarter, 2012), organizational politics, in the bulk of the research, have been shown to have strong undesirable effects (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Gandz and Murray (1980) referred to organizational politics as “a subjective state in which organizational members perceive themselves or others as intentionally seeking selfish ends in an organizational context when such ends are opposed to those of others” (p. 248). This was one of the first studies to conceptualize organizational politics as a subjective, individually perceived phenomenon. Ever since then, the concept has been thoroughly researched as *perceptions of organizational politics* (POP) in its relationship to a wide variety of workplace outcomes, yielding significant results. The general trend of these results is that POP is associated with negative outcomes such as low job involvement, low job satisfaction, job anxiety, and organizational withdrawal (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989), suggesting that POP can have a harmful influence on important job outcomes.

One key workplace outcome that is particularly relevant to POP, and that is receiving increasing attention in research, is low work engagement, or disengagement. Work engagement is a conceptualization of employees' attitude towards work characterized by high involvement, engrossment, and a positive mood, and has been found to be driven by job characteristics like skill variety and performance feedback (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). It is characterized by high levels of energy, mental resilience, a positive attitude to work, and identification and absorption with one's role in the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Leiter & Bakker, 2010). Engagement has more influence on performance than job satisfaction has (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002), and has also been linked with productivity (Christian, Garza,

& Slaughter, 2011). Theoretically, POP may therefore be a key contributor to low levels of employee engagement. However, there is still a great deal of research needed on the empirical link between organizational politics and work engagement. Furthermore, research on potential explanatory mechanisms (mediators) and influential factors (moderators) would help to provide a better understanding of the nature of this relationship. It is important to study the POP-work engagement relationship, because, according to Hackman and Lawler (1971), employees' workplace attitudes and behaviors are affected by how they experience workplace conditions, rather than the objective state of the conditions themselves.

Individuals' subjective experiences, opinions, and perceptions are the focus of research on politics perceptions (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011). This suggests that POP and its effect on key workplace outcomes, such as work engagement, might be associated with other subjective phenomena of individuals in the workplace environment. Two key constructs representing subjective phenomena that seem particularly relevant in trying to better understand and explain the relationship between POP and work engagement are employees' perceived organizational justice and organizational support. "Politics, justice, and support share to some extent a common underlying theme of fairness" (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001, p. 348) and "rarely occur in isolation from one another" (Harris, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2007, p. 136). Organizational justice refers to the perceived fairness of workplace procedures, outcomes, and interactions, and it has been found to influence workplace outcomes such as job commitment and turnover intentions (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997). Although political behavior has been found to affect resentment induced by lack of fairness (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001), there is still a paucity of research on the relationship between POP and organizational justice.

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the belief of the employee that the organization values their contribution, cares about their welfare, and is always ready to provide resources to help them carry out their tasks effectively. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2006) carried out a study on the moderating role of POS in the relationship between POP and the disengagement aspect of burnout, which yielded inconsistent results. This led them to suggest the possibility of other intervening variables. Taken together, the present research aims to address this gap in the POP literature by further examining the impact of POP on work engagement, as well as the role that perceived organizational justice and organizational support may play within it.

The aim of this study is to (a) test a hypothesized model of the POP-work engagement relationship, and (b) examine the roles of organizational justice as a mediator and POS as a moderator in this relationship. Therefore, the study aims to answer these research questions: *How does organizational justice mediate the relationship between POP and engagement? And, how does POS influence the relationship between POP and engagement?*

In the hypothesized model provided in Figure 1, POP directly influences work engagement. The relationship between the two variables is mediated by organizational justice, so that POP influences organizational justice, and organizational justice in turn influences work engagement. POS is expected to moderate the relationship between POP and work engagement.

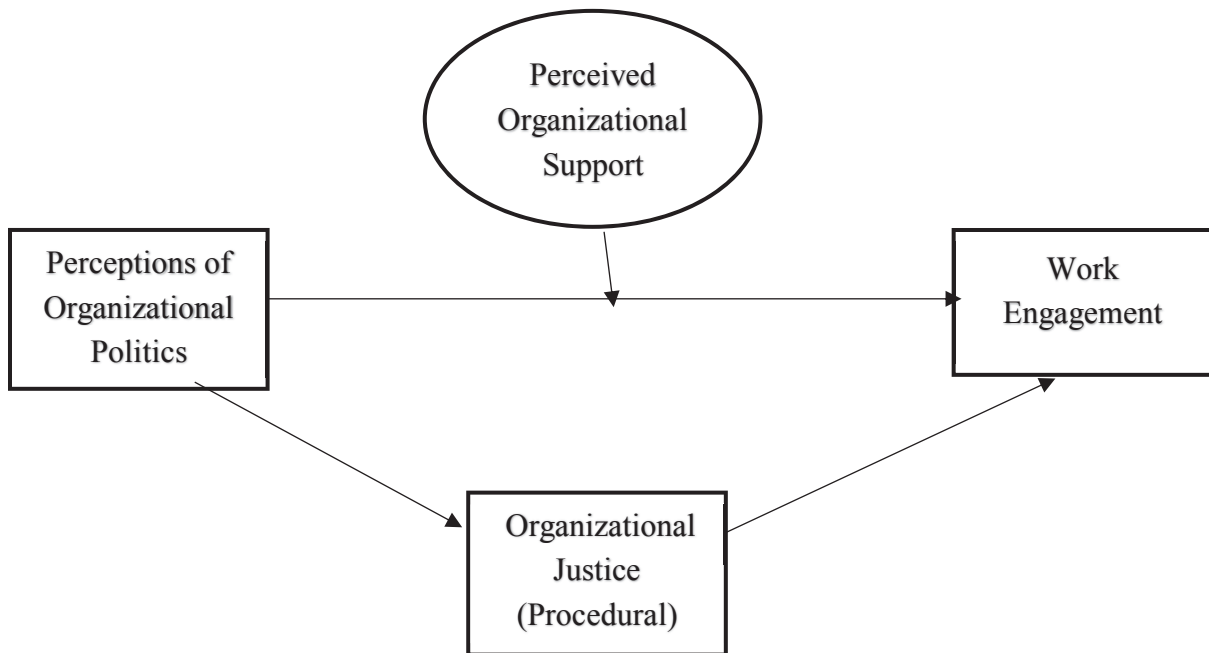


Figure 1. The Hypothesized Research Model

Previous research (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) has shown POP, organizational justice, and POS to be strong influencers of workplace outcomes and job attitudes, however these three variables have not been simultaneously studied in relation to work engagement.

Politics are present in every organization to a varying degree (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Gandz & Murray, 1980), hence, even though organizational politics cannot be completely eradicated, they can be minimized and controlled. Therefore, from a practical perspective, studying the POP-work engagement relationship will help practitioners by providing an understanding of how political behavior by certain individuals and groups in the workplace

directly influences how much energy, effort, and dedication observers are willing to give to their work. It will be also be helpful to them to know how tools within the organization, such as procedural justice and support, can be utilized to achieve organizational goals, while minimizing POP.

From a theoretical perspective, this study will add to the body of existing knowledge on organizational politics outcomes, and work engagement antecedents, as well as help researchers understand the process by which organizational politics affect work engagement and how the relationship can be explained and influenced by constructs such organizational justice and POS.

This thesis is divided into five chapters. The first is the introduction, followed by the second, a review of literature on organizational politics and other variables, including the development of the hypotheses in the study. The third chapter outlines the methods and analyses used in the study. The fourth chapter provides the results from the data obtained and the output from the analyses run. The final chapter discusses these results and the implications for theory and practice, as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the five hypotheses of the study are explained using various theories. The job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) is used to develop Hypothesis 1, and fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001) and Pfeffer political power model (Pfeffer, 1981) are used for Hypothesis 2. For Hypothesis 3, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1968) is used. Uncertainty management theory (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) and climate for engagement (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011) provide basis for Hypothesis 4 (mediation). Finally, organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and social exchange theory are used to develop Hypothesis 5 (moderation).

Perceptions of Organizational Politics

In order to have an overall understanding of organizations, an understanding of organizational politics is important (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). Organizations can be seen as groups of individuals working systematically and strategically towards an overarching goal, using tangible resources. POP occurs when certain individuals or groups are perceived to be maximizing self-interests, instead of working towards the common goal. Gandz and Murray (1980) found results to support the notion that “the existence of workplace politics is common to most organizations” (p. 244). This displays the need for studying the phenomenon. Individuals’ POP is part of their view of reality and will influence or even dictate attitudinal and behavioral responses (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002). Ferris et al. (1989) created a multilevel model of antecedent conditions, moderators, and behavioral and attitudinal outcomes of POP, which gave rise to a lot of research on its outcomes.

POP has been found to influence job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, counterproductive work behavior, job stress, and turnover intention (see Table 1). These results suggest that high POP reduces positive job attitudes. A workplace attitude that has not received enough attention with regards to POP is work engagement. This is a job attitude that, unlike POP, has been found to influence several positive workplace outcomes. Considering these previously outlined existing findings, it would be relevant to organizational behavioral research to study work engagement in relation to POP.

