What does it take to get ahead?

Investigating boundary conditions in the relationships among career-related psychological
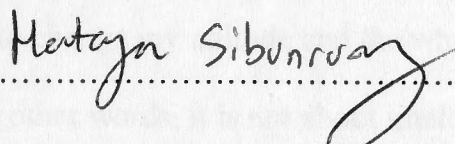
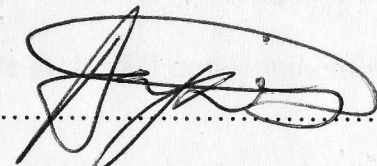needs, ingratiation and promotability

by

Hataya Sibunruang

Bachelor of Commerce (Honours), the Australian National University, 2008

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Management) of the Australian

National University

Signed Statement of Originality

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original and entirely based on my own work, except where appropriate acknowledgment has been given. I declare that the material presented in this thesis has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at any other university. The research involving humans through the use of questionnaires in this study was cleared and approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of the Australian National University.

Signed: ....Hataya Sibunruang....... Date: ...30/10/2013...

(Hataya Sibunruang) (PhD Student)

Signed: .... Date: ...30/10/2013...

(Dr. Alessandra Capezio) (Principal Advisor)

Acknowledgments

I had always thought that doing a PhD would be an easy, smooth 3-year journey where you simply had to go through a linear process of coming up with your favourite research topic, doing a literature review on your chosen topic, designing a research model, collecting and analysing data to test your model, writing up your thesis, and defending your thesis. After having gone through the actual journey of a PhD, which took me almost 4 years and which also was not as linear as I thought it would be, I have now realised that getting a "Dr" in front of my name would require much more of other qualities than simply intelligence. I still remember the lowest point in my PhD journey where I was already half way through the course but I almost decided to give up on it. It was due to my lack of resilience and my defensiveness towards criticisms. It took me a month to reflect back on myself and to realise that what I needed to do in order to "get there" was to change my attitude and the whole mindset that I had in the beginning about doing the PhD. In other words, it is not about intelligence but rather perseverance. It is not about an outcome but rather a process. However, in order to get to this point of realisation, it also required strong social support from several important people in my life, to a lot of whom I would like to show my gratitude in this acknowledgment section.

First, I would like to thank my family, notably my dad, my mum and my sister, who had faith in me that I would be able to go through this PhD journey successfully and encouraged me to take up this opportunity offered by the university. **My dad**, who also had experience in going through his PhD, has always given me useful advice on how to approach my study. Likewise, **my mum** has always been so supportive of any decisions undertaken by me and, most importantly, she has never shown any sign of giving up on me, despite my experience of distress. **My sister**, who has also later become very much part of my PhD circle of friends, has always

given me listening ears whenever I had any complaints about my study. I would like to say "thank you!" to all of you for having faith in me.

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In my first semester of PhD study, I still remember that there were only a couple of full-time PhD students in our school but there was one of them who really stood out among everyone else, and from the very beginning I already knew that I could count on this person, **Dr. Serene Ng**. I have always told other people that Serene is not only my friend but also my family. Whenever I had problems in life, Serene would be the very first person that I sought out. Whenever I had joys in life, she was also the very first person that I shared my happiness with. Thank you so much Serene for being a good friend and a great sister to me.

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It has always been a joke among my PhD friends about my regular trips back to Thailand. Of course, there has to be a reason why I went back to Thailand at least twice a year! There are important people in my life that I always look forward to when I go back home. Among these I would like to specially acknowledge **Wan, Mild, Phung, Koy, Tina, Vanz, Grape, Poupe, N' Bick, P' Aim, P' Kob** and **N' Nat.** For a lot of you, it has been over 10 years already that we have been friends and family. You guys are one of the main reasons why I always wanted to go back to Thailand even for short holidays. Despite the distance between us, our friendship seems to grow even stronger and stronger. Thank you so much for always being there for me and I will cherish our friendship forever.

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Publications Arising From the Thesis

Conference Papers

Sibunruang, H., & Capezio, A. (2012 August). *Personal needs, ingratiation and promotability: A moderated mediation study*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Boston, USA.

Sibunruang, H. (2012 December). *Why are some ingratiators more successful than others? The moderating impacts of political skill and organisation-based self-esteem on the need for power – ingratiation – promotability relationship*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Australia and New Zealand Academy of Management, Perth, Australia.

Abstract

Ingratiation, which can be broadly defined as "an attempt by individuals to increase their attractiveness in the eyes of others" (Liden & Mitchell, 1988, p. 572), can be used as a career influence tactic that enables career-motivated employees to achieve career-related benefits, such as positive performance evaluations, pay increases, and promotions (King, 2004). Drawing on the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), this thesis endeavours to provide a better understanding of the motivational analysis underpinning the use of ingratiation for the purpose of career advancement. Accordingly, organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and political skill are postulated and tested as relevant boundary conditions that affect employees driven either by a need for achievement or need for power to engage in ingratiation in an attempt to enhance their promotability. Furthermore, by incorporating cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) and social influence theory (Levy Collins & Nail, 1998), this thesis attempts to provide a better understanding to how OBSE and political skill may give advantages to career-motivated employees to exercise ingratiation more successfully in order to enhance their promotability.

This thesis consists of two studies. Study 1, involving 92 independent matched subordinate-supervisor dyads from Thailand, tests the moderating impact of OBSE on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Results show that when OBSE is high, individuals with a high need for achievement are more likely to ingratiate. Furthermore, when OBSE is high ingratiation will also be more effective in enhancing promotability ratings. Study 2, involving 150 independent matched subordinate-peer-supervisor triads, replicates Study 1 using a unique triadic data set. Doing so helps to address concerns regarding the generalisability of the results obtained from the previous

study. Furthermore, it incorporates need for power as an additional predictor and political skill as an additional relevant boundary condition. Results show that when either OBSE or political skill is high employees with a high need for power are more likely to be effective in their use of ingratiation to achieve higher promotability ratings from their supervisor. However, employees with a high need for achievement require both conditions in order to be effective in their ingratiation effort to achieve higher promotability ratings.

By testing these empirical linkages, this thesis extends the empirical literature in several important ways. First, an examination of boundary conditions represents a critical ingredient to middle-range theorising that helps explain the conflicting results evident in past research on ingratiation (see Whetten, 1989). For example, past research has shown inconclusive findings concerning the effects of ingratiation on career-related outcomes (Ayree, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996; Rao, Schmidt, & Murray, 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). To address these inconsistent findings, this research postulates OBSE and political skill as relevant boundary conditions that would enhance the positive relationship between ingratiation and promotability. So far only political skill has been examined as a moderator (e.g., Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007; Kolodinsky, Treadway, & Ferris, 2007; Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007). By incorporating OBSE as an additional moderator, this thesis proposes that employees may have the advantage over others to use ingratiation in enhancing promotability if they see themselves as a highly competent and capable organisational member. Methodologically, this thesis attempts to address the shortcoming of past studies on ingratiation that have relied on self-reported data (e.g., Deluga & Perry, 1994; Harris et al., 2007) by using data from multiple sources (e.g., supervisors and subordinates in Study 1; supervisors, peers/co-workers and subordinates in Study

2). Doing so helps strengthen internal validity and enable a robust test of the proposed research model.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1. Ingratiation in the Workplace: An Overview of the Literature

There is a rich stream of research examining the role of the social influence processes (Levy, Collins & Nail, 1998) in work organisations. *Ingratiation* appears to be one of the most commonly exercised social influence tactics used by employees in a structurally disadvantaged position (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Mowday, 1978; Westphal, 1998). Ingratiation can be broadly defined as "... an attempt by individuals to increase their attractiveness in the eyes of others" (Liden & Mitchell, 1988, p. 572). It involves behaviours, such as other-enhancement, opinion conformity and favour rendering (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). It is a widely held view that the primary goal of engaging in these behaviours is to enhance interpersonal attraction by appearing more likeable in the eyes of the target person (Kacmar, Carlson & Bratton, 2004). In line with this, empirical support has been given to the positive associations between ingratiation and liking, and ingratiation and perceived similarity (Turnley & Bolino, 2001; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf & Ferris, 1997).

Research has shown that ingratiatory behaviours are more likely to be performed by employees who display individual characteristics, such as Machiavellianism (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979), self-monitoring (Bolino & Turnley, 2003), extraversion (Cable & Judge, 2003), need for power (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991), internal locus of control (Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe & Ralston 1998) and low self-esteem (Kacmar et al., 2004). Although engaging in ingratiation is not illicit in nature, the performance of such behaviours is often considered political and dysfunctional from the standpoint of the organisation (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1979). This is because organisational resources are being utilised by employees to further their personal objectives rather than organisational objectives (Mayes & Allen, 1977). Prior

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studies on ingratiation have shown that employees may use ingratiation as a career influence

tactic to gain the approval of their supervisors who determine relevant career-related outcomes,

such as performance evaluations, salary levels and promotions (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Higgins,

Judge & Ferris, 2003; Singh, Kumra & Vinnicombe, 2002; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), all of

which contribute to their overall career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

1.2. Statement of Research Problem and Research Objectives

Despite extensive research done on ingratiation, there are still research gaps that warrant

further attention. First, past research has disproportionately focused on examining,

predominantly separately, the main-effect relationships between antecedents and ingratiation

(Kacmar et al., 2004), and ingratiation and outcomes (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Hence, what is

currently missing from the extant literature is a more thorough account of the complex processes

involved in the performance of ingratiatory behaviours, such as (a) how ingratiation may serve as

an intermediary mechanism that enables individuals to achieve personal objectives, (b) what

contributes to one's conscious decision to ingratiate and (c) what contributes to one's efficacy to

ingratiate successfully to achieve desired outcomes. It is argued that one's conscious decision

whether or not to ingratiate is in part determined by their calculation of the costs and benefits

associated with engaging in ingratiation (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Likewise, the extent to which

one's performance of ingratiation will be translated into desired outcomes will also depend on

how ingratiatory tactics are being exercised by individuals that will enable them to achieve

positive outcomes. Hence, further research is needed to investigate the boundary conditions that

come into play to affect the more complex processes involved in one's performance of

ingratiatory behaviours.

Another aspect of the ingratiation literature that warrants further attention is that past studies that examined main-effect associations between antecedents and ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004), and ingratiation and consequences (Ayree, Wyatt & Stone, 1996) have been somewhat inconsistent. Concerning antecedents of ingratiation, research has shown that need for power can be either positively or negatively associated with ingratiation. For example, in Kacmar, Carlson and Bratton's (2004) study, need for power was found to be negatively associated with ingratiation. This is because individuals with a high need for power generally have a desire to exert control over their surrounding environment which is contradicting with ingratiatory tactics, such as other enhancement, opinion conformity and favour rendering, that "tend to be associated with subservience" (Kacmar et al., 2004, p. 318). In contrast, need for power has also been found to be positively associated with ingratiation in other studies (Harrison et al., 1998; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991) with the underlying argument that engaging in ingratiation would enable power-driven individuals to influence perceptions of their supervisors, who have the power to determine their personal objectives. These findings suggest that individuals with a high need for power may not show similar tendency to engage in ingratiation. Their conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt is rather influenced by other relevant supporting conditions.

Furthermore, there are also inconclusive findings concerning the effects of ingratiation on career-related outcomes (Ayree, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Rao, Schmidt & Murray, 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). For instance, whereas the relationship between ingratiation and promotability ratings has been found to be significant and positive in some studies (e.g., McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003), other studies have found the same relationship to be negative in others (e.g., Thacker & Wayne, 1995). The inconclusive findings reported suggest that not all individuals who engage in ingratiation will successfully achieve those outcomes as expected, and that there

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is merit in examining relevant boundary conditions that moderate the relationships among personal needs, ingratiation, and promotability.

According to Whetten (1989), such empirical inconsistencies represent an important opportunity for further theory development. In an effort to develop a better understanding of ingratiation, this thesis examines how ingratiation may serve as an intermediary mechanism that enables career-motivated employees to achieve career-related benefits. In addition, it identifies some relevant boundary conditions that may affect (a) one's conscious decision to ingratiate and (b) one's efficacy to ingratiate successfully. To address these research aims, this thesis incorporates a functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993) to propose a model that concurrently examines antecedents and outcomes of ingratiation, and also to account for how ingratiation may serve as an intermediary mechanism. This is achieved by identifying career-related psychological needs underlying why people may be inclined towards ingratiation in an attempt to enhance their *promotability*. The theory posits that people perform a particular behaviour in order to fulfil their personal needs as a result of having achieved desired outcomes. Specifically, *need for achievement* (McClelland, 1953) and *need for power* (McClelland, 1975) are examined.

This thesis further incorporates Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT), which posits certain basic human capabilities to determine organisational behaviours, as an overarching theory to identify relevant boundary conditions. This thesis proposes more specifically that self-regulatory capability (i.e., people evaluate the discrepancy between internal standards set and the actual performance in order to improve it: Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and self-reflective capability (i.e., employees reflect back on the success of their past actions to determine their future engagement in the same behavioural pattern: Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) should serve as

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boundary conditions for the relationships among career-related psychological needs, ingratiation and promotability. Respectively, self-regulatory and self-reflective capabilities are operationalised through *organisation-based self-esteem* (OBSE) (i.e., one's sense of having satisfied their personal needs through organisational roles they serve in their employing organisation: Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989) and *political skill* (i.e., an ability to relate well with others and to demonstrate situationally appropriate behaviours in a disarmingly charming manner that communicates sincerity to others: Ferris, Davidson & Perrewe, 2005).

Another research attempt of this thesis is to explain why certain ingratiation attempts are more successful than others. This thesis draws upon *cognitive consistency theory* (Korman, 1970), which suggests that individuals will be motivated to behave in a manner or achieve outcomes that are consistent with their self-image. Thus, if employees believe they are highly competent, the self-efficacy they have towards their ability will also be reflected in the way they behave and subsequently lead to high performance levels (Bandura, 1997). Accordingly, it is argued that organisation-based self-esteem, which reflects the degree to which individuals believe they are capable and competent as an organisational member (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989), should serve as a moderator to strengthen the positive relationship between ingratiation and promotability. More specifically this thesis proposes that high OBSE has an enhancing effect on an employee's ability to ingratiate which further translates into higher promotability ratings.

Finally, due to the empirical inconsistencies, researchers have also called for studies to take into account the ability of individuals engaging in ingratiation (e.g., Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). This is consistent with *social influence theory* (Levy et al., 1998), which suggests that individual characteristics play an important role in contributing to

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the effectiveness of the social influence tactics being exercised in achieving personal objectives. It is argued in this thesis that in order to achieve higher promotability ratings, ingratiatory tactics alone are not sufficient to achieve positive career outcomes. Individuals also need to have the ability to execute the tactics in a politically astute manner. Thus, political skill should also serve as a relevant boundary condition that would enhance the positive relationship between ingratiation and promotability.