Table 1
POP Outcomes

POP outcome	Study	Finding
Job satisfaction	Ferris, Harrell-Cook, and Dulebohn (2000)	negative ($\beta = -.46$)
	Valle and Perrewe (2000)	negative ($\beta = -.50$)
	Witt, Andrews, and Kacmar (2000)	negative ($r = -.62$)
	Poon (2003)	negative ($\beta = -.41$)
	Chang et al. (2009)	negative ($r = -.47$)
Organizational commitment	Vigoda-Gadot and Kapun (2005)	negative ($r = -.32$)
	Miller, Rutherford, and Kolodinsky (2008)	negative ($r = -.37$)
	Bedi and Schat (2013)	negative ($\rho = -.42$)
Organizational citizenship behavior	Ladebo (2006)	negative ($\beta = -.20$)
	Chang et al. (2009)	negative ($r = -.16$)
	Bedi and Schat (2013)	negative ($\rho = -.29$)
Job performance	Bedi and Schat (2013)	negative ($\rho = -.16$)
	Abbas, Raja, Darr, and Bouckennooghe (2014)	negative ($\beta = -.21$)
Counterproductive work behavior	Zettler and Hilbig (2010)	positive ($r = .30$)
	Bedi and Schat (2013)	positive ($\rho = .42$)
	Wiltshire, Bourdage, and Lee (2014)	positive ($\beta = .19$)
Job stress/strain	Valle and Perrewe (2000)	positive ($r = .44$)
	Poon (2003)	positive ($\beta = .30$)
	Miller et al. (2008)	positive ($r = .34$)
	Bedi and Schat (2013)	positive ($\rho = .42$)
	Wiltshire et al. (2014)	positive ($\beta = .32$)
Turnover intentions	Valle and Perrewe (2000)	positive ($r = .56$)
	Miller et al. (2008)	positive ($r = .35$)
	Bedi and Schat (2013)	positive ($\rho = .50$)

Work Engagement

Research on work engagement arose out of the concept of *burnout*, a negative psychological state brought on by stress, which is created through the interaction of job-related factors (Maslach & Jackson, 1984). There was a need for more research on positive psychological states, as this influenced or created qualities that organizations sought in their employees: dedication, energy, and absorption (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). This led to the emergence of this motivational concept (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). “Work engagement is a positive, fulfilling affective-motivational state of work-related well-being” (Leiter & Bakker, 2010, p. 1) characterized by three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). *Vigor* refers to high energy levels, as well as mental resilience at work. It is “the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (Bakker et al., 2008, p. 188). Employees high in vigor might be a lot less likely to experience fatigue and mental exhaustion at work. *Dedication* is being “strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge” (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006, p. 702). This refers to an employees’ identification with their work. *Absorption* is characterized by high levels of concentration and engrossment in one’s work. An employee who is absorbed finds it difficult to disengage from their work. Consistent with previous research (Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2006), these three dimensions will be aggregated and analyzed as a single overall construct of work engagement in the present research.

Work engagement is sometimes conceptualized as the opposite of burnout (Maslach, 2011; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2006), although some researchers argue that the absence of burnout does not mean the presence of engagement (Bakker et al., 2011; Schaufeli & Salanova,

2011). Still, research shows that the former is the more often adopted stance. For example, 9 out of 11 studies reviewed by Kim, Kolb, and Kim (2013) on the relationship between work engagement and performance used the burnout antithesis approach operationalized by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

Work engagement is influenced by job resources and personal resources, or positive self-evaluations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008). “Job resources refer to those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may: Reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, be functional in achieving work goals, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 211). Examples of job resources that have been studied are autonomy, performance feedback, and social support (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Personal resources on the other hand, are “aspects of the self that are generally linked to resiliency”, as well as “individuals sense of their ability to successfully control and impact their environment, especially during challenging circumstances” (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003, p. 632). Some personal resources that have been studied in relation to work engagement are self-efficacy and optimism (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007).

Work engagement has been found to be instrumental for influencing performance, beyond job satisfaction (Christian et al., 2011). Engaged workers are happier (Schaufeli & Van Rhenen, 2006), more productive (Bakker et al., 2008), report less health problems (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, et al., 2001), and influence their colleagues positively (Bakker, Emmerik, & Euwema, 2006). Table 2 shows a summary of results from studies on work engagement outcomes.

Table 2
Work Engagement Outcomes

WE outcome	Study	Finding
Innovative work	Kim and Park (2017)	$r = .69, p < .01$
behavior	Chughtai and Buckley (2011)	$\beta = .37, p < .01$
Turnover intention	Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008)	$r = .16, p < .05$
Job performance	Schaufeli, Taris, and Bakker (2006)	$r = .37, p < .001$
	Gorgievski, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2010)	$r = .44, p < .001$
	Balducci, Fraccaroli, and Schaufeli (2010)	$r = .38, p < .001$
	Karatepe (2011)	$\beta = .27, p < .01$
Organizational citizenship behavior	Kirk-Brown and Van Dijk (2011)	$\beta = .43, p < .01$

POP and work engagement. The job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Janssen, & Schaufeli, 2001) proposes that job demands are primarily and positively related to exhaustion. Job demands refer to “those physical, social or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, et al., 2001, p. 501). These demands become stressors once they begin to affect individuals negatively.

Perception of organizational politics is a job demand (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, et al., 2001) because it places pressure on employees to “engage in political behaviors to compete for resources” (Chang et al., 2009, p. 782) or remain watchful in order to protect themselves and their resources. Moreover, POP is a stressor too. Politics have been posited to lead to strong negative affective reactions and thus, have been described as one of many potential stressors that individuals encounter at work (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris et al., 1989). According to Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau (2000), it is a hindrance stressor. Unlike challenge stressors that are seen as “having the potential to promote personal

gain or growth, trigger positive emotions” (LePine et al., 2005, p. 765), and have been found to be positively associated with job satisfaction (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), hindrance stressors impede goal attainment (Kim & Beehr, 2018), and have been found to be correlated with job turnover (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). A meta-analysis carried out by LePine et al. (2005) supports the theory that POP is a hindrance stressor, negatively correlated with strain ($r = -.50$).

Because of this, POP is expected to elicit negative physical and emotional responses such as fatigue or anxiety, the direct opposite of the positive state of mind and high energy levels that characterizes work engagement. “Working in a politicized work environment is a stressor that compromises employees’ psychological health, manifesting in higher levels of stress and symptoms of burnout” (Bedi & Schat, 2013, p. 253).

According to Ferris et al. (1996), three key features integrate politics and stress: their perceptual nature, uncertainty concerning outcomes, and the threat or opportunity status of politics and stress. *Perceived uncertainty* has been referred to as one of the primary determinants of stress, as well as one of the principal conditions under which political behavior occurs (Ferris et al., 1989; McGrath, 1976). “A political work climate is characterized by features such as back-stabbing, favoritism, and uncertainty...protecting oneself from these behaviors requires vigilance, which can deplete employees’ cognitive and emotional resources” (Bedi & Schat, 2013, p. 247). Hence, POP can be categorized as a job demand that leads to exhaustion in workers and prevents them from being fully engaged. Although job stress is not a direct antipode of work engagement, employees who have high job stress resulting from a high POP might find it difficult to maintain the energy levels and positive attitudes characteristic of high levels of engagement.

Another way POP may influence engagement is through *climate for engagement* (Bakker et al., 2011). Climate for engagement refers to employees’ shared perceptions about whether their workplace facilitates engagement, which determines how engaged they become (Bakker et al., 2011). Shared perceptions in how employees perceive six areas of work-life (Leiter & Maslach, 1999) – workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values – will determine a climate for engagement (Bakker et al., 2011). These six areas have been linked to engagement and burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, et al., 2001). According to Parker et al. (1995, p. 909), a negative outcome of POP is “believing that the organization does not value high work standards, challenging work, and integrity”. This belief translates to perceptions of reward, fairness, and values, three out of the previously mentioned six areas. Therefore, POP might determine climate for engagement, in that a high POP could result in a weak perceived climate for engagement. Based on the few studies that have examined the POP-work engagement relationship, findings suggest significant negative associations (see Table 3).

Table 3
The POP-Work Engagement Relationship

Study	Sample	Finding
Karatepe (2013)	231	$r = -.36, p < .01$
de Moraes and Teixeira (2017)	847	Vigor: $\beta = -.42$ Absorption: $\beta = -.38$ Dedication: $\beta = -.16$

Studies have also shown a positive relationship between POP and burnout (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2006; Huang, Chuang, & Lin, 2003; Sowmya & Panchanatham, 2011; Vigoda, 2002), which can be described as “an overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of

accomplishment” (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 399). Therefore, given the above theoretical and empirical evidence, it is expected that:

Hypothesis 1: POP correlates negatively with workplace engagement.

Organizational Justice

Because work engagement is influenced by several individually-perceived factors, as highlighted above (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2008), a theoretically plausible link between POP and work engagement is organizational justice. Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001) described organizational justice as focusing on the fairness of outcomes and allocations in organizations, as well as the fairness of processes used to decide these allocations. Fairness of outcomes and allocations in organizations is termed distributive justice, fairness of formal workplace relationships and interpersonal treatment is referred to as interactional justice, and procedural justice refers to the fairness of processes used to arrive at outcomes.

Distributive justice. “Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the resources received” (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001, p. 121). This perceived fairness is usually evaluated with reference to some rule or standard. It can be operationalized as an employee’s reaction to reward and recognition, or allocation of resources. Colquitt et al. (2001) found distributive justice to be highly correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and withdrawal.

Interactional justice. Interactional justice is “the quality of interpersonal treatment people receive during the enactment of organizational procedures” (Bies & Moag, 1986, p. 44). According to the model they introduced, certain individuals make use of tactics to avoid being responsible for undesirable outcomes that their actions have on others. This lack of

accountability can lead to a perception of unfairness. Interactional justice has been found to influence positive outcomes, including organizational citizenship behavior (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Moorman, 1991), trust in management, and affective commitment (Barling & Phillips, 1993). It is also related to lower levels of negative outcomes, such as withdrawal and turnover intentions (Masterson, Lewis-McClear, Goldman, & Taylor, 1997).