As shown in Figure 1.1, by drawing on the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993), need for achievement and need for power are identified as the two predicting variables of ingratiation in achieving promotability. Informed by SCT (Bandura, 1986), OBSE and political skill are posited to be relevant boundary conditions that affect the extent to which achievement-driven employees (i.e., Hypotheses 1(a) and 3(a)) and power-driven employees (i.e., Hypothesis 2(a) and 4(a)) will engage in ingratiation to enhance their promotability. By incorporating cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970), it is further argued that OBSE would affect the extent to which ingratiation exercised either by achievement-driven employees (i.e., Hypothesis 1(b)) and power-driven employees (i.e., Hypothesis 2(b)) will enhance promotability ratings. By drawing on social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), the study further predicts how political skill may affect the extent to which the ingratiatory tactics implemented by achievement-driven employees (i.e., Hypothesis 3(b)) and power-driven employees (i.e., Hypothesis 4(b)) will enhance promotability.

Finally, Hypotheses 5 and 6 predict the interactive impact of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypothesis 5) and need for power (i.e., Hypothesis 6) in predicting promotability via ingratiation. Due to their differences in nature between need for achievement and need for power in predicting promotability, it is argued that

achievement-driven employees would require displaying high levels of both political skill and

OBSE in order to engage in ingratiation (i.e., Hypothesis 5(a)) and to ingratiate successfully to

enhance promotability (i.e., Hypothesis 5(b)). This is because individuals with a high need for

achievement tend to focus on hard work, whereas individuals with a high need for power tend to

focus more on playing politics (Andrews, 1967). Thus, power-driven employees would require

displaying high levels of either one of the two boundary conditions in order to perform

ingratiation (i.e., Hypothesis 6(a)), and to ingratiate successfully in an attempt to achieve higher

promotability ratings (i.e., Hypothesis 6(b)).

Figure 1.1: Proposed research model
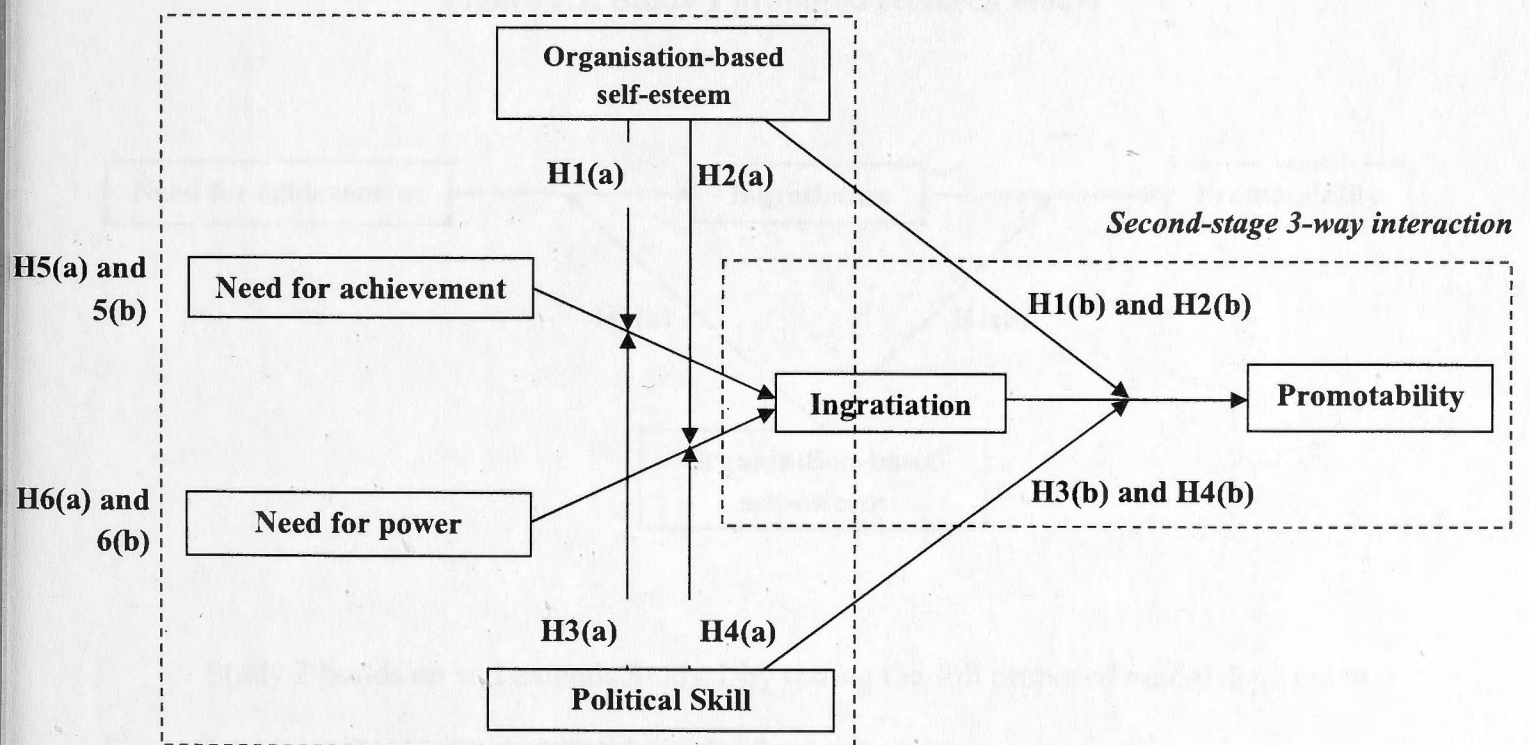
To examine the predictions depicted in Figure 1.1, two empirical studies were conducted

by employing two different samples of full-time employees working in Thailand. **Study 1** only

tests a portion of the proposed model by focusing specifically on moderating impact of OBSE on

the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through

ingratiation. The two primary objectives of Study 1 are (a) to test variables that have not been

incorporated by past research on ingratiation, namely need for achievement and OBSE, and (b)

to provide preliminary evidence using a small sample size of dyadic data sources. Figure 1.2

depicts the hypothesised relationship. The total sample consisted of 240 participants, which can

be divided into 120 subordinates and 120 supervisors – thereby representing 120 independent

matched subordinate–supervisor dyads. Dyadic data were obtained using a cross-sectional design

of questionnaire surveys.

Figure 1.2: Study 1 proposed research model
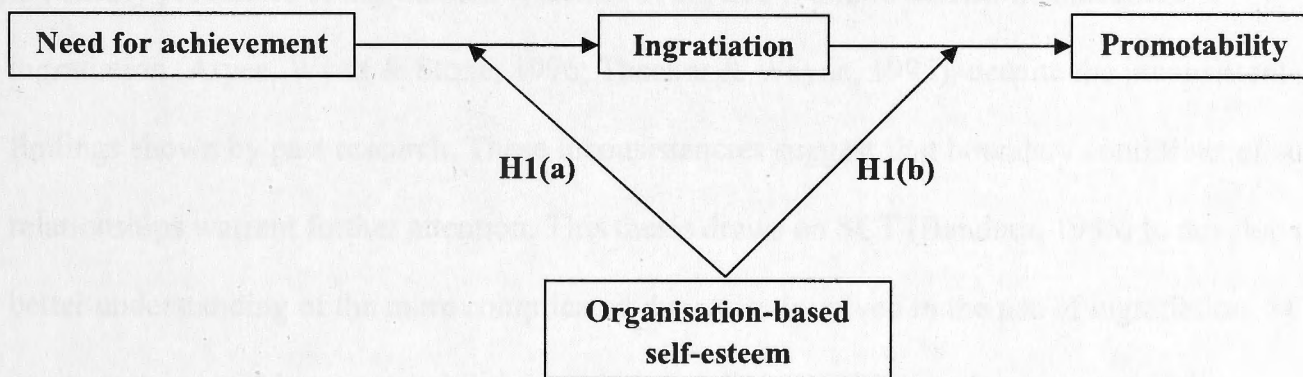
Study 2 builds on and extends Study 1 by testing the full proposed model depicted in

Figure 1.1. Accordingly, Study 2 builds on the first study in three important ways: (a) by

additionally incorporating need for power and political skill; (b) by offering predictions for the

interactive effects of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of the two

career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) on

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promotability through ingratiation; and (c) by replicating the results received from Study 1 using a triadic-data set (i.e., subordinates, peers and supervisors). The total sample consisted of 600 full-time employees from nine different organisations in Thailand and from various industries, such as banking, furniture, hospitality and education. The total sample can be further divided into 200 subordinates, 200 peers and 200 supervisors – thereby representing 200 independent matched subordinate–peer–supervisor triads. Similar to Study 1, triadic data were obtained using a cross-sectional design of questionnaire surveys.

1.3. Research Significance

In testing the proposed research model depicted in Figure 1.1, this thesis endeavours to make both theoretical and empirical contributions to the literature on ingratiation in several important ways. As mentioned before, so far only main effect relationships have been examined to identify predictors of ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004) and to determine outcomes of ingratiation (Aryee, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), despite the inconsistent findings shown by past research. These inconsistencies suggest that boundary conditions of such relationships warrant further attention. This thesis draws on SCT (Bandura, 1986) to develop a better understanding of the more complicated dynamics involved in the use of ingratiation. SCT posits certain basic human capabilities, such as regulatory and self-reflective capabilities (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), that help explain why people are motivated to engage in a particular behaviour. For instance, individuals with high political skill tend to rate themselves high on this attribute based on their past successful social influences they have made on others (Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, & Frink, 2005). By utilising their self-reflective capability, achievement- or power-driven individuals who display high political skill may feel motivated to ingratiate due to the efficacy belief they have towards their ability to

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ingratiate more effectively in an attempt to enhance their promotability. In sum, it is argued that although career-related psychological needs may drive one's propensity to ingratiate, the extent to which they will consciously attempt ingratiation may be either attenuated or strengthened by their levels of OBSE and political skill.

In addition, this thesis takes into consideration the notion that it is not the frequency of the use of ingratiation that contributes to positive outcomes but rather how ingratiatory tactics are being exercised to achieve desired outcomes. Past research that predicted consequences of ingratiation has shown inclusive findings concerning how ingratiation may lead to positive career-related outcomes. This thesis extends prior work on ingratiation by taking into consideration Levy and colleagues' (1998) argument that individual characteristics of the ingratiator play an important role in contributing to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics exercised. Accordingly, OBSE and political skill have been further argued to serve as moderators that would have the enhancing effect on the positive relationship between ingratiation and promotability. Informed by cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970), for example, achievement- or power-driven employees with high OBSE are likely to have a higher level of self-perceived competence and ability which has an enhancing effect on their ability to ingratiate which in turn translates into higher promotability ratings. To sum up, an examination of boundary conditions represents a critical ingredient to middle-range theorising that helps explain the conflicting results evident in past research on ingratiation (see Whetten, 1989). In doing so, this thesis highlights the theoretical relevance of OBSE and political skill as important boundary conditions.

In regards to the identification of boundary conditions, so far past research on ingratiation has only examined political skill as a moderator in the relationship between ingratiation and

outcomes (e.g., Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007; Kolodinsky, Treadway, & Ferris, 2007; Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007). By incorporating OBSE as an additional relevant boundary condition, it is argued that employees may display the confidence in their use of ingratiation in enhancing promotability if they see themselves as a highly competent and capable organisational member. OBSE is an evaluative trait (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) that enables either achievement-driven or power-driven individuals to determine the extent to which their personal needs have been fulfilled, which will further determine the extent to which they will engage in ingratiation. In comparison to politically skilled individuals who are likely to engage in ingratiation and likely to do it well, high OBSE individuals are those who we would least expect to see in regards to their performance of ingratiation. This is because high OBSE employees already see themselves as a significant and worthy organisational member. This thesis provides a counter-intuitive argument by suggesting that those we would least expect may also show the tendency to engage in ingratiation and also have the advantage to do it well.

1.4. Organisation of Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters and two studies. Chapter 1 provides a brief overview of the literature on ingratiation, and develops the statement of research problem. It also presents the proposed research model and discusses briefly the theoretical rationale for the proposed moderated-mediated relationships. Chapter 2 provides a thorough review of past research on ingratiation and develops hypotheses that extend from the existing literature. By reviewing its related concepts, predicting and outcome variables examined, and the theories incorporated by past research, this chapter identifies main research gaps which the proposed research model will be tapping into, and develops hypotheses that compose the framework. Both Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 discuss the primary research objectives, the methodology used to obtain data, and the

data analytical strategies. Chapter 3 reports the empirical results obtained from Study 1 and provides a general discussion of the first study's results. Chapter 4 reports the empirical findings obtained from Study 2 and provides a general discussion of the second study's results. Finally, Chapter 5 provides an overall summary of the results obtained from both Study 1 and Study 2, draws out their theoretical and practical implications, and discusses the limitations and future research directions.

1.5. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the extant literature on ingratiation and addressed the statement of research problem that this thesis attempts to address. Accordingly, two studies have been proposed, for each of which the chapter has briefly outlined their research scope and design. Finally, both the theoretical and empirical contributions have been provided to justify the significance of the two studies proposed.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The primary objective of this chapter is to provide a thorough review of past research examining ingratiation. So far past research has examined, predominantly separately, the main effects of dispositional factors and situational factors on ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004), and the main effects of ingratiation on one's interpersonal attraction (Stevens & Kristof, 1995, psychological outcomes (Wu, Yim, Kwan & Zhang, 2012) and career-related outcomes (Judge & Bretz, 1994). The main aspects of the literature review include (a) antecedents of ingratiation, (b) consequences of ingratiation, (c) moderators affecting both predictors and outcomes of ingratiation, (d) ingratiation as a moderator, and (e) underlying theories. Before providing an in-depth review of the literature on ingratiation, this chapter will first define the construct of ingratiation, and also delineate its conceptual differences from other related constructs, notably upward influence, organisational politics and impression management.

2.2. The Concept of Ingratiation

Ingratiation, as broadly described by Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977), refers to "behaviors employed by a person to make himself more attractive to another" (p. 134). As such, it is commonly assumed that people engage in ingratiation in order to be liked by others and that wanting to be liked is a common characteristic to us all (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Past research has empirically demonstrated positive associations between ingratiation and liking (Stevens & Kristof, 1995), and ingratiation and perceptions of similarity formed by target individuals towards ingratiators (Wayne & Liden, 1995). According to Liden and Mitchell (1988), whose work has proposed a comprehensive model explaining the mechanisms associated with the

performance of ingratiatory behaviours, ingratiation can be used to either defend (i.e. defensive) or promote (i.e. assertive) oneself. Defensive tactics are generally used when individuals respond to a need to defend themselves from poor performance, such as apologies, disclosures, excuses and justifications. Assertive tactics are generally undertaken by individuals in an attempt to achieve long-term positive outcomes, such as other enhancement, agreeing with the target (i.e. opinion conformity) and other enhancement directed at a third person. However, given that the objective of the current study is to examine how employees use ingratiation as a tactic to enhance promotability ratings, this study will use only an assertive approach to ingratiation. More specifically, this research will adopt Tedeschi and Melburg's (1984) definition that describes ingratiation as a set of assertive tactics exercised by employees to gain the approbation of supervisors who have the controlling power to determine their career-related outcomes.