Procedural justice. Procedural justice is the perception of the fairness of procedures or processes by which resources are allocated. It has had main effects on trust in management (Barling & Phillips, 1993), performance-appraisal satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and POS (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Masterson et al., 1997). There are different determinants of procedural justice. For one, people's perceptions of procedural justice is influenced by the amount of input they had in the decision-making process (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Secondly, according to Leventhal (1980), there are six criteria for judging the fairness of a procedure: Consistency of procedures across subjects over time, freedom from bias or third party interests, accuracy of information used in making decisions, systems in place for correcting erroneous decisions, conformity to ethical standards, and consideration for opinions of stakeholders.

For the purposes of the present research, I will focus on procedural justice. According to Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, and Judge (1995), procedural justice is a more pertinent form of organizational justice to be considered when studying organizational politics. This is because employees who perceive outcomes as influenced by political behavior might be concerned about the procedures involved in making those decisions (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). Procedural justice has also been found to have more influence on job attitudes and performance than other

forms of organizational justice (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

POP and organizational justice. Organizational justice research arose from fairness theory, which states that accountability, or the assignment of blame, is essential to justice, and that injustice occurs when there is no one to blame (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). In every instance of unfair treatment, there should always be someone to be held responsible (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). When no one is held accountable for unfair decisions that favor certain individuals or groups, employees might perceive injustice. When political activity is rampant and harming employees, as well as the organization as a whole, and there are no means of controlling it, or holding individuals accountable for it, then employees might perceive injustice.

Another useful model for explaining this relationship would be the Pfeffer (1981) *political power model of organizational decision-making*. The model states that decisions are usually a result of political activity. Hence, political behavior might strongly relate to how decisions are made in an organization and how fair employees think these decisions are. An employee's perception of pay and promotion policies as being political could "violate expectations that rewards and recognition are based on performance" (Parker et al., 1995, p. 892). Parker et al. found a negative relationship between POP and fairness of reward and recognition. The uncertainty, ambiguity, and lack of clearly-defined task-reward outcomes characteristic of highly political workplace environments, can lead individuals to perceive unfairness or injustice. "Working in such an environment ... would undermine one's perceived justice, particularly procedural justice" (Bedi & Schat, 2013, p. 247).

Other researchers have also studied the POP-organizational justice relationship. Ferris et al. (2002) theorized a strong negative relationship between POP and procedural justice. Bedi and

Schat (2013) in their meta-analysis, identified 118 independent samples involving 44,560 employees, and there were 2,688 individuals across ten study samples that examined the POP-procedural justice relationship; They found a large effect size ($d = -.75$). Therefore, it is expected that POP is strongly correlated with perceptions of unfair decision-making in organizations, such that:

Hypothesis 2: POP correlates negatively with procedural justice.

Organizational justice and work engagement. Studies have shown evidence for organizational justice as an antecedent of work engagement (see Table 4). Employees will be engaged when they perceive fair distribution of rewards and fair procedures, as well as the politeness, friendliness, and care of their coworkers (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009). How employees perceive six areas of work-life (workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) determines the climate for engagement (Bakker et al., 2011, p. 79). Because organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness, organizational justice is also linked with work engagement through climate for engagement.

Saks (2006) found a positive relationship between procedural justice and engagement based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1968; Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). This theory postulates that interdependent interactions among individuals over time become relationships guided by mutual trust through rules of reciprocity, which can be negotiated (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This means that acts of one party must eventually be rewarded equitably through another act by another party. Employees are more likely to be engaged when they know they are appreciated and respected by the organization. For example, an employee who has often been a stakeholder in fairly executed procedures and processes will be motivated to reciprocate by putting in extra effort in their work. But if the employee has been a victim of

not-very-transparent or fair decisions, they will not be motivated to go beyond the bare minimum at work

Table 4
Work Engagement and Procedural Justice

Study	Sample	Finding
Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Peiró, and Cropanzano (2008)	317	$r = .27 (p < .05)$
Saks (2006)	102	$r = .25 (p < .01)$
Strom, Sears, and Kelly (2014)	348	$r = .52 (p < .01)$
Agarwal (2014)	323	$r = .11 (p < .01)$
Biswas, Varma, and Ramaswami (2013)	238	$r = .39 (p < .01)$
Inoue et al. (2010)	243	$r = .25 (p < .01)$
Karatepe (2011)	143	$r = .40 (p < .01)$
Lyu (2016)	254	$r = .62 (p < .01)$

Therefore, employees' perceptions of the fairness of procedures in the workplace will inform the extent to which they believe they can invest personal resources such as energy and extra time in the organization. If employees do not believe they will be rewarded or evaluated for their performance, they are unlikely to maintain a positive, enthusiastic attitude to work.

Hypothesis 3: Procedural justice correlates positively with work engagement.

Organizational justice as a mediator. In my hypothesized research model, organizational justice is the mechanism through which POP influences work engagement. Variation in perceptions of politics will influence variation in individually perceived

organizational justice, which in turn will influence variation in work engagement. Procedural justice is conceptualized as a mediator in this model because it is expected to be the mechanism through which POP influences work engagement. A moderator affects the strength and direction of a relationship, and a mediator explains the relationship between two variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For procedural justice to be a moderator in the study, it would have to be present at both high and low levels, regardless of the presence of or levels of POP, in order to be able to interact with the antecedent at different levels, to influence the criterion variable, work engagement. However, procedural justice has been found to be very strongly correlated with POP ($r = -.48, p < .05$; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001), and therefore directly influenced by POP. That is, high levels of POP are associated with low levels of organizational justice.

Another study conceptualized procedural justice as a moderator in the POP-outcome relationship, aiming to discover how individuals respond when POP, as well as justice, is high (Harris, Andrews, et al., 2007). The results showed that turnover intentions were slightly higher for individuals with high POP and low procedural justice than in individuals with low POP and high procedural justice. For satisfaction levels, they only changed with the level of distributive justice, regardless of the levels of POP or procedural justice. These findings lead me to believe that organizational justice, especially procedural justice, would provide a better fit as a mediator. Some theoretical rationale explaining the proposed relationship are posited below.

Political behavior in organizations thrives in uncertain situations, and these situations are created when there are no rules and regulations in place to control political activity, and when there is lack of clarity on the relationship between performance and reward (Ferris et al., 2002; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). Decision-making in such situations can be influenced by political behavior (Tushman, 1977), in that “when the information needed to make an informed decision

is lacking or ambiguous, decision makers rely upon their own interpretations of the data” (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997, p. 629). Uncertainty management theory (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) states that the presence or absence of organizational justice is perceived more strongly by individuals in uncertain situations (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). Individuals use information about fairness to deal with the anxiety and stress caused by uncertainty in the workplace, and this hereafter enhances positive mood, or increases positive affect (Ferris et al., 2002; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Strom et al., 2014). All of these suggest that a high POP work environment is an indicator of uncertainty, which causes individuals to gather information about organizational justice, therefore leading to a change in mood.

According to Parker et al. (1995, p. 909), a negative outcome of POP is “believing that the organization does not value high work standards, challenging work, and integrity” (p. 909). Therefore, POP is expected to influence one of the above-mentioned six areas of work-life – fairness, conceptualized as organizational justice, which in turn influences engagement. That is, when employees perceive their work environment to be highly political, this influences how they perceive fairness (or justice) in their workplace, which in turn influence work engagement.

The instrumental model of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001) states that people judge the fairness of a procedure not by its immediate outcomes, but by the possible future economic outcomes or benefits of the decision made. Using information about the procedure by which decisions are made, “individuals are able to estimate whether their future appears promising or bleak” (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001, p. 124). This estimation might influence how engaged they become, as it would give them a picture of whether there would be any benefits to being engaged in the future. Therefore, organizational justice is expected to explain the relationship between POP and workplace engagement.

Hypothesis 4: Procedural justice mediates the effect of POP on work engagement, such that the effect of POP on work engagement becomes nonsignificant after the effect of procedural justice is controlled for.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

POS refers to employees' belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It is trust in the willingness and ability of the organization to provide help for effectively carrying out tasks whenever needed (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It also refers to "the guidance offered by the organization, such as policies and procedures designed to assist employees in their jobs" (Harris, Harris, & Harvey, 2007, p. 632). Organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) postulates that employees tend to see the organization as a person who has a positive or negative attitude towards them. It also states that POS should be anteceded by fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Over time, cumulative acts of fairness in the organization connotes interest in the employee's welfare (Shore & Shore, 1995), thereby creating a perception of organizational support.

Research has shown POS to be positively correlated with organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé, & Johnson, 2003), organizational justice (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), job performance (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), and job satisfaction (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Harris, Harris, et al., 2007), and negatively correlated with POP (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Harris, Harris, et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2003). Like POP and organizational justice, POS is a subjective, individual-dependent notion, based on observation of real situations, and directly linked to job attitudes.

The three constructs have been studied together in terms of job outcomes (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Dulebohn, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995), and have been found to be significantly correlated (Nye & Witt, 1993), but not so much as to denote construct redundancy; Andrews and Kacmar (2001) have carried out a delineation of the constructs. However, these constructs have only been studied individually and separately with regards to work engagement.

POS as a moderator. The conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) states that “people strive to retain, protect, and build resources, and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources” (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Psychological stress occurs when these resources are threatened, lost or not gained after an investment of resources (Hobfoll). Four types of resources are: objects (e.g., shelter), personal characteristics (e.g., personal traits and skills), conditions (e.g., tenure, support, and seniority), and energies (time, money, knowledge; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). People make use of resources available to them from their environment in order to offset resource loss (Hobfoll).

Workplace politics is characterized by accrual of resources by certain individuals or groups (Hochwarter, 2012). According to Vredenburg and Maurer (1984), one of the strategies of organizational politics is to accumulate and control human, information, and capital resources. This implies lack of equitable distribution of such resources in the organization. If employees perceive that they have been denied or ‘cheated’ of certain resources seized or controlled by their colleagues, they might perceive a loss. Here, organizational support is a job resource that can be used to offset loss or lack of gain of other valued organizational resources. When employees believe that their organization has concern for their welfare and is ready to provide help when they need it (support), they might use this to deal with the lack of resource gain or resource loss that comes with the results of workplace politics (i.e. control or accumulation of resources by

certain individuals or groups). Hence, the presence of support would weaken the direct undesirable effects of POP.