Furthermore, a lot of the ingratiatory tactics suggested by Liden and Mitchell (1988) have not been operationalised and empirically tested. The construct of ingratiation was later operationalised in the work of Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) As Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) argued "The study of ingratiation in organizational setting requires identification of specific tactics and some method of measuring the frequency with which such tactics are used." (p. 620). Accordingly, four tactics have been operationalised, notably other enhancement, opinion conformity, favour rendering and self-presentation. The construct of ingratiation developed by Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) has also been adopted by subsequent studies on ingratiation (e.g. Harrison et al., 1998; Kacmar et al., 2004; Westphal & Stern, 2007).

As mentioned previously, the construct of ingratiation adopted in earlier work (e.g., Jones, 1964; Jones, Gergen, Gumpert & Thibaut, 1965; Schneider & Eustis, 1972; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991) also encompassed self-presentation (or self-promotion), which involves creating

an image of oneself that will be perceived by the target person as being competent (Liden &

Mitchell, 1988), along with the other three ingratiatory tactics (i.e., other-enhancement, opinion

conformity and favour rendering). However, another stream of research has also distinguished

self-presentation from these other three ingratiatory tactics (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Kacmar et al.,

2004; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Given that the intent of engaging in ingratiation is to be liked by

others, ingratiators tend to focus on *attention-giving* by engaging in behaviours that are more

conforming to people with whom they want to enhance interpersonal attraction (Godfrey, Jones

& Lord, 1986). In contrast, given that the intent of engaging in self-presentation is to appear

competent, self-presenters tend to focus on *attention-getting* by engaging in more proactive

behaviours that enable them to express their confidence (Harrell-Cook, Ferris & Dulebohn,

1999), for example, by highlighting their positive qualities or drawing attention to their past

accomplishments (Kacmar, Delery & Ferris, 1992).

Research has shown that ingratiation and self-presentation may be predicted by different

antecedents. For instance, Kacmar and colleagues (2004) argued that whereas the three

ingratiatory tactics should be predicted by low need for power, self-presentation would rather be

predicted by high need for power. Likewise, ingratiation and self-presentation may also lead to

different consequences. In Judge and Bretz's (1994) study, while the three ingratiatory tactics

were found to enhance extrinsic career success, self-presentation was rather found to negatively

affect extrinsic career success. In the selection interview context, it was found that self-

presentation was a more effective strategy than ingratiation when attempting to make an

impression in employment interviews (Dipboye & Wiley, 1977; Kacmar & Carlson, 1999;

Tullar, 1989). Due to such differences, self-presentation is excluded from the conceptualisation

of ingratiation in this research.

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2.3. Ingratiation and Related Concepts

Some level of overlap has been identified among ingratiation and other related constructs, and this overlap has led to some confusion as to whether the behaviour should be considered as (a) an upward influence tactic, (b) organisational politics, or (c) impression management. To address the concern of discriminant validity, it is important to consider how the concept of ingratiation is both similar to and distinct from those three constructs. Table 2.1 (see p. 19) provides a summary of comparisons between ingratiation and the three other related concepts along four main aspects, including whether the behaviour is directed upward, is self-serving, involves controlled processing, or is used to increase interpersonal attraction.

2.3.1. Ingratiation and upward influence. When examining employees at lower levels of management who have relatively low positional power in the organisation, ingratiation appears to be one of the most commonly exercised influence tactics (Mowday, 1978; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Westphal, 1998). Subsequently, the extant literature on ingratiation has disproportionately examined ingratiation as an upward influence tactic, which refers to an attempt "to influence someone higher in the formal hierarchy of authority in the organization" (Porter, Allen & Angle, 1983, p. 409). For instance, subordinates may ingratiate their supervisors in an attempt to influence relevant human resource (HR) decisions, such as performance assessments (Higgins, Judge & Ferris, 2003), hiring recommendations (Higgins & Judge, 2004) or assessments of promotability (Thacker & Wayne, 1995).

However, according to past research that has examined the social influence process more broadly (Yukl & Falbe, 1990), ingratiation does not necessarily have to be exercised in an upward direction towards someone higher in authority. Ingratiation can be exercised by superiors

towards subordinates in a downward direction or among peers at the same level in a lateral direction (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Yukl and Tracey's (1992) study found that ingratiation was more effective for influencing subordinates and peers than for influencing supervisors. This is because compliments and flattery tend to be perceived as being more credible and sincere when they come from the agent whose status and power is greater than or equal to that of the target (Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). Hence, what distinguishes ingratiation from upward influence is the variety of directions towards which ingratiation can be exercised.

2.3.2. Ingratiation and organisational politics. The behavioural aspect of organisational politics, as defined by Kacmar and Baron (1999), refers to "actions by individuals which are directed towards the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization" (p. 675). In the workplace, ingratiation has been viewed by many as an avenue through which political influence can be exercised to enhance career prospects, such as salary progression (Gould & Penley, 1984), promotions (Thacker & Wayne, 1995) and overall extrinsic career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994). Because career benefits may accrue to employees through ingratiation and not necessarily through enhanced task performance, ingratiation is often considered a political tactic from the standpoint of the organisation (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1979). As such, research on organisational politics has included ingratiation as one of the political tactics (Allen et al., 1979; Mayes & Allen, 1977).

Whereas the primary motive of organisational politics is assumed to be self-serving in nature (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999), ingratiation can be used in an attempt to enhance benefits for the collective group or satisfy organisational goals. For instance, ingratiation was found to be used by managers to influence their subordinates to improve productivity (Deeter-Schmelz & Ramsey, 1995). Furthermore, ingratiation may be used in work team settings to enhance

interpersonal attachment among team members (Strutton & Pelton, 1998), which can subsequently lead to greater interaction among members, workgroup satisfaction, lower turnover rate, and higher goal attainment (Dreschler, Burlingame & Fuhrman, 1985). In the service industry, ingratiation is particularly effective when the service provider attempts to enhance the customer's satisfaction with the quality of the service (Yagil, 2001). As shown in Figure 2.2 (p. 30), these empirical results suggest that ingratiation does not necessarily have to be used in favour of one's personal objectives, but it can also be working functionally for the benefits of the organisation. Given this, ingratiation is conceptually distinct from organisational politics.

2.3.3. Ingratiation and impression management.

Impression management, as described by Leary and Kowalski (1990), refers to "the process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions others form of them" (p. 34). Because how others perceive and evaluate individuals subsequently impact on how they would treat them, individuals may use impression management to create positive images in the eyes of others. This is particularly the case when employees attempt to exercise impression management towards their superiors who have the positional power to determine career-related decisions that would have relevant impact on them (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Likewise, past research has shown how ingratiation can be used to create one's image of being likeable, and this subsequently leads to favourable treatment from others (Stevens & Kristof, 1995; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson & Bratton, 2004). This has led some researchers to examine ingratiation as one of the impression management techniques employed by employees in the workplace (Bolino et al., 2008).

As previously mentioned, impression management is considered as a process by which individuals attempt to control how they are being perceived by others. However, as suggested by

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Jones and Wortman (1973), people may engage in ingratiation as a function of automatic, as opposed to controlled, processing (i.e., as an automatic response to certain contextual cues in the social environment that highlight one's own dependency on others). According to Wortman and Linsenmeier's (1977) definition of ingratiation as "[B]ehaviors employed by a person to make himself more attractive to another" (p. 134), people may engage in ingratiation because they generally want to be liked by others. As Liden and Mitchell (1988) argued, engaging in ingratiation "does not have to be assertive, premeditated, or manipulative" (p. 573) given that wanting to be liked is a characteristic common to us all. Due to the empirical support showing a positive association between ingratiation and liking (Stevens & Kristof, 1995; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995), researchers generally agreed that the primary objective of engaging in ingratiation is to increase liking (Kacmar et al., 2004).

2.3.4. The concept of ingratiation that guides this thesis. As noted in the beginning, this thesis adopts a definition of ingratiation by Tedeschi and Melburg (1984), which describes ingratiation as a set of assertive tactics exercised by employees to gain the approbation of supervisors who have the controlling power to determine their career-related outcomes. Based on this definition, the concept of ingratiation as adopted in this thesis does have some overlaps with the three related concepts previously examined. First, ingratiation as an upward influence tactic: this research examines how ingratiation is exercised by employees in an upward direction towards their supervisors. Second, ingratiation as organisational politics: this research examines how ingratiation is used by employees in an attempt to enhance personal objectives rather than organisational objectives. Finally, ingratiation as an impression management technique: this thesis examines how employees use ingratiation to increase their interpersonal attraction through

the positive impressions they create in the eyes of their supervisors, who have the positional

power to determine their career-related outcomes.

Table 2.1: Ingratiation and related constructs

Construct	Definition	Directed upward	Self-serving	Controlled processing	To increase interpersonal attraction
Ingratiation	"behaviors employed by a person to make himself more attractive to another" (Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977 p. 134)	Not necessarily (see p. 17)	Not necessarily (see p. 18)	Not necessarily (see p.19)	Yes (see p. 19)
Upward Influence	an attempt "to influence someone higher in the formal hierarchy of authority in the organization" (Porter, Allen & Angle, 1983, p. 409)	Yes	Not necessarily	Yes	Not necessarily

Table 2.1: Ingratiation and related constructs (continued)

Construct	Definition	Directed upward	Self-serving	Controlled processing	To increase interpersonal attraction
Organisational Politics	"the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned influence means" (Mayes & Allen, 1977, p. 675)	Not necessarily	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
Impression Management	"the process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions others form of them" (Leary & Kowalski, 1990, p. 34)	Not necessarily	Not necessarily	Yes	Not necessarily

2.4. Antecedents of Ingratiation

This section discusses existing work on the antecedents of ingratiation. Accordingly,

research has identified both dispositional (Cable & Judge, 2003; Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor &

Goodman, 1997; Turnley & Bolino, 2001) and situational factors (Kacmar et al., 2004; Wayne &

Green, 1993) to be predicting the performance of ingratiatory behaviours. Figure 2.1 summarises the existing research examining the antecedents of ingratiation.

2.4.1. Dispositional factors. Research has empirically demonstrated that there is a dispositional basis to ingratiatory behaviours (Cable & Judge, 2003; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). In other words, certain personality traits may cause individuals to be predisposed towards ingratiation. There are three main reasons underlying their associations. First, given that ingratiation primarily involves "connecting with or engaging others in a positive friendly manner" (Cable & Judge, 2003, p. 199), ingratiation is more likely to be attempted by people who enjoy engaging in social interactions and are highly sensitive to how they come across to other people in their social environment. These characteristics are consistent with those who display high levels of extraversion (Watson & Clark, 1997) and self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974), respectively. Research has reported these two personality traits to be significantly and positively associated with ingratiation. For instance, individuals who display high levels of extraversion are inclined to engage in ingratiation. This is due to their nature of enjoying interacting with other people and their tendency to experience positive affect (Cable & Judge, 2003). Likewise, Farmer and colleagues (1997) also found that individuals high in self-monitoring are likely to engage in ingratiation as part of their impression management. This is because high self-monitors are highly sensitive to social cues and how they appear to others.

Second, ingratiatory behaviours are likely to be engaged in by individuals who seek to exert control or influence over their surrounding social environment. This is supported by empirical evidence showing positive associations between personality traits, such as Machiavellianism (Farmer et al., 1997) and need for power (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991), and ingratiation. Individuals high in Machiavellianism tend to seek control or manipulate others, and

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one way they can do so is by using social influence tactics, such as ingratiation (Ralston, 1985; Zagenczyk, Restubog, Kiewitz, Kiazad & Tang, 2011). Along the same line, individuals exhibiting high levels of need for power are inclined to gain control over their social environment by influencing or directing other people (Steers & Braunstein, 1976). Supported by Kumar and Beyerlein's (1991) findings, people with a high need for power were found to engage in ingratiation as an attempt to exercise their influence over others.

One's perception of a lack of power or control is another factor that predicts the use of ingratiation (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984). People who form such perceptions of themselves prefer engaging in behaviours that are more conforming to or compliant with the target person (Canary, Cody & Marston, 1986). Accordingly, external locus of control (Farmer et al., 1997) and low self-esteem (Kacmar et al., 2004) were reported to be positively associated with the performance of ingratiatory behaviours. Individuals with an external orientation tend to believe that outcomes in their lives are mainly influenced by forces outside of themselves (Rotter, 1966). Because of their perceived powerlessness, externals tend to "prefer compliance-gaining situations in which they are dependent on the target" (Farmer et al., 1997, p. 25) and believe that they can exploit the dependency by influencing the target's perceptions through the use of ingratiation. Likewise, low self-esteem people generally lack confidence about their ability to succeed (Campbell, 1990) and will attempt to compensate for their perceived inadequacies by utilising more self-protective strategies, such as conforming to other people's opinions, which is consistent with ingratiatory behaviours.

Although much research has been conducted to identify personality traits that predict ingratiation, the findings reported in these studies have been somewhat inconsistent. As previously mentioned, Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) reported in their study that people with a

high need for power were more inclined to engage in ingratiation as a way to exercise their influence over others. In contrast, Kacmar and colleagues (2004) found that individuals with a high need for power were more inclined to engage in an assertive form of social influence, such as self-presentation, than in a submissive form of social influence, such as ingratiation. There is also conflicting evidence showing how locus of control may be predicting the performance of ingratiatory behaviours. Ralston (1985) argued that because individuals with a high internal locus of control believe they have influence over their environment, they are likely to exercise ingratiation as an attempt to exert control over their surrounding environment. In line with this argument, a positive association was found between internal locus of control and ingratiation (Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe & Ralston 1998). However, in Farmer and colleagues' (1997) study, a positive association between external locus of control and ingratiation was revealed. Underlying this finding is the argument that powerless actors prefer using ingratiation so that they can be dependent on a more powerful target person. Such inconsistencies in past research can be explained by Lewin's (1935) theoretical argument that behaviour is a function of both personality traits and an environment in which the behaviour is to be exercised.