Similarly, when individuals perceive workplace politics, as well as lack of support, they might not be willing to invest any more resources in the form of dedication, positivity, and mental energy. When individuals who perceive high political activity in their workplace also perceive this support as a resource to be lost or threatened, they might experience stress, which in turn would affect how engaged they are. This means that high POP and lack of support would lead to low engagement.

The social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) posits that individuals try to equitably reciprocate or repay acts by others that may have benefited them in the past. An organization that invests resources in its employees, showing support and care for individual well-being, is likely to elicit a debt of goodwill from these employees, which they could repay in form of their job attitudes and behaviors, such as increased effort, positive outlook, and high involvement. Therefore, POS is expected to strongly influence engagement.

According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002, p. 699), organizational support is meant to fulfil employees' "socio-emotional needs, which should lead to a heightened positive mood" (p. 699). POS is therefore also linked to engagement through reduction or attenuation of stress, defined by Matteson and Ivancevich (1987, p. 10) as "an adaptive response, moderated by individual differences, that is a consequence of any action, situation, or event that places special demands upon a person" (p. 10). Studies have indicated the existence of this relationship. POS was found to have a buffering effect against strain, anxiety, stress, and burnout (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Robblee, 1998). Laschinger, Purdy, Cho, and Almost (2006) found a negative relationship between POS and emotional exhaustion ($r = -.39$), as well as a positive relationship

between POS and performance effort ($r = .40$). Furthermore, Bano, Vyas, and Gupta (2015) found a positive relationship between POS and work engagement ($r = .51$). Work engagement is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience; therefore, it is expected that when employees perceive high POP, engagement would be higher with the presence of support than in its absence.

POS should moderate the POP-work engagement relationship in such a way that its presence would buffer the negative effects of high POP on engagement (see Figure 2). POS is expected to play the role of a moderator and not a mediator, because playing a mediator role would imply that organizational politics would directly influence perceived organizational support. However, this is likely not to be the case, as organizational politics are usually carried out by specific individuals or groups in the organization, while organizational support is inferred from policies and actions made in the name of the organization to support individual employees as part of its objectives.

Hypothesis 5: POS moderates the relationship between POP and work engagement, such that the negative relationship between POP and work engagement will be weaker at higher levels of POS.

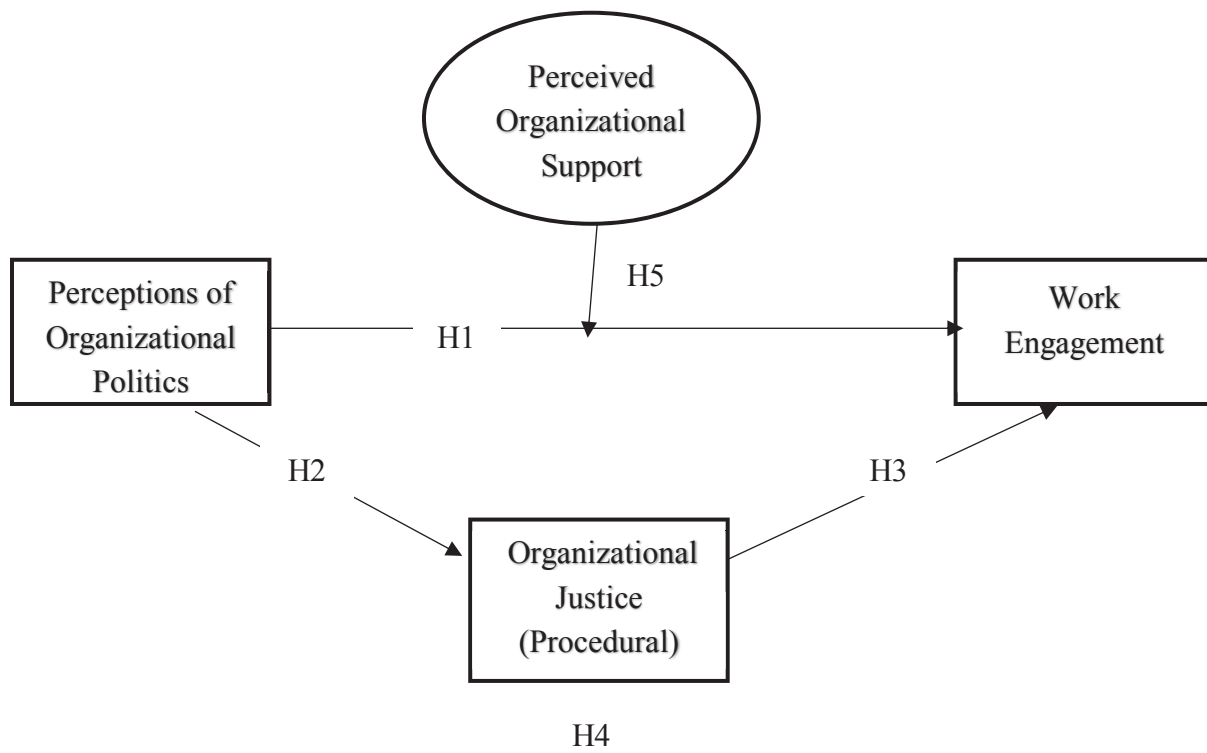


Figure 2. The Research Model With Hypotheses

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

A questionnaire was distributed to respondents online in order to gather the data for the study, and a pilot study was carried out first to test the measures for comprehensibility. The final sample was comprised of 303 full time workers in the US, Canada and the UK. In this chapter, I discuss the procedure for gathering the data, the sample characteristics, the measures used, as well as all the data analysis methods taken.

Procedure

I collected data by means of self-report survey, which I developed using Qualtrics. I then used Prolific, an online platform for participant recruitment and data collection, to recruit participants of the target sample population. The target population for the study was adults aged 18 and above, living and working full time in any industry in the US, Canada or the UK. Prolific members who were interested in participating in the survey followed the provided survey link to answer the questions on Qualtrics. There was a letter of information at the beginning of the survey that fully described the purpose of the study, as well as the participants' rights. In the event that they had any questions or concerns, participants were provided with the researcher contact information. After this, I obtained informed consent. Because this was an online survey, no written consent documentation could be collected, so instead, participants were informed, "By clicking 'Next' you agree to participate in this study". Participants were then presented with the survey items. At the end of the survey, there was a "thank you" message, and instructions to follow a completion link. Then, if they met the participation requirements, the participants' submissions were approved and compensation was awarded via Prolific.

Pilot Study

I carried out a pilot study to test the survey instruments for wording, conciseness, and effectiveness in gathering the desired data from the intended respondents. Twenty participants were recruited from Prolific. I examined results for response rates, time taken to complete, and quality of data, all of which proved satisfactory; there was expected variability in the data and there were no significant outliers nor substantial missing data. This then suggested that the survey was working as intended without any technical or methodological issues. Therefore, I recruited 285 more participants in order to achieve the intended sample size, and analysed the data as a whole.

Participants

The data analyzed for this study were from 303 full time employees from different organizations in Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom. I chose these three countries for the sake of convenience, and in order to stay within the boundaries of the available budget, as residents of these three countries were available to be recruited on a single platform. In total, 305 requests for participation were distributed (20 in the pilot study and 285 in the primary data collection), and 303 responses were received, resulting in a response rate of 99.4%. None of these responses were excluded for substantial missing data or failure to meet participation criteria, as pre-screening questions were used to screen out participants who were not in the sample population. These questions were: “Are you below the age of 18?” and “What is your employment status”, with a list of options such as “Part-time (<40 hours)”, “Full-time (40 hours +), “Casual,” and so on.

Table 5
Sample demographics

		N	%	Mean	SD
Gender	Male	152	50.2		
	Female	150	49.5		
	Other	1	.3		
Age	Under 25	15	5	36.18	9.141
	25-44	230	75.9		
	45-64	57	18.8		
	Over 65	1	0.3		
Country of Residence	Canada	8	2.6		
	United Kingdom	250	82.5		
	United States	37	12.2		
	Missing	8	2.0		
Organizational tenure	< 2 years	43	14.2	7.5	6.5
	2-5	104	34.3		
	Above 5	156	51.5		
Supervisory status	Managerial	145	47.9		
	Non-Managerial	157	51.8		
	Other	1	0.3		
Occupation	Healthcare	43	14.2		
	Technology	32	10.6		
	Education/Training	30	9.9		
	Administration	28	9.3		
	Operations	22	7.3		

Only participants over the age of 18 years and employed full-time were able to proceed. The participants had worked for their organization for an average of 7.50 years ($SD = 6.50$). The average age of participants was 36.18 ($SD = 9.14$), with a fairly even split in gender (50.2% male). The majority of participants were in non-supervisory roles (51.8%). The top three most highly represented occupational industries were healthcare (14.2%), technology (10.6%), and education/training (9.9%). Participants were primarily from United Kingdom, followed by the United States, then Canada.” Participants were each compensated with £1.20 GBP (\$1.53 USD, \$2 CAD). A summary of the demographic data for the participants is provided in Table 5.