2.4.2. Situational factors. Building on from the previous point, another stream of research has shown that situational factors may also lead to the use of ingratiatory behaviours (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Jones, Gergen, Gumpert & Thibaut, 1965; Kacmar et al., 2004; Ralston, 1985). These main-effect relationships can be explained in several ways. First, there is research showing that employees resort to the use of ingratiation in response to a perceived negative organisational climate. For instance, ingratiation was found to be used by employees to influence their supervisors when they perceived the reward decisions and decision making to be procedurally and distributively unfair (Cheng, 1983; Erdogan & Liden, 2006). In other words, a

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negative association between organisational justice and ingratiation was reported. Likewise, several papers examining ingratiation have proposed role ambiguity, which refers to "the lack of necessary information available about a given organisational position or the lack of role clarity" (Kacmar et al., 2004, p. 314), as one of the predictors of ingratiation (Gilmore et al., 1999; Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Accordingly, they argued that because the link between task completion and goal attainment is discrepant, people would be inclined to engage in ingratiation as a tactic that controls reward outcomes (Ralston, 1985).

Research examining predictors of ingratiation has also shown how ingratiation may be engaged in by individuals as a reaction to rejections (i.e., being excluded from or disapproved by social circles) (Geller, Goodstein, Silver & Sternberg, 1974; Mettee, Taylor & Fischer, 1971; Saltztein, 1975). Research on the association between rejection and ingratiation could be traced back as early as the 1950s (Schachter, 1951). However, due to the mixed results of that research, a more recent study conducted by Romeo-Canyas and colleagues (2010) attempted to identify the conditions under which rejection would motivate ingratiation. They found that one's willingness to engage in ingratiation was intensified under two main conditions: (a) when the rejected person is given an opportunity to engage in behaviour that has the potential to create a positive impression on the rejection source; and (b) when the rejected person was high in rejection sensitivity (Romeo-Canyas et al., 2010).

Other research suggests that ingratiation may be used by employees who are highly dependent on other organisational members (Kacmar et al., 2004; Wayne & Green, 1993). As Liden and Mitchell (1988) argued, subordinates may be reliant on their supervisors in order to gain support necessary to complete their work tasks, in which the support may come in the form of information or tangible resources. For example, in one study it is shown that ingratiation was

used in a situation where there are high leader–member exchanges (LMX) (Kacmar et al., 2004).

Employees in high-quality LMX tend to receive special benefits and opportunities from their

superiors, such as positive performance appraisals, promotions, and career support (Graen,

Wakabayashi, Graen & Graen, 1990). The main reason employees engage in ingratiation in this

context is to maintain the special treatment they receive from the exchange relationship they

have with their supervisors (Kacmar et al., 2004; Wayne & Green, 1993).

Some situational contexts may be more conducive than others to the use of ingratiation

(Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Research has shown that ingratiation is a culture-specific tactic that is

preferred in some organisational cultures but not in others (Branzei, 2002). In a highly

collectivistic culture where people tend to identify themselves with group memberships

(Hofstede, 1984), researchers argued that people are more likely to use ingratiation to maintain

harmony at work (Leung, Au, Fernandez-Dols & Iwawaki, 1992), and to 'give face' as well as to

'save face' (Ting-Toomey, Gao, Trubisky, Yang, Kim, Lin & Nishida, 1991). Erdogan and Liden

(2006) found an empirical evidence to support the role of collectivism as a moderator in the

relationship between organisational justice (i.e., distributive justice and interactional justice) and

ingratiation. More specifically, they found that employees who reported themselves high on

collectivism were more inclined to engage in ingratiation when confronted with unfairness at

work.

Finally, besides personality traits and other contextual factors, one's perception of the

target person's characteristics may influence their decision whether or not to engage in

ingratiation (Mowday, 1978). Liden and Mitchell (1988) suggested that one's perception of the

target's characteristics, such as the leadership style of an immediate supervisor (Ralston, 1985),

may influence their perceived risks versus opportunities associated with the exercise of

ingratiatory tactics. For example, under the authoritarian or autocratic leadership style condition, ingratiation was found to be used more often by subordinates towards their supervisors (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987). This is because autocratic supervisors tend to view their subordinates as being incapable of thinking of solutions for themselves, and prefer giving specific directions, which suppress the subordinates' opportunities to distinguish themselves through their creative abilities, but instead encourage their use of ingratiation (Ralston, 1985).

Figure 2.1: Conceptual map of the antecedents of ingratiation with moderators

Antecedents of Ingratiation

Dispositional factors

- Machiavellianism (Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor & Goodman, 1997)
- Extraversion (Cable & Judge, 2003)
- Self-monitoring (Turnley & Bolino, 2001)
- Self-esteem (Kacmar et al., 2004)
- Need for power (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991)
- Locus of control (Harrison et al., 1998)

Situational factors

- Leader member exchanges (Wayne & Green, 1993)
- Authoritarian leadership (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987)
- Task ambiguity (Ralston, 1985)
- Distributive justice (Erdogan & Liden, 2006)
- Interactional justice (Erdogan & Liden, 2006)
- Rejection (Romeo-Canyas et al., 2010)

INGRATIATION

Moderator

Collectivism (Erdogan & Liden, 2006)

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2.5. Consequences of Ingratiation

This section discusses existing work on the consequences of ingratiation. Research has shown that ingratiation is often used by employees as a career influence tactic that enables them to influence career-related outcomes, such as performance evaluations, promotions and career success (Gordon, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Underlying these associations is the interpersonal attraction that employees are able to engender among their superiors, who have positional power to determine their career prospects. Accordingly, research has shown ingratiation to be positively associated with liking and perceived-similarity (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Figure 2.3 summarises the existing research predicting consequences of ingratiation, namely career-related outcomes and interpersonal attraction.

2.5.1. Career-related outcomes. Considerable research attention has been given to predicting career-related benefits obtained from engaging in ingratiation. Prior to joining an organisation, ingratiation was found to be positively related to employment interview evaluations (Ellis, West, Ryan & Deshon, 2002) and hiring recommendations (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar et al., 1992). During the employment, employees who engaged in ingratiation were likely to receive positive performance evaluations (Gordon, 1996, Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). Performance appraisals received from supervisors are further used to determine other relevant HR decisions. In line with this, research has empirically demonstrated positive associations between ingratiation and HR decisions, such as selection decisions (McFarland, Yun, Harold, Viera & Moore, 2005), salary increases (Gould & Penley, 1984), and promotions (Thacker & Wayne, 1995), all of which contribute to one's career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994). As argued by Wayne and colleagues (1997), "human resource decisions are embedded in a complex and dynamic social context" (p. 979), whereby

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organisational members are active players in influencing decisions (Ferris & Judge, 1991). Because performance appraisals cannot necessarily be objectively assessed (King, 2004), a supervisor's evaluation of an individual can be strongly influenced by the extent to which the supervisor likes or dislikes that person (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Wayne et al., 1997). As such, HR decisions made by supervisors may precipitate ingratiation.

   2.5.2. Interpersonal attraction. The associations between employees' performance of ingratiation and their achievement of positive outcomes at work can be explained by their increased interpersonal attraction (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). Engaging in other-enhancement should elicit positive affect through reciprocal attraction (Stevens & Kristof, 1995, p. 589). This is because people tend to find it hard not to feel positive towards those who think highly of them (Jones, 1964). Engaging in opinion conformity should elicit liking through similarity–attraction bias (Stevens & Kristof, 1995; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). This is because people tend to feel positive towards those who share their beliefs and attitudes (Wayne & Liden, 1995). There is empirical evidence that supports the positive associations between ingratiation and liking, and ingratiation and perceptions of similarity formed by supervisors towards their subordinates (Gordon, 1996; Turnley & Bolino, 2001; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). Furthermore, research has shown that a supervisor's liking of the subordinate and perceptions of similarity to the subordinate are positively related to the supervisor's ratings of the subordinate's performance, assessments of the subordinate's promotability, and the quality of leader–member exchanges (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). As shown in Figure 2.2, ingratiation can lead to career-related outcomes and other outcomes either directly or indirectly via interpersonal attraction.

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Figure 2.2: Conceptual map of the consequences of ingratiation with moderators

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                                                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
                                                    ┆      Consequences of Ingratiation        ┆
                                                    ┆  ┌────────────────────────────────────┐  ┆
                                                    ┆  │      Career-Related Outcomes       │  ┆
                                                    ┆  │                                    │  ┆
                                                    ┆  │  -  Selection interview evaluations│  ┆
                                                    ┆  │     (Ellis et al., 2002)           │  ┆
                                                    ┆  │  -  Hiring recommendations (Gilmore│  ┆
                                                    ┆  │     & Ferris, 1989)                │  ┆
                                                    ┆  │  -  Performance appraisals (Gordon,│  ┆
      ┌──────────────────────────────┐             ┆  │     1996)                          │  ┆
      │   Interpersonal Attraction   │             ┆  │  -  Salary progression (Gould & Penley,│┆
      │                              │             ┆  │     1984)                          │  ┆
┌───────────────┐  │  -  Liking (Stevens & Kristof, 1995)│──────┆  │  -  Promotions (Thacker & Wayne, 1995)│┆
│ INGRATIATION  │─▶│  -  Perceived similarity (Wayne &   │      ┆  │  -  Extrinsic career success (Judge &│┆
└───────────────┘  │     Liden, 1995)             │             ┆  │     Bretz, 1994)                   │  ┆
      │            └──────────────────────────────┘             ┆  │  -  Intrinsic career success (Judge &│┆
      │                                                          ┆  │     Bretz, 1994)                   │  ┆
      │                                                          ┆  │  -  Board appointments (Stern &    │  ┆
      └────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┆──│     Westphal, 2010)                │  ┆
                                    ▲                            ┆  └────────────────────────────────────┘  ┆
                                    │                            ┆  ┌────────────────────────────────────┐  ┆
                                    │                            ┆  │          Other Outcomes            │  ┆
                  ┌──────────────────────────────┐              ┆  │                                    │  ┆
                  │          Moderator           │              ┆  │  -  Leader member exchanges (Deluga│  ┆
                  │                              │              ┆  │     & Perry, 1994)                 │  ┆
                  │  -  Political skill (Harris et al.,│          ┆  │  -  Teamwork (Strutton & Pelton, 1998)│┆
                  │     2007)                    │              ┆  │  -  Customer satisfaction (Yagil, 2001)│┆
                  │  -  Positive affectivity (Harvey│           ┆  └────────────────────────────────────┘  ┆
                  │     et al., 2007)            │              └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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2.6. The Effectiveness of Ingratiation

Although considerable research has been carried out to predict outcomes of ingratiation, there are inconsistencies in these empirical results (Ayree, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Rao Schmidt & Murray, 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Whereas ingratiation was found to significantly and positively enhance evaluations of task performance in some studies (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991), the same relationship was found to be non-significant in others (Ayree et al., 1996). Likewise, whereas the relationship between ingratiation and promotability ratings has been found to be significant and positive in some studies (McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003), other studies have found the same relationship to be negative in others (Thacker & Wayne, 1995). The inconclusive findings reported suggest there is merit in examining relevant boundary conditions that moderate the relationships among personal needs, ingratiation, and promotability. Furthermore, it is also possible that past research may have received inconsistent findings due to their use of different measures of ingratiation, for instance those developed by Kumar and Beyerlein (1991), Schriesheim & Hinkin (1990), and Kipnis & Schmidt (1982). However, it should also be noted that all of these studies are similar in the way that they do not capture the defensive approach of ingratiation and self-promotion.

Given that individuals engage in ingratiation to influence how others form perceptions of them in an attempt to achieve personal objectives (Levy, Collins, & Nail, 1998), the extent to which ingratiation will enable one to achieve positive outcomes is in part determined by the employees' ability to use ingratiatory tactics. For instance, research has shown that when ingratiatory behaviours are perceived by the target person as being driven by impression management motives, such interpretation may lead to negative outcomes, such as lower performance and promotability ratings (Bolino, 1999). Furthermore, other studies have shown

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that ingratiation can create unintended negative images if they are not implemented successfully (Lam et al., 2007; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), "such that the influencer is regarded as a sycophant when the influence detects the ingratiation and suspects its underlying motives" (Wu et al., 2012, p. 183). Thus, one of the interpersonal influence factors that aids the evaluation of social influence behaviours is the perceived intentionality (Levy et al., 1998).

The social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998) suggests that individual characteristics of an ingratiator contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. For instance, Mintzberg (1983) argued that in order to compete effectively in political arenas, individuals need to have the ability to execute these tactics in a politically astute manner. He refers to this ability as political skill. Accordingly, past research has examined how the moderating role of political skill may come into play to affect the effectiveness of ingratiation in achieving positive outcomes (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska & Shaw, 2007; Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams & Thatcher 2007). Treadway and colleagues (2007) found that for subordinates low in political skill, greater use of ingratiation would be more likely to be detected as 'ingratiation' by their supervisors than for those higher in political skill. Different interpretations formed towards ingratiation performed by employees were also found to subsequently influence career-related outcomes (Eastman, 1994). Harris and colleagues (2007) found that individuals who possessed high political skill, as opposed to those with low political skill, were reported to receive positive performance ratings from supervisors when they engaged in ingratiation.

Another individual characteristic that has been shown by past research (Castro, Douglas, Hochwarter, Ferris & Frink, 2003; Forgas, 1998) to influence the effectiveness of ingratiation, is positive affectivity, which is defined as a "tendency to have an overall sense of well-being, to experience positive emotions ... and to see oneself as pleasurably engaged in terms of both

interpersonal relations and achievement" (Baron, 1996, p. 340). Harvey and colleagues (2007) found that the interaction between ingratiation and positive affectivity was able to attenuate the negative influence of abusive supervision on employees' job strain (tension and emotional exhaustion) and their intention to resign (i.e., turnover intention). This finding was explained in two ways. First, ingratiators who display high levels of positive affectivity are likely to perceive high levels of control over abusive situations. Second, ingratiators with high levels of positive affectivity are better able to draw upon coping resources in their work environment. Their results revealed that those people with low levels of positive affectivity who refrained from engaging in ingratiation experienced more job strain and displayed higher intention to quit than other individuals (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2007). Figure 2.3 (see p. 31) illustrates the moderating impacts of both political skill and positive affectivity on the associations between ingratiation and consequences.

2.7. Ingratiation as a Moderator

There is also literature which examines ingratiation as a moderator or, more specifically, as a coping mechanism to deal with negative situations experienced at work, such as ostracism (Wu et al., 2012), abusive supervision (Harvey et al., 2007) and organisational politics (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999). Figure 2.3 (see p. 36) summarises extant research on ingratiation as a moderator. A very recent study conducted by Wu and colleagues (2012) has shown that ingratiation may be used by employees as a coping mechanism to mitigate psychological distress at work. They argued that ostracism, which is described as the extent to which employees feel that they are being ignored or excluded by other organisational members at work, is pervasive throughout organisations (Ferris, Brown, Berry & Lian, 2008). Hence, understanding how to cope with this phenomenon is important to a better understanding of how psychological distress

(i.e., job tension, emotional exhaustion and depressed mood) at work can be minimised. Interestingly, Williams and Zadro (2005) suggested that one of the most commonly used behavioural strategies for coping with ostracism is ingratiation. As past research has shown, when ingratiation is effectively implemented, it can be used to enhance desired images for individuals (Judge & Bretz, 1994), and can promote favourable social interactions (Harvey et al., 2007). A resulting positive work environment can serve as a buffer to the adverse effects of stressors on psychological outcomes (Wu et al., 2012). In support of the foregoing argument, Wu and colleagues (2012) found that when ingratiation was exercised effectively, it neutralised the positive relationship between ostracism and psychological distress.