Measures

Given that this was a cross-sectional study, all measures were combined to form a questionnaire of 72 items. The entire questionnaire was based on self-report and took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Perceptions of organizational politics. The Kacmar and Carlson (1997) 15-item version of the Kacmar and Ferris (1991) POP scale was used to measure organizational politics. This scale has been shown to have an internal consistency reliability estimate of .81 (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). It consists of three subscales: “General Political behavior” (2 items), “Go along to get ahead” (7 items), and “Pay and Promotion Policies” (7 items). Examples of items on the scale are “People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down”, under subscale “General Political Behavior”; “Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth”, under subscale “Go Along to Get Ahead”, and “Since I’ve worked in this department, I’ve never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically” under subscale “Pay and Promotion policies”. In this study, an overall measure (total scale score) was used as a unidimensional measure, as recommended by (Nye & Witt, 1993) and consistent with previous research (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Harris, Andrews, et al., 2007; Harris, Harris, et al., 2007). Responses were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). In the present study, Cronbach’s Alpha was .88, consistent with previous research (.81; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997).

Work engagement. I measured work engagement using the Schaufeli, Bakker, et al. (2006) short questionnaire, UWES-9 (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale). This scale is composed of three subscales: Vigor (VI), Dedication (DE), and Absorption (AB). Examples of items in the scale are “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (Vigor); “I am enthusiastic about my job”

(Dedication); and “I get carried away when I’m working” (Absorption). The overall measure (total scale score) was used, as consistent with previous research (Agarwal, 2016; Bano et al., 2015; Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Karatepe, 2013). In support of using the overall uni-dimensional scale versus the multi-dimensional scale, all three facets of engagement correlated similarly – in terms of both strength and direction – with the other key variables in the present research. As such, I did not deem it necessary to conduct CFA to examine the results at the multi-dimensional facet-level. The total reliability estimate for this scale was $\alpha = .92$, similar to previous research (.92; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2006). Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Organizational justice. I measured the mediator variable using the Moorman (1991) 7-item procedural justice subscale. The subscale is titled, *Formal Procedures*, and it has seven items ($\alpha = .82$; Harris et al., 2007). An example on this subscale is “All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees”. This unidimensional scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .91 in the present study. Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Perceived organizational support. I measured the moderator variable using the 8-item version (Eisenberger et al., 1997) of the full Eisenberger et al. (1986) Scale of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS). Within the full 36-item measure, these 8 items loaded highest on the main factor and the Cronbach’s alpha had been found to be .90 (Eisenberger et al., 1997). The current study revealed a Cronbach’s alpha of .95. Examples of items in the 8-item scale are “Help is available from my organization when I have a problem” and “my organization cares about my opinions”. Responses were measured using a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Social desirability. A 10-item short form (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) of the Marlow-Crowne social desirability scale was used to measure social desirability sensitivity as a control variable. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .70; In this study, the responses on the scale were measured as "true" or "false". An example of an item on this scale is "I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake". For the first five items on the scale, a *true* response indicated high social desirability, and was scored as 1, and a *false* response indicated low social desirability and was scored as 0. For the last five items, it was the reverse. It was important to include this scale as individuals high in social desirability may seek to select responses which they believed would make them look good to the researcher, not necessarily the truth, thereby introducing bias into the data.

Positive and negative affectivity. Positive and Negative Affectivity have been found to exacerbate the negative effects of POP (Hochwarter & Treadway, 2003). They refer to a mood state that could potentially affect a participant's responses to items on a questionnaire. For example, a participant in a particularly bad or angry mood may provide responses that are more negative than what is typically reflective of their true responses. I used the 10-item Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS; Thompson, 2007) as a control for common method variance. The internal consistency reliabilities of the subscales were .84 for NA, and .76 for PA. An example of an item on the Negative Affectivity scale is "Thinking about yourself and how you normally feel, to what extent do you generally feel *Upset?*", and on the Positive Affectivity scale, "To what extent do you generally feel *Inspired?*". Responses on this scale were measured on a 5-point scale, where 1 is *never* and 5 is *always*. A high score on this scale indicated high positivity or negative affectivity.

Demographics. Supervisory status was considered as a control variable in this study, as several studies have shown that lower-level workers are more likely to perceive political activity within the organization (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980). Supervisory status was measured using the options “Managerial/Supervisory” and “Non-managerial/Non-Supervisory”. Participants were asked to enter their age, gender (Male, Female, and other), and their industry. For industry, options were presented to participants to select from (e.g., Healthcare, Management, Sales, etc.). Finally, each participant was asked to type in their nationality and their country of residence

Careless responding items. Careless responding items are designed to assess whether participants are paying careful attention as they respond, rather than randomly selecting responses (Meade & Craig, 2012). Lack of adequate attention can result in useless, false data - a waste of time, energy, and other resources. Therefore, in order to assess the careful responding of respondents, one bogus item was included in the questionnaire, which simply read: “For this question, please select *strongly agree*” (Meade & Craig, 2012). Any score inconsistent with the instruction in the attention check item would have been reflective of careless responding. None of the participants in the present study responded incorrectly to this item, therefore no participants were removed on the basis of careless responding.

Analyses

I carried out confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate the hypothesized measurement model. The use of CFA is appropriate (a) to document the construct validity of the measures employed in the study, and (b) to provide empirical evidence against common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Reio, 2010). I carried out the CFA by conducting a goodness-of-fit test (Chi-Square, GFI, CFI & RMSEA) of the model.

I tested the five hypotheses of the model using regression analysis. This was conducted using PROCESS macro Model 5 (Hayes, 2012). “PROCESS is a computational tool for path-analysis based moderation and mediation analysis as well as their integration in the form of a conditional process model” (Hayes, 2013, p. 419). During this one-step analysis, I controlled for supervisory status, social desirability, and positive and negative affectivity.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In the raw data, eight out of 18 variables had missing values for less than 5% of scale items and 7% of total responses, which I replaced with the mean for all the continuous scales. In this section, I first discuss the structural equation modelling, the descriptives, and finally the test of hypotheses.

Structural Equation Modelling

The measurement model consists of four factors: POP, procedural justice, POS, and work engagement. The fit indices for the first four-factor model indicated: $\chi^2(696) = 1,821.3$ ($p = .00$), GFI = .75, CFI = .85, RMSEA = .07. Two items (POP10r, POP11r) were found to have very low loadings (.09, .26) and model fit improved after they were removed [$\chi^2(623) = 1,642.1$, $p = .00$, GFI = .75, CFI = .86, RMSEA = .07]. However, two more items (POP12, POP14) indicated low correlation (.44, .49) and were also deleted to improve overall fit. The fit indices for the final 4-factor model were significantly better than for a three-factor model, two factor model, and one factor model, as shown in Table 6. These results suggest that the four-factor model best fit the data. The standardized estimates for the final four-factor model ranged from .40 to .88, with most of the loadings above .70 (Appendix A).

Table 6
Model Fit Indices

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
4-factor model (Hypothesized)	1,349.3	554	Base Model	.79	.89	.07
3-factor model	1,683.6	557	334.3/3	.72	.84	.08
2-factor model	1,980	559	630.7/5	.07	.80	.09
1-factor model	2,780	560	1430.7/6	.55	.69	.12

Note. 3-factor model = POP, WE, PJ+POS; 2-factor model=WE, POP+PJ+POS; 1 factor model= All items. All χ^2 values were significant beyond the .01 level

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations

The means, standard deviations, internal consistency reliabilities, and intercorrelations among study variables are presented in Table 7.

Table 7
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Intercorrelations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	36.18	9.14	—									
2. Gender	1.50	.50	-.10	—								
3. POP	3.01	.75	-.03	.00	.88							
4. POS	3.18	.96	-.02	.05	-.70**	.95						
5. PJ	3.36	.79	-.04	.06	-.60**	.73**	.90					
6. WE	3.16	.82	.03	.07	-.46**	.63**	.54**	.91				
7. NA	2.33	.80	-.12*	.12*	.30**	-.24**	-.19**	-.20**	.84			
8. PA	3.60	.63	.03	.11	-.23**	.38**	.29**	.55**	-.24**	.76		
9. SD	.39	.21	-.03	.02	.19**	-.16**	-.15*	-.22**	.23**	-.21**	.60	
10. SupS	1.48	.50	-.11	.05	.06	-.10	-.11	-.12*	.04	-.05	-.05	—

Note. $N = 303$. POP = Perceptions of Organizational Politics, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, PJ = Procedural Justice, WE = Work Engagement, NA = Negative Affectivity, PA = Positive Affectivity, SD = Social Desirability, SupS = Supervisory status. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Cronbach's alphas are shown along the diagonal.

In the study sample, POP was strongly negatively correlated with work engagement ($r = -.46, p < .01$). The correlation matrix also shows a large and significant negative association between POP and procedural justice ($r = -.60, p < .01$). Consistent with previous research, procedural justice was positively associated with work engagement ($r = .54, p < .01$). Also of note, POS was related to higher levels of work engagement ($r = .63, p < .01$.)”

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1 through 5 were tested with regression analysis using PROCESS macro Model 5, with results presented in Tables 8–10. I controlled for the effects of negative

affectivity, positive affectivity, social desirability, and supervisory status during hypothesis testing. Positive affectivity explained 19% of total variance in procedural justice ($R^2 = .19, p < .01$), negative affectivity explained only 2% of total variance in procedural justice ($R^2 = .02, p = .70$), and social desirability explained 6% ($R^2 = -.06, p = .76$). Supervisory status explained 11% ($R^2 = .11, p = .12$). The rest of the variance (62%) was explained by POP and random error.

Positive affectivity also explained 44% of the variance in work engagement ($R^2 = .44, p < .01$), negative affectivity explained 3% ($R^2 = .03, p = .53$), social desirability explained 32% ($R^2 = -.32, p = .06$), and supervisory status explained 10% of the variance ($R^2 = .10, p = .15$). The rest of the variance (11%) was explained by POP and POS.