Harvey and colleagues (2007) examined how ingratiation may be used as a coping mechanism to attenuate the negative outcomes experienced by employees as a result of abusive supervision, which is defined as "the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (p. 178). The logic underlying their argument regarding ingratiation as a coping mechanism is twofold. First, the effective use of ingratiation should provide individuals with the relevant resources to manage a work environment laden with anxiety. Second, the effective use of ingratiation should also aid coping skills for individuals through the accumulation of social support in the workplace, as a result of their increased interpersonal attraction among superiors. Their results revealed that employees who refrained from engaging in ingratiation were found to experience more strain and develop intention to resign from the organisation than those who ingratiated.

According to both Wu and colleagues (2012) and Harvey and colleagues (2007), it is important to note that the use of ingratiation as a coping mechanism does not always attenuate the negative consequences of ostracism and abusive supervision, respectively. This is because

engaging in ingratiation may be perceived by others as being driven solely for the purpose of impression management. To be effective, both studies suggested that engaging in ingratiation alone is not enough to create positive outcomes but one must also do so appropriately, which would require skills. For instance, Ferris and colleagues (2007) argued that the effective use of ingratiation is "a function of employee political skill, which facilitates the delivery and execution of the influence behaviour" (p. 309).

Research has also shown that one of the ways in which employees can cope with their experience of politics at work is by engaging, also, in politics through the exercise of certain political tactics, such as ingratiation (Ferris et al., 1989). Given that employees who experience a *politically* charged workplace environment tend to find it stressful, ambiguous and frustrating, they may engage in politics as an attempt to gain control over their work environment (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999). According to research on the psychology of control, when individuals experience loss or lack of control they are generally motivated to engage in behaviours that would enable them to restore their sense of personal control (Greenberger & Strasser, 1991; Langer, 1983). Likewise, Harrell-Cook and colleagues (1999) proposed in their study that the adverse effects of perceived organisational politics (i.e., lower satisfaction with supervision and intentions to leave) can be weakened by engaging in ingratiation in an effort to gain control over the ambiguous work environment. Surprisingly, their hypotheses did not receive empirical support. Their results rather revealed that the adverse effects of perceived organisational politics became stronger among employees who reported high use of ingratiation as opposed to low use of ingratiation (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999). Jones and Wortman (1973) provided an alternative theoretical reasoning to justify the inconsistent result received from this study. In a highly political workplace, people are generally expected to engage in political behaviours. Hence,

political tactics exercised by employees, such as ingratiation, may be interpreted as an example

of an entirely normative behaviour, which is why engaging in ingratiation may fail to increase

liking on the part of the target.

Figure 2.3: Conceptual map of ingratiation as a moderator
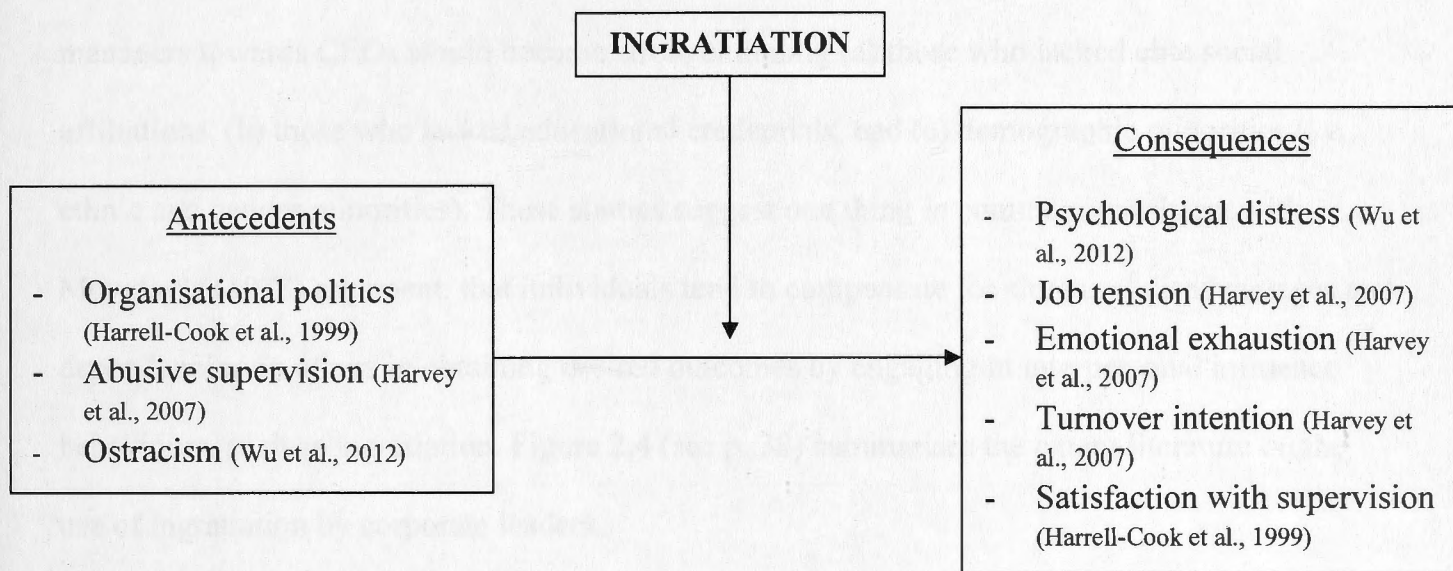
2.8. The Use of Ingratiation among Corporate Leaders

While ingratiatory behaviours can be widely observed being used among employees at

lower levels of management in an attempt to advance their career-related benefits, more recent

studies found that ingratiation is also as commonly used by corporate leaders, such as top

managers, CEOs and board directors (Stern & Westphal, 2010; Westphal & Deephouse, 2011;

Westphal & Stern, 2006). As Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) argued, ingratiatory behaviours

exercised by the agent whose status and power is relatively high tend to be seen as being more

credible and sincere. Accordingly, ingratiation has been found to be used by corporate leaders for

various reasons. For instance, when CEOs lose structural sources of power, which result from

greater structural board independence, they would react to such structural disadvantage by

exercising ingratiation towards board directors (Westphal, 1998). Furthermore, top managers and board directors may use ingratiation tactics to substitute for their lack of certain elite credentials when attempting to receive recommendations for board positions from relevant people who hold nominating power (Westphal & Stern, 2006; 2007). In Westphal and Stern's (2006) study, for example, they reported that the relationship between ingratiatory behaviours performed by top managers towards CEOs would become stronger among (a) those who lacked elite social affiliations, (b) those who lacked educational credentials, and (c) demographic minorities (i.e., ethnic and gender minorities). These studies suggest one thing in common, consistent with Mowday's (1978) argument, that individuals tend to compensate for structural disadvantages and dependencies on others in obtaining desired outcomes by engaging in interpersonal influence behaviours, such as ingratiation. Figure 2.4 (see p. 38) summarises the extant literature on the use of ingratiation by corporate leaders.

Research has identified several situational factors that may predict one's motivation to ingratiate (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kacmar et al., 2004; Wayne & Green, 1993), which is also evident in recent research that examined the use of ingratiation by corporate leaders (Park, Westphal & Stern, 2011). Liden and Mitchell (1988) argued that if ingratiators perceive a target person to be relatively high in their status level, they are likely to associate positive outcomes with the exercise of ingratiation. As shown in Park, Westphal and Stern's (2011) study, a relationship between the CEO's social status in the corporate elite and the level of ingratiation received from top managers was found to be significantly positive. Individuals may also attempt to use ingratiation when they perceive themselves to be in a structurally disadvantaged position (Mowday, 1978). For instance, Westphal (1998) found that CEOs may ingratiate to compensate for their loss of structural sources of power as a result of greater structural board independence.

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Finally, ingratiation is likely to be used as part of impression management to deal with situations where people think others hold less positive impressions of them, resulting in a discrepancy between the current image and the desired image they seek to achieve (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). For example, when media attempt to disclose information that may be detrimental to the company's public image (i.e., corporate earnings), this situation may prompt the CEO to engage in ingratiatory behaviours towards journalists, which should subsequently prompt the journalists to issue positive reports about the CEO's firm (Westphal & Deephouse, 2011).

Figure 2.4: The use of ingratiation by corporate leaders

Antecedents of Ingratiation

Dispositional Factors

Vocational background (i.e., politics, law and sales) (Stern & Westphal, 2010)

Socio-economic background (i.e., upper class) (Stern & Westphal, 2010)

Situational Factors

Greater structural board independence from management (Westphal, 1998)
CEO's social status (Park et al., 2011)
Media disclosure of corporate earnings (Westphal & Deephouse, 2011)

INGRATIATION

Moderator

- Gender (Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007)
- Ethnic minorities (Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007)
- Lack of elite social affiliations (Westphal & Stern, 2006)
- Lack of educational credentials (Westphal & Stern, 2006)

Consequences of Ingratiation

Impacts on CEOs

- Corporate diversification (Westphal, 1998)
- CEO compensation (Westphal, 1998)
- Compensation contingency (Westphal, 1998)
- CEO's self-enhancement (Park et al., 2011)

Impacts on Top Managers and Directors

- Board appointments (Stern & Westphal, 2010; Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007)

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As discussed before, not only was ingratiation found to be commonly adopted by employees at lower levels of management as a strategy to enhance their career prospects, but it was also found to be commonly used among corporate leaders, and this has resulted in more research being done on predicting outcomes of ingratiation. Accordingly, ingratiation was found to be used both by top managers, who lack board appointments, and by board directors, who already hold some board positions, to increase their chances of getting recommendations for board positions and to obtain additional board appointments, respectively (Westphal & Stern, 2006; 2007). In the situation where CEOs are losing structural sources of power as a result of corporate boards getting more independence and gaining more power, ingratiation was reported to be used by CEOs towards directors in an attempt to "secure social obligations, biasing evaluations of the CEO's decision-making capabilities, and raising directors' confidence in the diversification strategy itself" (Westphal, 1998, p. 519). Accordingly, CEOs may use ingratiation to favourably influence outcomes, such as corporate diversification, compensation contingency and levels of CEO compensation (Westphal, 1998).

Whereas ingratiation was found to be used by corporate leaders to enhance their personal objectives, research has shown that organisational objectives are not necessarily being met by the engagement of such behaviours (Park, Westphal & Stern, 2011). This is why ingratiation is often considered dysfunctional and political from the standpoint of the organisation (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1979). Park, Westphal and Stern's (2011) study found ingratiation to be positively related to CEO's self-enhancement in regard to his or her strategic judgment and leadership capability. In their study, self-enhancement is defined as "the overestimation of one's abilities" (Park et al., 2011 p. 262). The over-confidence that one has in their strategic decisions

was further found to be negatively associated with the tendency to make changes in company strategy as a response to low performance at the CEO's company.

The literature that examined the use of ingratiation among corporate leaders also attempted to address the efficacy of ingratiatory behaviours. As several theorists in social psychology have argued, to the extent that social influence tactics such as ingratiation are interpreted by a target person as manipulative and political, they are less likely to be effective for the agent to secure their personal objectives (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Gordon, 1996). Stern and Westphal (2010) argued that in order to reduce the likelihood that other-enhancement and opinion conformity will be interpreted by a target person as ingratiation, top managers or directors may frame their other-enhancement as advice seeking, and challenge a target person's ideas before conforming to them. Empirical evidence was received to support the hypothesis that managers' and directors' ingratiation toward target persons (i.e., CEOs and peers) is more likely to obtain board appointments at other firms to the extent that subtle forms of other-enhancement and opinion conformity are being used. Stern and Westphal (2010) further argued that one's vocational background and socio-economic background are major contributing factors in the performance of sophisticated forms of ingratiation. More specifically, they found that corporate leaders who have a background in politics, law or sales and those who have an upper-class background are more likely to engage in more sophisticated forms of other-enhancement and opinion conformity.

2.9. Theories Underlying Predicting Factors of Ingratiation

Different theoretical perspectives have been used in past research to determine predictors of ingratiation, notably role theory and psychological reactance theory. The following will discuss how past research has incorporated these two theories to predict ingratiation.

2.9.1. Role Theory. According to role theory, supervisors have a vested interest in the role performance of their subordinates, which lead them to form role expectations for individual employees. Through a series of interactions that employees have with others in the organisation, they learn what their role behaviour will be (Graen, Dansereau, Minami & Cashman, 1973). In Kacmar and colleagues' (2004) study, they found LMX to be significantly and positively associated with other-enhancement. In a high quality LMX relationship, subordinates receive a high level of trust from, engage in frequent interactions with, and gain strong support from their supervisors (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Informed by role theory, "upon establishing mutual role expectations individuals may feel pressure to maintain their role behaviors in order to preserve their desired status" (p. 315). Furthermore, to maintain role expectations being put upon by their supervisor, the high-quality LMX relationship that individuals have with their supervisor should influence their engagement in ingratiatory behaviours, such as other enhancement (Kacmar et al., 2004).

2.9.2. Psychological reactance theory. The psychological reactance theory argues that when individuals' discretion or freedom over important outcomes is under the threat of being reduced, they will be motivated to protect their discretion in order to realise preferred outcomes (Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Psychological reactance is most likely to be found among individuals with an internal locus of control and high self-esteem (Brockner & Elkind, 1985). The psychological reactance theory has been drawn on by research that examined the use of social influence behaviour among CEOs to predict ingratiation (Westphal, 1998). To compensate for the loss of structural sources of power as a result of greater structural board independence, such psychological reactance may represent a fundamental mechanism that comes in the form of

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ingratiatory behaviours. Hence, a greater structural board independence from management was found to lead to an increase in a CEO's ingratiation attempt (Westphal, 1998).

2.10. Theories Underlying Outcomes of Ingratiation

Different theories have been incorporated by past research on ingratiation to determine its outcomes, such as information processing model, balance theory, social exchange theory, social influence theory and attribution theory. The following will discuss how past research has incorporated these theories to determine outcomes of ingratiation.

2.10.1. The information processing model. According to the information processing model, the main stages involved in processing information include attention, categorisation, recall, and information integration (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). The model suggests that when an individual evaluates another person, he or she has to recall information from memory, in which the recalled behaviours may be biased towards the prototype that categorises that person in a certain way. Based on this basic process, past research has examined various ways in which information is processed and how the process would influence individuals' judgments and behaviours (Hastie & Park, 1986). As a result, the model has received considerable attention in the area of performance appraisals (Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). For example, research has found that there was a significant relationship between raters' cognitive processes and biases involved in performance appraisals (Padgett & Ilgen, 1989).

Past research on ingratiation that has adopted the information processing approach has argued that when an employee engages in ingratiation, a supervisor may recall only positive behaviours of him or her, which affects the way the supervisor categorises him or her and subsequently results in inflated ratings. In line with this theoretical argument, empirical evidence

has shown how ingratiation would positively relate to liking and perceived similarity developed by supervisors, and subsequently higher performance ratings and higher exchange quality in supervisor–subordinate interactions (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995).

   2.10.2. Balance theory. Balance theory has been used by past research to explain how supervisors evaluate ingratiatory behaviours performed by subordinates and how they subsequently form impressions of their subordinates, which have further impacts on career-related outcomes achieved by subordinates (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Treadway et al., 2007). According to balance theory (Heider, 1946), there are three sentiment relationships that exist in a dyadic relationship. A *sentiment* refers to "the way a person p feels about or evaluates something. This something may be another person, o, or an interpersonal entity, x" (Heider, 1958, p. 174). The first sentiment represents the members of the dyad (o and p). The other two sentiments represent how the members of the dyad feel and evaluate an action or an event (o —> x, p —> x). The central tenet underlying the balance theory is that members of the dyad will strive to achieve and maintain balance among the three sentiments. According to Heider (1958), balance among the three sentiments is achieved when "the perceived units and the experienced sentiments co-exist without stress; thus there is no pressure to change" (p. 176).

   Treadway and colleagues (2007) argued that the balance theory can be easily applicable to the social influence process in general. For example, when a subordinate who is an ingratiator and a supervisor who is a target person complete the membership of the dyad, the perceived use of ingratiation by the subordinate would represent the event against which the sentiment is drawn. Judge and Bretz (1994) argued that if a supervisor (i.e., p) believes that a subordinate (i.e., o) likes him or her, which is evaluated based on their ingratiatory behaviours (i.e., x), the

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supervisor will strive to achieve balance by reciprocating his or her liking, which further impacts on how he or she would determine career-related benefits for the subordinate.

2.10.3. Social exchange theory. Individuals enter into exchange relationships with others to maximise benefits by exchanging highly valued resources among exchange partners. Social exchanges, unlike economic exchanges, are based primarily on trust that communicates goodwill (Blau, 1964). A central tenet of social exchange theory is that both parties involved in the mutual exchange are obligated to provide resources that communicate concern and are valued by the other party (Spitzmuller, Glenn, Barr, Rogelberg & Daniel, 2006), resulting in the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). To the extent that both members of the exchange relationship possess resources that are highly valued or desired by the other and are willing to supply them, reciprocation of such valued resources should strengthen the exchange relationship over time (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

More recent studies conducted by Westphal and Stern (2006, 2007) have used the social exchange theory to explain how top managers use ingratiation to influence peers and CEOs in an attempt to increase their chances of obtaining board appointments. Westphal and Stern (2006, 2007) argued that when fellow directors or CEOs (i.e., target person) are paid a compliment (i.e., other-enhancement), affirmed of their intellect or judgment (i.e., opinion conformity), or rendered favours (i.e., favour rendering) by top managers (i.e., ingratiator), the norm of reciprocity will obligate them to return such favourable treatment when given an opportunity. One way they can do so is by recommending top managers for board appointments. Consistent with this, their research has empirically demonstrated a positive association between ingratiation and the number of board appointments.

2.10.4. Social influence theory. Central to the study of social influence is the attempt to understand the process by which a target person is persuaded to change the perception he or she has of an influencer, and subsequently to change the decision that may have relevant impacts on the influencer (Levy et al., 1998). In the organisational context, employees may ingratiate their supervisors in order to be perceived as being likeable, and to subsequently use such interpersonal attraction to influence relevant HR decisions made by the supervisor in their own favour, such as performance evaluations, promotions and pay decisions (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne, Graf & Ferris, 1995). However, past research has rather shown mixed findings concerning the career-related benefits achieved by ingratiation (Ayree, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Rao Schmidt & Murray, 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). In this regard, the social influence theory posits that individual characteristics of the influencer play an important role in contributing to the effectiveness of the social influence tactics being exercised (Levy et al., 1998). Harris and colleagues (2007) drew on this theory to postulate political skill as an individual characteristic that may contribute to the effectiveness of ingratiation. More specifically, they found that political skill significantly moderated the relationship between ingratiation and supervisor-rated performance in such a way that the relationship became significant when political skill was high as opposed to when political skill was low.

2.10.5. Attribution theory. Ingratiatory behaviours performed by subordinates may be perceived by supervisors either as citizenship behaviours or ingratiation (Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Treadway et al., 2007). This is because they are similar in their extra-role nature and they can only be differentiated by the ingratiator's motives and how a target person perceives the motives. Past research has incorporated attribution theory to examine how ingratiatory behaviours may be interpreted differently by target individuals and why certain ingratiation

attempts are more successful than others (Eastman, 1994). Underlying attribution theory (Kelley, 1967) is the central tenet that a supervisor evaluates the behaviour of an employee based on three types of information. First, consistency reflects the generality of the behaviour across time or place. Second, distinctiveness indicates whether the behaviour is also exercised towards individuals other than the boss. Third, consensus indicates whether other employees have also acted in the same behavioural pattern.

Eastman (1994) argued that if employees are able to exhibit extra-role behaviours continually throughout the year (i.e., consistency), direct their extra-role behaviours at a variety of people (i.e., distinctiveness), and perform extra-role behaviours more in line with others (i.e., consensus), they are more likely to be viewed as 'good corporate citizens' rather than as 'ingratiators'. However, the actual result has empirically shown that among the three types of information, only consensus accounted for extra-role behaviour attribution, but consistency and distinctiveness did not account for that attribution (Eastman, 1994).

2.11. Identification of Research Gaps

As briefly addressed in Chapter 1, past research has disproportionately focused on examining main-effect relationships between antecedents and ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004), and ingratiation and consequences (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Despite the commonly held assumption that ingratiation can enable career-motivated employees to achieve career-related benefits, such as positive performance evaluations, salary increases and promotions (King, 2004), very little research has in fact examined ingratiation as an intermediary mechanism. For instance, past research has separately shown that individuals with a high need for power were more inclined to engage in ingratiation (Harrison et al., 1998), and that their ingratiation attempt

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would enhance their promotability as a result of having received higher promotability ratings from their supervisors (Higgins, Judge & Ferris, 2003). Based on a review of the literature, it is reasonable to argue that ingratiation may serve as a career influence tactic that enables career-motivated employees to advance their promotability. To address this research gap, the first research objective of this thesis is to examine how ingratiation may serve as a career influence tactic or, more specifically, as an intermediary mechanism that links career-motivated employees to career-related benefits.

Furthermore, although considerable research attention has been given to determine main-effect relationships between antecedents and ingratiation, and ingratiation and outcomes, the results obtained across these studies have been shown to be inconsistent (Aryee et al., 1996; Farmer et al., 1997; Kacmar et al., 2004; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). For instance, whereas early research work has shown that need for power should positively predict ingratiation due to power-driven employees' tendency to exercise influence towards others (Harrison et al., 1998; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991), more recent work conducted by Kacmar and colleagues (2004) has rather shown a negative relationship between the two. Along with these empirical inconsistencies, surprisingly little attention has been accorded to the boundary conditions that may come into play to affect one's performance of ingratiatory behaviours. Liden and Mitchell (1988) argued that individuals' conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt is determined by the individual's assessment of the risk associated with employing the tactic. Hence, what is currently lacking in the existing research on ingratiation is an identification and examination of boundary conditions that not only would help explain the conflicting results evident in the extant research on ingratiation but also represents a critical ingredient to middle-range theorising (see Whetten, 1989). To provide a better

understanding of *why people ingratiate*, the second research objective of this thesis is to identify relevant boundary conditions that may affect one's conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt.

In addition, inconsistent results pertaining to the outcomes of ingratiation (Ayree, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Rao, Schmidt & Murray, 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995) also suggest a need to identify boundary conditions. Whereas Thacker and Wayne (1995) found a significant negative relationship between ingratiation and promotability in their study, the same relationship was found to be positive in others (McFarland, Ryan, & Kriska, 2003). Such inconsistency suggests that certain boundary conditions may come into play to affect one's efficacy to ingratiate successfully. Levy and colleagues (1998) argued that the individual characteristics of the ingratiator play an important role in contributing to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. However, while past research has examined the moderating role of political skill (Harris et al., 2007; Treadway et al., 2007), no further research efforts have been made to consider how other individual characteristics may affect the effectiveness of ingratiation. Thus, what is currently lacking in the existing research on ingratiation is an examination of individual characteristics, other than political skill, that would contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. To provide a better understanding of *why certain ingratiation attempts are more successful than others*, the third research objective of this thesis is to identify relevant boundary conditions that may contribute to the effectiveness of ingratiation in achieving career-related benefits.

Summary

This chapter has closely examined the extant literature on ingratiation. Accordingly, the review has shown that ingratiatory behaviours can be predicted by both dispositional and

situational factors, and that an engagement in ingratiation can result in several favourable outcomes, particularly interpersonal attraction and career-related benefits. Past research has incorporated several theories to identify both antecedents and outcomes of ingratiation, including role theory, information processing model, psychological reactance theory, balance theory, social exchange theory, social influence theory and attribution theory. Despite extensive research that has been done on ingratiation, certain research gaps still exist which motivate the three research questions being posed in this thesis. More specifically, the chapter has identified three main research gaps in the literature: (a) an examination of ingratiation as an intermediary mechanism that enables career-motivated employees to achieve promotability; (b) a better understanding of why people consciously go through with the ingratiation attempt; and (c) a better understanding of why certain ingratiation attempts are more successful than others.

CHAPTER 3 – HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Introduction

Building on from the previous chapter, which has identified main research gaps in the existing literature on ingratiation, this chapter further develops a research model that proposes six hypotheses that will tap into the research gaps identified. The underlying theories used in the two studies conducted will be addressed along with the development of the hypotheses.

3.2. Relationships among Career-Related Psychological Needs, Ingratiation and Promotability

Some people may be more predisposed than others to believe that ingratiation is a fundamental factor that enables them to enhance personal objectives (Bolino, 1999). Hence, identifying the motivation behind ingratiatory behaviours is an important undertaking. Past research has empirically distinguished how one's motivation to engage in ingratiation may be predicted by career-related psychological needs, such as need for power (Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe & Ralston, 1998), and how one's performance of ingratiatory behaviours may enhance career-related benefits, such as promotions (Higgins et al., 2003). To account for how ingratiation may serve as a career influence tactic or, more specifically, as an intermediary mechanism that links career-related psychological needs to desired career outcomes, this thesis incorporates the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993). By doing so, this thesis also proposes an integrative model that concurrently examines antecedents and outcomes of ingratiation.

3.2.1. Functional approach to motivation. Because one's motivation to perform a certain behaviour cannot be easily observed, this thesis incorporates the functional approach to

motivation to uncover the psychological needs underlying ingratiation based on the functional

purposes served by the behaviour. The functional approach to motivation has been used by

research on volunteerism (Clary & Snyder, 1999) and later on organisational citizenship

behaviours (Lavelle, 2010; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Both the latter two studies attempted to

uncover the underlying motives for people to engage in such extra-role behaviours. Fundamental

to the functional approach is the underlying tenet that people perform a particular behaviour

(e.g., ingratiation) in order to satisfy their personal needs (e.g., need for achievement and need

for power) as a result of having achieved desired outcomes (e.g., promotability). That means the

emphasis is placed on identifying the function or purpose served by the behaviour (Snyder,

1993). Informed by the same approach, Lavelle (2010) identified several functions that

citizenship behaviours can serve. For example, employees may engage in citizenship behaviours

to attain career-related benefits, to obtain new information and perspectives, and to engage in

social interactions with others. Respectively, Lavelle identified the underlying motives to include

career advancement motives, the desire to learn new things and gain new perspectives, and social

needs, respectively.

This thesis espouses the same functional approach to motivation and, likewise, identifies

career-related psychological needs underlying employees' performance of ingratiatory

behaviours based on the functional purpose served by ingratiation. In this case the functional

purpose refers to promotability. *Promotability* is generally determined by the subjective

evaluations concerning one's likeliness of getting promoted to a higher positional level, which is

frequently a function of a supervisor's perception of one's performance. Due to the subjective

nature of performance evaluations, ample room exists for employees to exercise social influence,

such as ingratiation, to influence the perception of their supervisors regarding their actual performance and potential (Ferris & Judge, 1991).

In this regard, this thesis identifies two career-related psychological needs, need for achievement (McClelland, 1962) and need for power (McClelland, 1975). Given that the two psychological needs are uncovered based on the outcome achieved by engaging ingratiation, the reasoning behind the inclusion of these two needs while excluding McClelland's (1985) need for affiliation (i.e., the need to seek harmonious relationships with and to feel accepted by other people) is based on the career-related outcome being linked to. In this case the outcome refers to promotability. This thesis argues that whereas getting advanced in one's career will be likely to fulfil one's achievement and power motives, achieving promotability does not associate with their acceptance by the social group they want to be affiliated with. The following two sub-sections will discuss the rationale underlying the identification of each of the two psychological needs.

3.2.2. Need for achievement. Individuals with a high need for achievement can be described in terms of "... task orientation, aspirations to achieve moderately difficult goals, and a positive response to competition" (Mowday, 1978, p. 139). Hence, the achievement motive is said to be fulfilled when the success that is achieved involves challenging tasks, and when individuals are given considerable autonomy to take charge of these tasks (Jenkins, 1987). For example, when employees are promoted to a higher position, which is possible through positional promotions, they would have to assume more challenging job responsibilities and greater job autonomy. Thus, employees may ingratiate their supervisors because they want to get promoted to a higher job position, and the fact that they want to get promoted is because they

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want to assume more challenging tasks and obtain greater autonomy to make decisions on these

tasks. This reflects the need for achievement.

3.2.3. Need for power. Individuals with a high need for power generally show "...the

desire for power or for the feelings associated with having power" (Jenkins, 1994). Hence, the

power motive is fulfilled when one has gained control over the social environment or is able to

influence and direct other people (Steers & Braunstein, 1976). For example, when employees get

promoted to a higher position, they would obtain greater positional power and would be expected

to exercise the power to direct those people lower in their hierarchy. Hence, it is argued that

employees may ingratiate their supervisors in order to enhance their chances of getting

promoted, and the fact that they want to get promoted is because they want to have more control

over their work environment and to direct employees who are at lower positional levels. These

outcomes fulfil their power motive.