Table 8
Model Coefficients Showing The Relationship Between POP And Procedural Justice

	Coeff	Se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.48	.29	8.58	.00	1.91	3.05
POP	-.60	.05	-11.64	.00	-.70	-.50
NA	.02	.05	.39	.70	-.08	.11
PA	.19	.06	3.18	.00	.07	.31
SD	-.06	.18	-.31	.76	-.42	.30
SupS	.11	.07	1.57	.12	-.03	.26
$R^2 = .39$						
$F(1480) = 37.88, p < .01$						

Note. N = 302. POP = Perceptions of Organizational Politics, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, PJ = Procedural Justice, WE= Work Engagement, NA = Negative Affectivity, PA = Positive Affectivity, SD = Social Desirability, SupS = Supervisory status.

Examining the relationship between POP and work engagement (Table 9), POP had a small and non-significant association with work engagement ($\beta = -.04, p = .59$), not supporting **Hypothesis 1** that POP negatively influences work engagement. Testing whether POP (X) negatively influences procedural justice (M), as shown in the path in Figure 4 (Appendix A), results showed that POP has a large significant association with procedural justice ($\beta = -.60; p <$

.01; Table 8). This supports **Hypothesis 2**, such that POP negatively influences procedural justice.

Analysis of the relationship between procedural justice and work engagement showed that procedural justice has a small positive significant association on work engagement ($\beta = .16$, $p = .01$), providing some support to **Hypothesis 3** that procedural justice positively influences work engagement.

Table 9
Model Coefficients Showing The Relationship Between POP, Procedural Justice, And POS On Work Engagement

	Coef	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	0.98	.34	2.88	.00	.31	1.64
POP	-.04	.07	-0.54	.59	-.16	.09
PJ	.16	.06	2.51	.01	.03	.28
POS	.30	.06	4.91	.00	.18	.42
POP x POS	.06	.05	1.28	.20	-.03	.15
NA	.03	.04	0.63	.53	-.06	.12
PA	.44	.06	7.70	.00	.33	.56
SD	-.32	.17	-1.88	.06	-0.65	.01
SupS	.10	.07	1.46	.15	-.03	.23
$R^2 = .53$						
$F(2344) = 40.67, p < .01$						

Note. POP = Perceptions of Organizational Politics, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, PJ = Procedural Justice, WE = Work Engagement, NA = Negative Affectivity, PA= Positive Affectivity, SD = Social Desirability, SupS = Supervisory status. N = 302.

Testing the relationship between POS and work engagement (Table 9), results showed that POS has a moderate positive significant association with work engagement ($R^2 = .30$, $p < .01$). The interaction between POP and POS, however, had a small positive non-significant association with work engagement ($R^2 = .06$, $p = .20$), thereby failing to provide support to **Hypothesis 5** that POS moderates the relationship between POP and work engagement.

With PROCESS generating output at a 95% confidence interval (Table 10), there was only a small indirect effect of POP on work engagement via procedural justice ($\beta = -.09$, CI = -.19), providing a lack of support for **Hypothesis 4** that procedural justice partially mediates the relationship between POP and work engagement. No conditional direct effects were found between POP, POS, and work engagement (Table 10). This fails to provide support to **Hypothesis 5**, that POS moderates the relationship between POP and work engagement.

PROCESS computed the total effect of POP on work engagement as the sum of the direct and indirect effects of POP (Hayes, 2017), and results showed that there is only a small negative insignificant total effect on work engagement ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .27$ CI = -.27), failing to provide sufficient support to the total hypothesized model.

Table 10
Mediation and moderation analysis showing conditional direct and indirect effects of POP on Work Engagement

POS	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1.05	-.10	.09	-1.11	.27	-.27	.07
.20	-.02	.06	-.37	.71	-.15	.10
0.89	.02	.07	.23	.82	-.12	.16
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
PJ	-.09	.05	-.19	.01		

Note. POS= Perceived Organizational Support, PJ= Procedural Justice. N=302

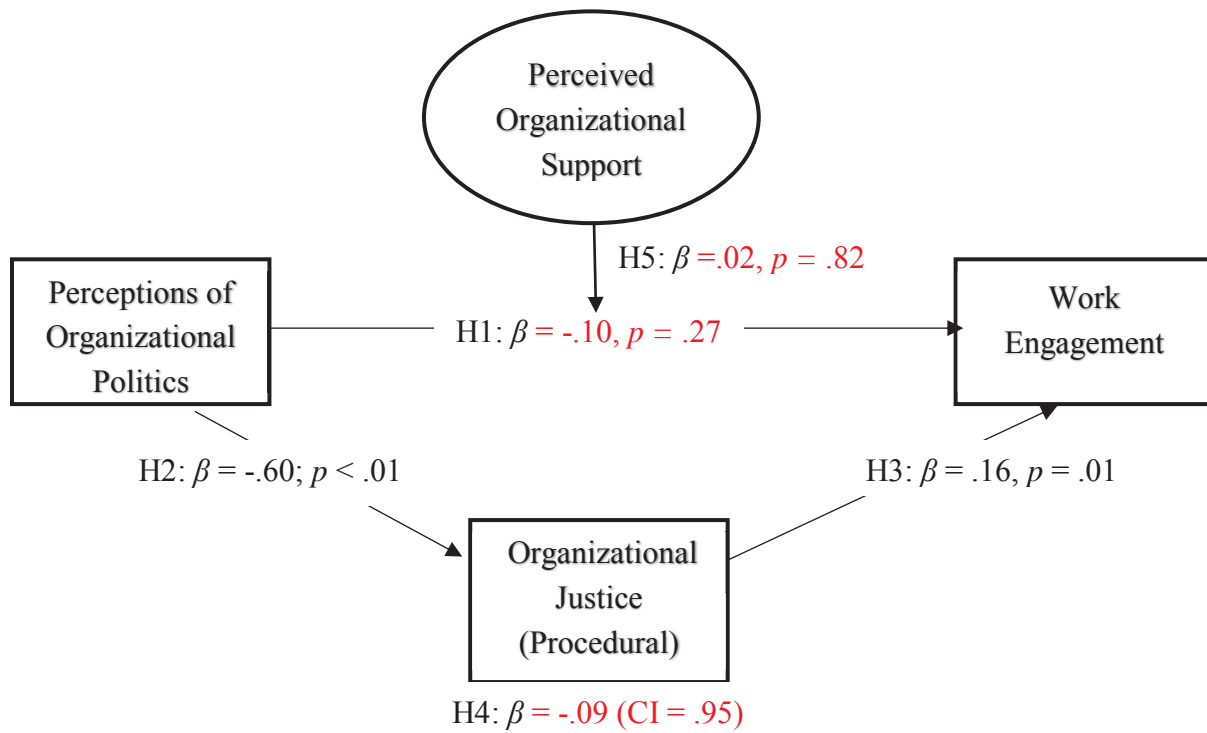


Figure 3. The Research Model With Results Of Hypotheses Testing

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study sought to investigate the relationship between employees' POP and their work engagement, as well as to examine the roles of POS and organizational justice in this relationship. By carrying out this study, I have been able to examine moderation and mediation relationships that have never been tested before. This has contributed to the existing body of knowledge on the relationship between these concepts in organizational psychology.

The present study provided evidence for a negative relationship between POP and organizational justice, as well as a positive relationship between organizational justice and work engagement, as predicted. In general, organizational justice has a greater association with work engagement than POP, and no direct moderation or mediation effects were found. Findings are discussed below.

POP, Organizational Justice, and Work Engagement

POP and work engagement. The data obtained revealed a moderate negative correlation between POP and work engagement, but subsequent analyses showed that this is largely attributable to the control variables: positive and negative affectivity, social desirability, and supervisory status. Analyses showed that POP does not have any direct effect on work engagement, contradicting my hypothesized model as well as previous studies (de Moraes & Teixeira, 2017; Eldor, 2017; Jain & Ansari, 2018; Karatepe, 2013) This came as a surprise; it was expected that POP would play the role of a job demand or stressor in this relationship (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Chang et al., 2009; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Ferris et al., 2002). Possible explanations for the findings are examined below.

According to (Bakker et al., 2011), employees who are engaged have the 'psychological capital', such as self-efficacy, to deal with high job demands. Self-efficacy refers to "beliefs in

one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408). When an engaged employee perceives organizational politics, they might utilize this self-efficacy to stay motivated and maintain their usual levels of engagement, rather than experience a decrease in engagement. Such employees are so 'fully concentrated' and 'happily engrossed' (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 210) in their work, therefore it follows that they might not be very much concerned about organizational politics.

According to the climate for engagement theory (Bakker et al., 2011), workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values are factors that influence employees' perception of job demands and job resources, which in turn influences their engagement. I posit that an employees' POP as a job demand would depend on the form of political behavior being observed. If this behavior is not one that will be presumed to affect any of the above-mentioned six areas, then an employee might not necessarily feel threatened. Rather, they might feel like an onlooker or passer-by in the political climate of the organization. In such a situation, the presence of political activity will not influence their engagement. An example of such an activity is creating and maintaining a favorable image (Madison et al., 1980). If this action is perceived as unlikely to cause *direct* harm to individuals, it might simply be ignored, unlike political activities like blackmail or bribery (Ferris, Ellen, McAllister, & Maher, 2019).

This lack of a significant direct effect between POP and work engagement in my study is novel, as previous studies have often found an either positive (de Moraes & Teixeira, 2017; Eldor, 2017) or negative (Agarwal, 2016; de Moraes & Teixeira, 2017; Jain & Ansari, 2018; Karatepe, 2013) relationships. This suggest that work engagement might be a unique construct from job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and so on; unlike these other

constructs, it appears to be resistant to the influence of organizational politics. However, I found a significant relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and organizational justice.

In regards to the construct of engagement, it is also interesting to note some empirical evidence from the present study to suggest that it is unique from other attitudinal variables. That is, engagement was significantly correlated with – but not redundant – with positive affectivity ($r = .55, p < .01$), perceived organizational support ($r = .63, p < .01$), and perceived organizational justice ($r = .54, p < .01$).

POP and procedural justice. As hypothesized, there is a strong significant negative association between POP and procedural justice, and this supports previous findings (Aryee, Chen, & Budhwar, 2004; Bedi & Schat, 2013; Harris, Andrews, et al., 2007; Othman, 2008). The uncertainty and ambiguity in highly political workplace environments, caused by individuals or groups accruing resources (Hochwarter, 2012) for self-interest or influencing organizational decision-making (Pfeffer, 1981) could contradict existing reward-recognition processes, leading employees to believe they are being unfairly treated. For example, if an employee believes that political behavior is practiced rampantly in the workplace, not only unchecked, but bringing about positive outcomes for those who engage in it, they might feel cheated.

This finding contributes to social exchange theory, which states that interdependent interactions among individuals over time become relationships guided by mutual trust through rules of reciprocity, which can be negotiated (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In other words, individuals will engage in positive behavior when they have benefited from fair organizational procedures. According to Andrews and Kacmar (2001) POP weakens the social exchange relationship, while procedural justice strengthens the relationship, therefore, it follows that they

would be negatively associated with each other. This leads to an interesting observation on the next hypothesis.

Procedural justice and work engagement. Although POP and engagement are not significantly directly related in the present study, and POP has a strong significant association with procedural justice, the relationship between procedural justice and engagement is small but positively significant. This is interesting because it appears that justice is a stronger influencer of engagement than POP, even though the two concepts are related. This once again provides support for the distinctiveness of politics and justice. These findings support existing research (Agarwal, 2014; Kim & Park, 2017; Park, Song, & Lim, 2016; Zhu, Liu, Guo, Zhao, & Lou, 2015).

According to Macey et al. (2009), perceptions of fair procedures motivate employees to be engaged. According to the social exchange theory, acts of one party must eventually be rewarded equitably through another act by the other party. Because procedural justice strengthens the social exchange relationship (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001), employees might be inclined to reciprocate by being more dedicated to their work.

Nevertheless, the association between these two variables is smaller in the present study than expected. This suggests that employees' perceived justice of formal procedures only have little influence over their state of engagement. It is suspected that there are other factors with far greater influences on work engagement. For example, according to the self-determination theory (Deci et al., 2001), satisfaction of the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness facilitate work engagement. If employees perceive themselves to be competent at their jobs, given enough autonomy, and respected by their colleagues, it might provide enough intrinsic motivation to keep them engaged, such that organizational justice is not as instrumental in

influencing engagement. Furthermore, personal resources such as coping style, self-efficacy, and optimism have been shown to be very important influencers of work engagement (Bakker et al., 2008; Storm & Rothmann, 2003; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). The data from this study supports this claim, as it shows a moderate positive significant relationship between positive affectivity and work engagement ($r = .55, p < .01$; See Table 7). This suggests that motivating factors for engagement might be more intrinsic than external.

The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice

Contrary to expectations, in the present study procedural justice did not mediate the relationship between POP and work engagement (.09). This means that procedural justice did not serve as an explanatory mechanism in the relationship between these two variables in the present research (Baron & Kenny, 1986), since no negative indirect effect exists.

According to Tushman (1977), decision-making in uncertain situations can be influenced by political behavior. Uncertainty management theory (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) posits that the presence or absence of organizational justice is perceived more strongly by individuals in such situations. This uncertainty also causes individuals anxiety and stress, and they use information about fairness to deal with this (Ferris et al., 2002; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Strom et al., 2014). For example, political behavior that goes unchecked in an organization might promote an air of uncertainty, which would therefore lead people to believe something is going on behind the scenes that they are not informed about, which might lead them to perceive foul play or unfairness. They may deal with this anxiety by using information available to them about the fairness of formal procedures or outcomes, and this could, in turn, determine their engagement at work.

But the data from this study challenges this position. This is a new finding, as to the best of my knowledge, no previous research has been done on this relationship.

The Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support

In the present study, POP and POS do not have a combined total effect on work engagement. This means that whether employees perceive their workplace to be political, even if there is or is not organizational support, their work engagement is not significantly affected.

According to social exchange theory, individuals try to equitably reciprocate or repay acts by others that may have benefited them in the past (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When an organization shows that it values its employees' contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986), this is an investment of sorts, and because of the rules of reciprocity guiding social exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), employees should be encouraged to give back, in the form of work engagement. Yet the results show that even the presence or absence of organizational support is not enough to create an effect between workplace politics and work engagement.

In sum, the findings from the present research support some of the existing theories discussed, but also fail to provide support for others. In line with fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), Pfeffer's political power model (Pfeffer, 1981), and social exchange theory (Blau, 1968), employees who perceived organizational politics were more likely to feel a sense of organizational justice in their workplace, and this sense of justice was related to greater employee engagement. In contrast, employees' engagement at work did not seem to be influenced by their POP, which goes against the propositions of the job-demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, et al., 2001). Lastly, the non-significant moderation and

mediation hypotheses failed to provide support for uncertainty management theory (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) and organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Implications

Theoretical. The findings of the present research have filled an existing gap in the literature on work attitudes by providing insight into a research question that has not been considered before: What is the relationship between POP, POS, organizational justice, and work engagement?

First, the results from this study align with, as well as contradict some of the existing theories and findings in organizational behavior. It affirms the social exchange theory, as well as uncertainty management and self-determination theory. However, it calls into question the applicability of the job demand-resources theory in this case, because POP might not play the role of a job demand or stressor, hence, not influencing engagement. This implies that external factors not previously considered might be involved, such as the observer's participation in political activity, which can be termed their 'political characteristics' (Ferris et al., 2019). This includes their political skill, as well as the will to participate (political will). Political will has been defined by (Treadway, 2012, p. 533) as "the motivation to engage in strategic, goal-directed behavior that advances the personal agenda and objectives of the actor that inherently involves the risk of relational or reputational capital" (p. 533). In contrast, political skill is the ability to succeed at engaging in organizational politics. According to Ferris et al. (2005), it is the capacity to successfully gather information about people at work, and use this information to make people act in ways that would benefit one personally, or the organization as a whole. I argue that if an employee has some political will, as well as the skill, POP might place demands on them to engage and look out for their own interests, hereby introducing stress, which would affect their

engagement. On the other hand, if an employee has little to no political will and/or skill, they would be less inclined to participate, and therefore less affected. The type of political behavior being observed could also intervene. For example, aggressive activities like blackmail and bribery (Ferris et al., 2019) may place more stress on the observers than softer influence tactics like ingratiation (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980).

Second, the present study also suggests that POS and procedural justice are strong influencers of work engagement. This advances the Bakker and Demerouti (2008) model of work engagement, in that procedural justice and POS have become some of the job resources that contribute to engagement (others include autonomy, performance feedback etc.). It might also be interesting to see how they interact together to influence engagement, and the predictive power compared to other influencers that have been researched, like self-efficacy and other personal characteristics.

Practical. A practical implication of this study is that practitioners who desire work engagement for their employees should make decisions involving employees using fair, transparent procedures, and carry out measures that demonstrate organizational support for the employees – such as providing avenues for improving mental health, or more convenient and ergonomic work stations. Managers can, from time to time, carry out assessments of their supervisees' perceptions of organizational fairness, as well as their perceptions of organizational support, in order to know where the organization is lacking.

In this study, perceptions of political activity had neither harmful nor beneficial influence on employee engagement. Therefore, practitioners may still be able to maintain employee engagement, even when political activity is present (Hochwarter, 2012). This means that even though the presence of organizational politics has been shown to be harmful to an organization in

certain aspects (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Chang et al., 2009; Harrell-Cook, Ferris, & Dulebohn, 1999; Vigoda, 2002), employee work engagement may be more resistant to these harmful effects.

Furthermore, if employers desire to keep employees' perception of fairness high, they need to monitor politics in the organization and limit it to an extent, in order that it won't result in a perception of injustice among employees. Practitioners should also maintain clear cut reward-recognition systems and make sure they are not manipulated, but understood by the employees.

Limitations

This study has explored a specific area of research from a new angle and has made contributions to the organizational behavior literature, yet it is not without its limitations. First, self-reports were used to obtain the data for this study. This makes the study susceptible to common method variance. Common method variance (CMV), or common method bias (CMB), occurs when variables are measured with instruments collecting data from the same source using a single method (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The result of this is that relationships become inflated or deflated beyond their actual size. CMV poses a danger to the validity of the results obtained in a study and calls into question how much of the correlations is attributable to error. Yet, the use of self-reports was the most appropriate for this study, as all the variables in the study are more accurately assessed by the respondents themselves. In such cases-- in the measurement of motives, psychological states, and subjective perceptions-- self-reports are most recommended (Conway & Lance, 2010). It is also often unfeasible to obtain measures of employee job attitudes from two or more different sources (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Certain measures were taken to control CMV in the study. I measured and controlled for positive and negative affectivity and social desirability, which are factors that contribute to CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Positive or negative affectivity refers to the tendency of respondents to view themselves or the world around them in an overly positive or negative light (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and social desirability is the tendency of respondents to want to provide responses they believe would make them look good to others (Nederhof, 1985). Careless responding checks and reverse-coded items were also included in the questionnaire to help mitigate CMV. Careless responding items are designed to assess whether participants are paying careful attention as they respond, rather than randomly selecting responses (Meade & Craig, 2012). None of the responses in the data showed careless responding. The confirmatory factor analyses carried out also showed that the four-factor model had better fit than the three, two and one-factor model (See Table 6), hereby providing evidence of construct validity.