3.3. Identifying Boundary Conditions

Although need for achievement and need for power may explain why employees

ingratiate their supervisors, not all individuals who display these needs will similarly attempt

ingratiation at work. Likewise, not all ingratiation attempts enacted by achievement- or power-

driven employees will lead to positive career-related outcomes. This is evident by the

inconclusive findings from past research work examining both predictors (Harrison et al., 1998;

Kacmar et al., 2004) and outcomes of ingratiation (Aryee, Wyatt & Stone, 1996; Thacker &

Wayne, 1995). Hence, they warrant further research to explore boundary conditions that may

affect (a) one's conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt, and (b) one's

efficacy to ingratiate successfully.

To address what contributes to one's conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt, this thesis incorporates Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT) as an overarching theory. By doing so, it identifies relevant boundary conditions that may affect either achievement- or power-driven employees' conscious decision to engage in ingratiation in an attempt to enhance their promotability. The theory proposes certain basic human capabilities that explain organisational behaviours. This thesis proposes more specifically that *self-regulatory capability* and *self-reflective capability* are important boundary conditions for the relationships among career-related psychological needs, ingratiation and promotability. Concerning self-regulatory capability, people evaluate the discrepancy between internal standards set and the actual performance in order to improve it (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). This capability is operationalised through organisation-based self-esteem. Concerning self-reflective capability, employees reflect back on the success of their past actions to determine their future engagement in the same behavioural pattern (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). This capability is operationalised through political skill. In essence, it is argued that employees driven either by a high need for achievement or need for power will engage in ingratiation to the extent that either one of two conditions is met. These conditions are: (a) when they realise that their employing organisation actually fulfils their power and achievement motives, and subsequently anticipate positive outcomes associated with becoming better affiliated with the organisation, which is indexed by high levels of OBSE (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989); and (b) when they believe they have the ability to exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner, which is indexed by high levels of political skill (Ferris, Davidson & Perrewe, 2005).

Furthermore, this thesis incorporates cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) and social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998) as complementary theories to helps explain how the

two boundary conditions operationalised by SCT, notably OBSE and political skill, may contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory behaviours exercised by achievement- or power-driven employees in an attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings. Cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) suggests that individuals will be motivated to behave in a manner or achieve outcomes that are consistent with their self-image. Thus, when high OBSE employees believe that they are highly competent organisational members, the self-efficacy they have towards their ability will also be reflected in the way they perform their ingratiatory tactics (Bandura, 1997). Informed by social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), it is further argued that in order to achieve higher promotability, ingratiatory tactics alone are not sufficient to achieve positive outcomes. They also need to have the ability to execute the tactics in a politically astute manner, which is reflected in high levels of political skill.

3.3.1. Social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory (SCT) explains organisational behaviour in terms of reciprocal causation, which is depicted in Figure 3.1, among interpersonal factors, external environmental events, and behavioural patterns (Bandura, 1986). Because of these combined reciprocal influences, individuals are "... both products and producers of their personality, their behaviours, and their respective environments" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 64). As shown in the proposed model depicted in Figure 1.1 (see Chapter 1, p. 6), employees are products of their career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) and the workplace they perceive to be in (i.e., organisation-based self-esteem), which determine their engagement in ingratiatory behaviours. Their past performance of ingratiation also exerts determinative influence on their efficacy beliefs to exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner (i.e., political skill), which may generate the performance of similar ingratiatory behaviours in the future.

Figure 3.1: Triadic reciprocal causations in social cognitive theory
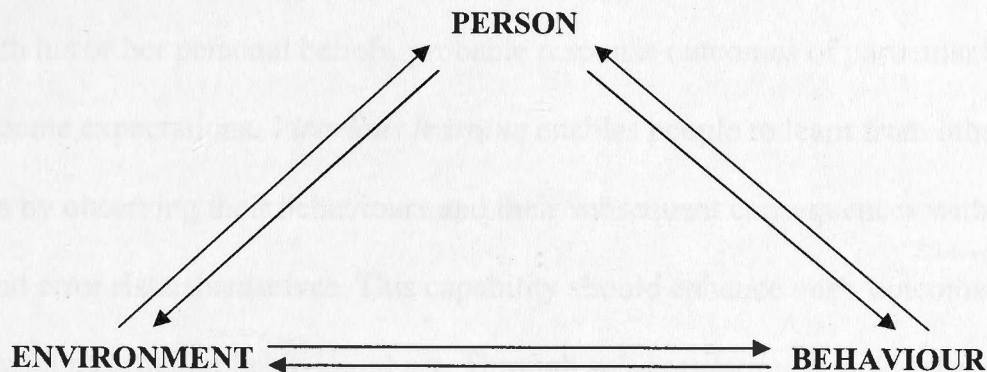
Source: Stajkovic, A.D., & Luthans, F. (1998). 'Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy: Going beyond the traditional motivational and behavioural approaches'. *Organizational Dynamics*, 62–74.

It has been argued that although those commonly referenced cognitively-based work motivation theories, such as expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), equity theory (Adams, 1965) and subjective utility theory (Savage, 1954), may functionally relate several psychological factors (e.g., motives, expectancies, perceived inequities, etc.) to action, they pose their limits in identifying boundary conditions that determine the strength of the proposed associations (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). By incorporating SCT, the limitation identified previously can be addressed. Accordingly, the theory posits five basic human capabilities that help determine the strength of any associations between individual characteristics and behaviours. These capabilities include (a) symbolising capability, (b) forethought capability, (c) vicarious learning, (d) self-reflective capability, and (e) self-regulatory capability (Bandura, 2001).

First through *symbolising*, individuals process and transform visual experiences into an internal cognitive model. This model then serves as a guide for their future actions. Furthermore,

by utilising *forethought capability*, people plan courses of action, anticipate the likely outcomes of prospective actions, and set personal goals. This forethought capability helps explain how one derives, with his or her personal beliefs, probable response outcomes of particular behaviours, termed outcome expectations. *Vicarious learning* enables people to learn from others' experiences by observing their behaviours and their subsequent consequences without having to take trial and error risks themselves. This capability should enhance one's outcome expectations associated with a particular behavioural act. Through *self-regulation*, people set specific standards, determine for any incongruity between the desired state and the existing state, and subsequently react to minimise the discrepancy perceived. Finally, *self-reflection* enables people to learn from their own experiences by reflecting on their past actions, which then determine the efficacy beliefs about their capabilities to deal effectively with different environmental realities in the future (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

It is important to note that among the five basic human capabilities, three of them are examined in this research: self-regulatory; self-reflective; and forethought capabilities. The underlying reason to the inclusion of these three capabilities is the association that they have with one's reflection of self-capabilities, which is in line with the scope of this thesis that attempts to examine how individual characteristics may serve as relevant boundary conditions. In contrast, symbolising and vicarious learning capabilities are more related to one's observation of surrounding situational contexts. It is not within the scope of this study to examine how situational factors may serve as relevant boundary conditions.

3.4. Hypotheses Development

By incorporating the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993), SCT (Bandura, 1986), cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) and social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), this thesis proposes and empirically tests twelve moderated-mediation relationships (see Figure 1.1, p. 7). First, this thesis tests the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power on promotability through ingratiation. Second, it tests the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power. Finally, it tests the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive impacts of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power.

3.4.1. Organisation-based self-esteem as a first-stage moderator - Central to OBSE is the extent to which employees position their organisation as a need-satisfying agency (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). This is attributed to their sense of having satisfied their personal needs in the past through organisational roles they serve in their employing organisation (Pierce et al., 1989). Self-esteem is a personal evaluation that reflects what other people think of themselves as individuals (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Research has shown that one set of factors that motivates individuals to engage in impression management techniques, such as ingratiation, is the discrepancy between one's desired image and the actual image one believes other people may hold (Baumeister, 1982). Several researchers have posited that self-esteem is central to the explanation of employee motivation (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970, 1976). Thus, this thesis attempts to examine how OBSE may serve as a relevant boundary condition that may affect the cognitive-motivational

process underpinning either achievement- or power-driven employees' performance of ingratiation.

According to SCT (Bandura, 1986), individuals may utilise their self-regulatory capability by setting specific standards and evaluate the discrepancy between the desired standard set and the actual performance (Bandura, 1999). If there is a discrepancy experienced between the desired state and the existing state, employees will be motivated to minimise the incongruity perceived. In contrast, if there is no discrepancy experienced, employees will set a higher standard and activate future behaviours that enable them to achieve the higher standard set (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Korman (1970) argued that self-esteem reflects the extent to which an individual sees him or herself as a need-satisfying individual, which is derived from "... a sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past" (Korman, 1966, p. 479). When examining self-esteem in the organisational context, people who display high levels of OBSE experience a sense of having satisfied their personal needs through organisational roles they serve in their employing organisation (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). By utilising the self-regulatory capability, this "sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past" can be used by employees to determine the extent to which they have fulfilled their achievement and power needs, in other words, to determine the discrepancy experienced between the desired state and the existing state. For instance, when employees display low levels of OBSE, they are likely to experience a discrepancy between a desired state they seek to achieve (e.g., determined by their need for achievement or need for power) and a current state they are in (e.g., determined by their actual achievement made or power obtained). In contrast, when employees display high levels of OBSE, which is an

indication of no discrepancy being experienced, they will attempt to set a higher standard to achieve.

Fundamental to those who display high levels of OBSE is how they view their employing organisation as a *need-satisfying agency* (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). This is attributed to their sense of having satisfied their personal needs (e.g., need for achievement and need for power) in the past through organisational roles they serve in that particular workplace (Pierce et al., 1989). As a result, high OBSE employees are likely to anticipate positive outcome expectations associated with becoming affiliated with the organisation they believe it to be an instrumental agency to their need fulfillment. In the career context, positive outcome expectations may refer to their perceived chances of getting promoted. In this regard, it is argued that when either achievement- or power-driven employees experience high levels of OBSE, they will attempt to achieve a higher standard set, which in this case is determined by their attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings. One way they can do so is by engaging in ingratiation. Indeed, Liden and Mitchell (1988) noted that ingratiatory behaviours are likely to be caused by assertive needs that are focused on achieving positive outcomes in the future. The attempt of achievement- and power-driven employees to achieve higher promotability ratings reflects such assertive needs.

In contrast, when either achievement- or power-driven employees display low levels of OBSE, they will become less inclined to engage in more assertive ingratiatory tactics, such as other-enhancement, opinion conformity and favour rendering. Not only because they think less highly of their organisation as a need-satisfying agent, but also because of their immediate inclination to protect their esteem and restore it (Dipboye, 1977). One way they can do so is by engaging in a more defensive approach of ingratiation. As Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) argued, ingratiatory tactics can be used by employees to either defend (i.e., defensive approach) or to

promote (i.e., assertive approach) oneself. Ingratiatory tactics that are used in an endeavour to defend oneself following poor performance tend to be immediate in nature and may include strategies, such as apologies, self-disclosures, making excuses, or justifications. Note that although defensive approach to ingratiatory tactics are not empirically tested in this research, defensive approach to ingratiation has been referenced in this research in an attempt to help develop an argument why individuals with low OBSE are less likely to engage in specific ingratiatory tactics, such as other enhancement, opinion conformity and favour rendering. Given that only assertive ingratiatory tactics are examined in this thesis, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1(a): At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2(a): At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

3.4.2. *Organisation-based self-esteem as a second-stage moderator.* This research further postulates OBSE as a relevant boundary condition that has an enhancing effect on ingratiation in achieving positive career outcomes Organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) is an evaluative trait (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) that reflects one's evaluation of personal adequacy (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Accordingly, OBSE has been defined as "the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member" (Pierce & Gardner, 2004, p. 593). Thus, individuals with high OBSE tend to perceive themselves as being a competent and capable organisational member, whereas

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those with low OBSE view themselves as being organisationally incompetent. To address the question *why* career-motivated employees (i.e., driven either by a high need for achievement or need for power) are better able to exercise ingratiation more effectively in order to achieve higher promotability ratings from their supervisors when they display high as opposed to low levels of OBSE, this research incorporates cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970).

According to cognitive consistency theory, people are motivated to engage in behaviours and achieve outcomes that are consistent with their self-concept (Korman, 1971). Given that high OBSE employees evaluate and perceive themselves as a competent and capable organisational member, they will engage in behaviours and display attitudes that are consistent with their self-concept. In line with this, past research has shown that engaging in high levels of performance is one way in which high OBSE employees can maintain consistency with their self-perceived competence (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham & Cummings, 1993; Gardner, Pierce, Van Dyne & Cummings, 2000). Furthermore, it has been argued that high OBSE individuals are likely to have higher self-efficacy as opposed to those with low OBSE (Bandura, 1997), which "contributes to higher performance levels under almost all role conditions" (Pierce & Gardner, 2004, p. 608).

By incorporating cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970), this thesis argues that OBSE should serve as a relevant boundary condition in the relationship between ingratiation and promotability. Due to the high level of their self-perceived competence and ability, achievement- or power-driven individuals who are high on OBSE will display confidence in their ability to exercise ingratiation towards their supervisor in an attempt to enhance their promotability ratings with utmost certainty. As shown in Staehle-Moody's (1998) study, the self-perceived competence that individuals with high OBSE have was found to be carried over to their coping style towards organisational change. Specifically, high OBSE individuals were found to be more proactive in

their coping style in comparison to their low OBSE counterparts. Thus, given that high achievement- or power-driven employees with high OBSE tend to perceive themselves as a highly competent organisational member, their self-confidence will be also be displayed in their performance of ingratiatory behaviours, which would positively affect the extent to which ingratiation will lead to higher promotability ratings. In contrast, given that achievement- or power-drive employees with low OBSE tend to evaluate themselves as an incompetent organisational member, their lack of self-perceived competence is likely reflected in their inconsistent effort of ingratiation, which would negatively affect the extent to which ingratiatory tactics will lead to higher promotability. In support of the foregoing argument, the following is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 1(b): At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2(b): At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

3.4.3. Political skill as a first-stage moderator. This section discusses the first-stage moderating impact of political skill within the career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) – ingratiation – promotability relationships. It is proposed that the extent to which either achievement- or power-driven employees will consciously decide to engage in ingratiation in an attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings is partly determined

by one's belief in their ability to exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner. The belief that one can exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner is determined by political skill. This is because *political skill* is determined by one's perception of their ability to demonstrate an interpersonal style that "... combines social astuteness with the ability to relate well, and otherwise demonstrate situationally appropriate behaviour in a disarmingly charming and engaging manner that inspires confidence, trust, sincerity and genuineness" (Ferris et al., 2000, p.30).