Secondly, the organizational politics scale used in the study was designed to measure politics perceptions, and not the extent to which observers are being directly affected by these political activities. Therefore it could have been more informative if this study had been able to measure the direct impact of organizational politics among the respondents and examine the role it played in the hypothesized model.

Directions for Future Research

Firstly, I carried out this study on participants in the US, UK, and Canada. It would be interesting to know whether the same results would be obtained consistently across cultures, or whether results will be influenced by cultural or geographic factors. Future research should be carried out using samples from a wide range of countries, and samples from different specific countries.

Secondly, results from this study contradict some of the research that has been done on these variables. It would be worthwhile to reinvestigate the existence or non-existence of these relationships with larger samples, over longer time periods, as it has opened up a possibility that two concepts proposed to be related might not be related at all. This is needed in order to fully understand exactly what antecedents do or do not influence work engagement.

There is a need for future research to examine the role of employee political characteristics (political will, political skill) in the relationship between their perception of organizational politics and their POP-triggered stress levels. POP could lead to stress, which could lead to low engagement, however the relationship between POP and stress, and stress and engagement could be moderated by political characteristics. This kind of research would help provide more understanding on the nature of the relationship (or lack of) between POP and work engagement.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the present study provide support for previous research on the nature of the relationships between organizational justice, POS, and work engagement. The present study also fills an existing gap in the literature by providing insight on the nature of the relationship between POP and engagement. Contrary to expectations, POP did not show a direct effect on employee engagement, nor was this relationship moderated by POS. That is, a perceived sense of support did not influence the relationship between POP and engagement. Furthermore, there was no support to suggest that organizational justice acts a mediator in the relationship between POP and engagement. Interestingly, however, the results suggest that

greater levels of perceived fairness (organizational justice) promoted engagement among employees. This study has provided data to support the notion that employee engagement might be resistant to workplace politics yet could be increased by organizational fairness. It is hoped that the present research encourages future research on the nature of perceived organizational politics and how it may influence employee well-being.

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APPENDIX A: STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

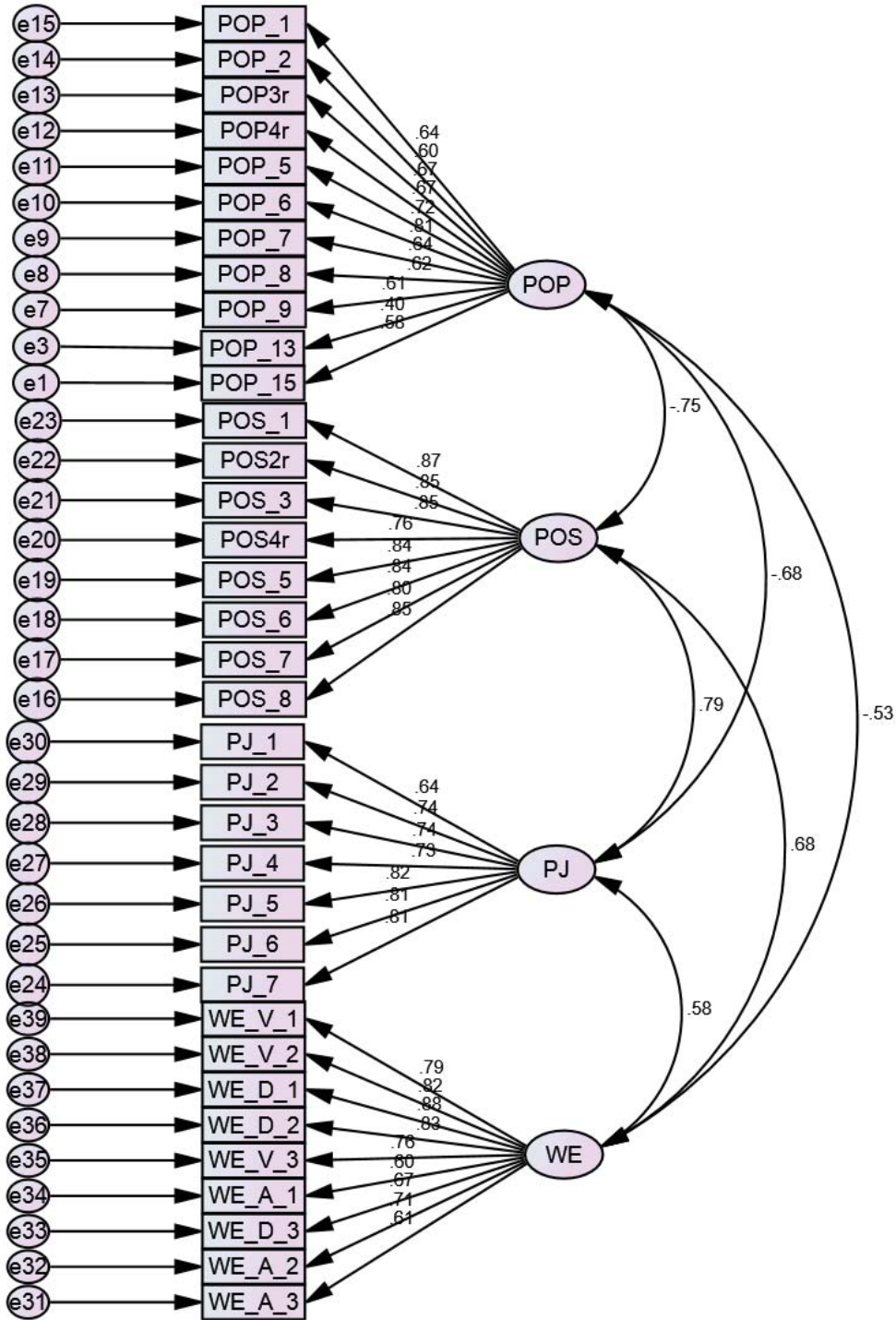


Figure 4. Structural Equation Model Showing The Measurement And Structure Of The Model. POP= Perceptions of Organizational Politics, POS= Perceived Organizational Support, PJ= Procedural Justice, WE= Work Engagement.

APPENDIX B: STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics

Age: _____

Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other

Which of the following best describes your position in your organization?

- Managerial/Supervisory
- Non-managerial/Non-Supervisory

Occupational tenure

For how long have you been with your current employer? _____ years _____ months

Which of the following best describes your current occupation?

- Accounting
- Administration
- Customer Service
- Engineering
- Education/Training
- Executive
- Finance
- Health Care
- Hospitality
- Human Resources
- Legal
- Management
- Marketing
- Maintenance
- Operations
- Production
- Research
- Sales
- Strategy
- Technology
- Other
- Managerial
- Non-managerial

How many hours per week do you work?

- _____

Country of residence

- UK
- US
- Canada

The International Positive and Negative Affect Scale Short Form (I-PANAS-SF; Thompson, 2007)

Instruction: Thinking about yourself and how you normally feel, to what extent do you generally feel any of the following? Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by CIRCLING the number of your choice to the right of the statement, based on the scale given to the right. There are no right or wrong answers.

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

1	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
2	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
3	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
4	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
5	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
6	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
7	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
8	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5
9	Active	1	2	3	4	5

Social Desirability Scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972)

Instruction: Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Then, report your response by selecting the answer that best corresponds to your agreement or disagreement. There are no right or wrong answers.

1	I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	True	False
2	I always try to practice what I preach.	True	False
3	I never resent being asked to return a favor.	True	False
4	I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	True	False
5	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	True	False
6	I like to gossip at times.	True	False
7	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	True	False
8	I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	True	False
9	At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	True	False
10	There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	True	False

Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997)

Instructions: Consider your current workplace environment. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Then, report your response by clicking the button that best corresponds to your level of agreement or disagreement. There are no right or wrong answers.

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down
1 2 3 4 5
2. There has always been an influential group in this organization that no one ever crosses
1 2 3 4 5
3. Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas
1 2 3 4 5
4. There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even it means disagreeing with superiors
1 2 3 4 5
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization
1 2 3 4 5
6. It is best not to rock the boat in this organization
1 2 3 4 5
7. Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system
1 2 3 4 5
8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth
1 2 3 4 5
9. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind
1 2 3 4 5
10. Since I have worked for this organization, I have never seen the pay and promotions policies applied politically
1 2 3 4 5
11. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies
1 2 3 4 5
12. None of the raises I have received are consistent with the policies on how raises and promotions are determined
1 2 3 4 5
13. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined
1 2 3 4 5
14. For this item, please select 'Agree'
1 2 3 4 5

15. When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant
 1 2 3 4 5
16. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political
 1 2 3 4 5

Work and Well-Being Survey (UWES-9; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006)

Instruction: The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then, report your response by clicking the button that best corresponds to your level of agreement or disagreement. There are not right or wrong answers

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	1	2	3	4	5
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My job inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I am proud of the work that I do.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am immersed in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I get carried away when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5

Procedural Justice subscale (Formal Procedures; Moorman, 1991)

Instruction: The following statements are about formal procedures in your workplace. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Then, report your response by clicking the button that best corresponds to your level of agreement or disagreement. There are no right or wrong responses

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Procedures in my workplace are designed to:

1	Collect accurate information necessary for making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
2	Provide opportunities to appeal or challenge the decision	1	2	3	4	5
3	Have all sides affected by the decision represented	1	2	3	4	5

4	Generate standards so that decisions could be made with consistency	1	2	3	4	5
5	Hear the concerns of all those affected by the decision	1	2	3	4	5
6	Provide useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation	1	2	3	4	5
7	Allow for requests for clarification or additional information about the decision	1	2	3	4	5

Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS Short version; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997)

Instructions: Consider your current workplace environment. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Then, report your response by clicking the button that best corresponds to your level of agreement or disagreement. There are no right or wrong responses

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

1	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work	1	2	3	4	5
2	The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability	1	2	3	4	5
7	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work	1	2	3	4	5
8	The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5