According to the self-reflective capability posited by SCT (Bandura, 1986), people reflect on their past actions to form a belief as to whether they can successfully accomplish the same task in the future given the context they are in. Central to the knowledge derived from their self-reflection is their judgment of their capabilities to deal effectively with different situations (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1996). It is this "judgment of their capabilities" that influences power- or achievement-driven employees' decision to ingratiate (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). More specifically, it is argued that this judgment may be derived from their belief in the political skill they possess. As Ferris and colleagues (2007) argued, political skill impacts inwardly on the self, one aspect of this impact being on self-evaluations. For example, as politically skilled individuals reflect through their successful interpersonal encounters over time, this should contribute to the experience of control and mastery over others in their work environment, which subsequently leads them to evaluate themselves positively (Ferris et al., 2005).

The favourable evaluations that politically skilled individuals make of themselves may come in the form of efficacy beliefs in their ability to exert influence over their work environment. These efficacy beliefs further affect their forethought capability (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1996) to determine individuals' outcome expectations associated with their engagement

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in ingratiatory behaviours. By affecting their belief about what they can do as well as what the likely outcomes of their performance would be, the forethought capability would further enable employees to evaluate ingratiation as a favourable option that involves higher probability of success and associates with more benefits than costs (Bandura, 2001).

The rationale proposed by SCT suggests that employees driven either by a high need for achievement or need for power will engage in ingratiation to the extent that they hold efficacy beliefs in their ability to exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner. This is determined by one's perception of his or her political skill. The belief they have in their ability to ingratiate successfully further affects their outcome expectations towards the probability of achieving higher promotability ratings. Due to the positive outcome expectations associated with engaging in ingratiation, they are likely to consciously go through with the ingratiation attempt. In contrast, if they do not believe they are politically skilled enough to successfully achieve their career objectives from engaging in ingratiation, they will become less inclined to engage in ingratiation. This is due to an anticipation of unsuccessful ingratiation attempts. In support of the foregoing argument, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 3(a): At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.

Hypothesis 4(a): At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.

3.4.4. Political skill as a second-stage moderator: At the second-stage moderation of political skill, this thesis further postulates political skill as a relevant individual characteristic that will contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. According to social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998) one of the interpersonal influence factors that aids the evaluation of social influence behaviours is perceived intentionality. Employees who are able to use ingratiatory tactics without being interpreted by supervisors as ingratiation, but rather as sincere interpersonal behaviour, will be more successful in their ingratiation attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings. Thus, ingratiatory tactics by themselves will not contribute to positive outcomes, but they have to be combined with the ability to exercise the tactics in a politically astute manner (Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer 1981). Accordingly, political skill, defined as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways than enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, & Frink, 2005, p. 127), has been argued to serve as a relevant boundary condition that would enable career-motivated employees (i.e., either by a need for achievement or need for power) to achieve higher promotability ratings through the use of ingratiation.

Informed by social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), political skill should serve as a moderator at the second-stage of the career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) – ingratiation –promotability relationships. This is due to the main abilities of politically skilled employees, notably social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005). For instance, due to their social astuteness (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, & Douglas, 2007), employees can capitalise on their political skill to read situational requirements in organisations and accordingly alter their

ingratiation style in ways that allow them to create positive impressions in the eyes of their supervisor. Due to their apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2007), employees are able to draw on their ability to communicate sincerity and genuineness in any of the social interactions they have with their supervisor. Furthermore, due to their interpersonal influence and networking abilities (Ferris et al., 2005; 2007), employees may draw on these abilities to develop a large social network with both of their supervisors and colleagues. In line with this, past research has associated political skill with positive career-related outcomes, such as total promotions and career satisfaction (Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009).

Several lines of reasoning point to the moderating role of political skill. Achievement- or power-driven employees who are able to use ingratiatory tactics without being perceived by their supervisor as ingratiation, but rather as sincere interpersonal behaviour, will be more successful in their ingratiation attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings. Indeed, previous studies have shown that employees with high political skill are better able to exercise social influence tactics, such as ingratiation, in an attempt to achieve positive performance evaluations from their supervisor (Harris et al., 2007; Treadway et al., 2007). Achievement- or power-driven employees who display high levels of political skill are likely to be successful in using ingratiation to achieve higher promotability ratings. This is because politically skilled employees are better able to observe what their supervisors are thinking and understand how to influence their perceptions accordingly to create positive outcomes (Harris et al., 2007). In contrast, achievement- or power-driven employees who are not politically skilled will be less effective in using ingratiation to manipulate perceptions of their supervisors to produce positive outcomes. In support of the foregoing argument, the following is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 3(b): At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.

Hypothesis 4(b): At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.

3.4.5. Three-way interactions.
In addition to the independent moderating impacts, this research further proposes that the interaction between OBSE and political skill will influence the conditional indirect effects of career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) in predicting promotability through ingratiation. According to SCT, the nature of the interaction between OBSE and political skill in influencing the conditional indirect effects can be explained by certain basic human capabilities, which include self-regulation, self-reflection and forethought capability (Bandura, 1986, Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

First of all, through self-regulation, people set specific standards, determine for any incongruity between the desired state and the existing state, and subsequently react to minimise the discrepancy perceived (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). By utilising the self-regulatory capability, one's level of OBSE should indicate the degree of discrepancy between the desired state and the current state being experienced by the person. When achievement- or power-driven employees experience high levels of OBSE, which is an indication of no discrepancy being experienced, they will attempt to achieve a higher standard as a means by which they can enhance their esteem, for instance, by seeking promotions. Accordingly, employees with high

OBSE are more likely to engage in ingratiation, which enables them to be perceived as being likeable, as a means by which they can achieve a higher standard.

Although engaging in ingratiation is one of the ways in which employees can achieve a higher standard set (i.e., promotability), there still exists a wide range of other options available. This is when the efficacy belief in their political skill comes into play to determine whether ingratiation will be the optimal option to choose from. By utilising self-reflective capability, employees reflect on past experience associated with their social interactions with others and their ability to exert influence over the work environment to determine whether they are politically skilled. If they believe they are politically skilled, such efficacy belief will further influence their outcome expectations associated with engaging in ingratiation. As they utilise their forethought capability, they are likely to see more benefits than costs associated with engaging in ingratiation, which makes them become more inclined to exercise ingratiatory tactics.

However, past research examining personal needs has addressed the differences between power and achievement orientations in predicting work behaviours and career outcomes (Jenkins, 1987; 1994). Whereas, individuals with a high need for achievement tend to focus on hard work, individuals with a high need for power tend to focus more on playing politics in order to achieve desired outcomes (Andrews, 1967). In this regard, this thesis also proposes for differential moderating impacts that the interaction between OBSE and political skill would have on career-related the psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) – ingratiation – promotability relationships. Specifically, it is argued that whereas employees with a high need for achievement are required to display high levels of both political skill and OBSE to develop positive outcome expectations, employees with a high need for power would require

at least either one of the boundary conditions to anticipate positive consequences associated with the ingratiation attempt.

Need for achievement. Individuals with a high need for achievement tend to display a strong drive to achieve success and excellence in accomplishing difficult and challenging tasks (McClelland, 1962). Thus, they are less likely to find satisfaction from engaging in behaviours that are directed towards pleasing other people, such as ingratiation. As Andrews (1967) commented, "...individuals with strong need for achievement work hard and effectively at tasks which provide the opportunity for attaining a personal standard for excellence" (p. 163). For instance, no matter how confident achievement-driven employees are as a competent organisational member, which is an indication of high levels of OBSE, if they do not hold the efficacy belief that they are politically skilled they are less likely to anticipate positive outcome expectations associated with the performance of ingratiatory behaviours (i.e., first-stage moderation). Likewise, although achievement-driven employees with high OBSE may be more proactive in their style of ingratiation, if they are not politically skilled they may be less effective in using ingratiation to manipulate perceptions of their supervisors and to subsequently influence their promotability ratings (i.e., second-stage moderation). In this regard, this thesis argues that achievement-driven employees are less prone to engage in ingratiation and would require more supporting conditions to consciously go through with the ingratiation attempt. In support of the foregoing argument, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 5(a): At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the first-stage moderation.

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Hypothesis 5(b): At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the second-stage moderation.

Need for power. In contrast, people with a high need for power tend to find satisfaction from having exercised influence over other people, such as by engaging in ingratiation (Jenkins, 1994). For example, when power-driven employees effectively engage in ingratiation, they may derive gratification from having exercised influence over their supervisors. Consistent with this, past research has shown a positive relationship between need for power and ingratiation (Harrison et al., 1998; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). In this regard, it is argued that employees with a high need for power would require at least either one of the boundary conditions to anticipate positive consequences associated with the ingratiation attempt For instance, although power-driven employees may lack the skill to exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner, if they display high levels of OBSE they would still anticipate positive outcomes associated with their performance of ingratiatory behaviours at work. As a result, they would still be strongly inclined to engage in ingratiation at work (i.e., first-stage moderation). Furthermore, informed by cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970), the self-perceived competence and ability that high OBSE employees have should also be reflected in their proactive style of ingratiation, which should have an enhancing effect on their ability to ingratiate to achieve higher promotability ratings (i.e., second-stage moderation). In support of this argument, the following is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 6(a): At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the first-stage moderation.

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Hypothesis 6(b): At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the second-stage moderation.

3.5. Summary

To address the three research gaps identified in Chapter 2, the proposed model depicted in Figure 1.1 (see Chapter 1, p. 6) has been developed, which attempts to determine how relevant boundary conditions, such as OBSE and political skill, may affect (a) one's conscious decision to ingratiate and (b) one's efficacy to ingratiate successfully. First, this thesis incorporates the functional approach to motivation to account for how ingratiation may serve as a mediating mechanism. Accordingly, this thesis identifies two career-related psychological needs, namely need for achievement and need for power, underlying the performance of ingratiation based on the outcome achieved by engaging in the behaviour. In this case the outcome is determined by promotability. Second, this thesis incorporates SCT to identify two relevant boundary conditions, notably OBSE and political skill, in the relationships between the two career-related psychological needs, ingratiation and promotability. Third, by cognitive consistency theory and social influence theory, this thesis attempts to examine how the two boundary conditions operationalised by SCT may contribute to the effectiveness of ingratiatory tactics being exercised to enhance promotability.

As depicted in Figure 1.1 (see Chapter 1, p. 6), this thesis proposes and empirically tests a moderated-mediation model of ingratiation (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007). First, it tests the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b)) and need for power

(Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b)) in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Second it tests the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b)) and need for power (Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b)) in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Finally, it tests the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive impacts of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (Hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b)) and need for power (Hypotheses 6(a) and 6(b)) in predicting promotability through ingratiation.

CHAPTER 4 – STUDY 1

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses Study 1 and consists of four main sections: (a) the purpose and scope of the study; (b) the method which describes the characteristics of the participants involved, the main procedures undertaken in developing questionnaire surveys, the data collection process, and the scale items used to measure the constructs examined; (c) the empirical results obtained from using different data analytical techniques; and (d) the general discussion of the results.

4.2. Purpose and Scope of Study 1

As discussed in the previous two chapters, past research has disproportionately focused on examining, predominantly separately, main effect associations between antecedents and ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004), and ingratiation and consequences (Wayne & Liden, 1995), despite evidence of inconclusive findings. To address these research gaps, Study 1 proposes an integrative model that concurrently examines an antecedent and an outcome of ingratiation by addressing ingratiation as an intermediary mechanism that enables career-motivated employees to enhance their promotability. In addition, it also identifies a relevant boundary condition that may affect the antecedent – ingratiation – outcome relationship. Using dyadic data sources (i.e., subordinates and supervisors), Study 1 attempts to test a portion of the proposed research model depicted in Figure 1 (see Chapter 1, p. 6). Specifically, this study examines the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation –

thereby representing Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) as depicted in Figure 1.2 (see Chapter 1, p. 8) and as developed in Chapter 3.

This study incorporates the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993) to account for how ingratiation may serve as an intermediary mechanism that links one's need for achievement to one's promotability. This perspective argues that people perform a particular behaviour in order to fulfill their personal needs through the achievement of desired outcomes (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Accordingly, Study 1 argues that employees may engage in ingratiation in order to fulfill their need for achievement as a result of having achieved higher promotability ratings.

However, due to the inconclusive empirical findings concerning how individual characteristics may be predicting ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004) and how ingratiation may be predicting career-related outcomes (Ayree et al., 1996; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), this study further attempts to identify a relevant boundary condition that helps explain inconsistent findings. According to the self-regulatory capability posited by SCT, people set specific standards and evaluate the discrepancy between the desired standard set (e.g., determined by need for achievement) and the actual performance (e.g., determined by actual achievement made) (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). If no discrepancy between the desired standard and the actual performance is being experienced, individuals will set a higher standard and identify strategies to achieve it. Hence, at the first-stage moderation, this study argues that when achievement-driven employees experience high levels of OBSE as a result of having fulfilled their achievement need through organisational roles they serve, they may engage in ingratiation in an attempt to enhance their promotability ratings. In support of this reasoning, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1(a): At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

At the second-stage moderation of OBSE, Study 1 further incorporates cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) as an additional theory to explain how the boundary condition operationalised by SCT may contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. Accordingly, due to their high levels of self-perceived competence and ability, the self-concept that achievement- or power-driven employees with high OBSE have of themselves will also be reflected in their exercise of ingratiatory behaviours in an attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings from their supervisor. In contrast, despite their high levels of need for achievement or need for power, if they display low levels of OBSE, employees tend to evaluate themselves as an incompetent organisational member. Subsequently, their lack of self-perceived competence is likely reflected in their inconsistent effort of ingratiation, which would negatively affect the extent to which ingratiatory tactics will lead to higher promotability. In support of this reasoning, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1(b): At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.

4.3. Method

4.3.1. Participants. 120 independent matched subordinate-supervisor dyads participated in this study. MBA students, all of whom are full-time employees coming from various

industries (e.g., automotive, electronic, furniture, food, chemical, IT, finance and consulting industries), were initially recruited from a large private university in Bangkok, Thailand. The MBA students who participated were then advised to facilitate collecting data from their immediate supervisors. Accordingly, the total sample initially consisted of 240 participants, who were further grouped into 120 subordinates and 120 supervisors – thereby representing 120 independent matched subordinate–supervisor dyads. Among the student participants, the average tenure was approximately 3 years, 92.1% of them were young adults (i.e., in the range of ages between below 25 and 35) and 69.7% of them were females. Among the supervisor participants, the average tenure was approximately 10 years, 65.1% of them were adults (i.e., in the range of ages between 36 and 65) and 54% of them were females.

4.3.2. Procedure. Data collection was initiated by sending a letter to the head of the business school at the university. The letter provided information about the primary purpose of the study, the theoretical and practical contributions, and the procedure involved in conducting the study. Following the expression of interest by the head of school, a telephone interview was conducted to provide further details of the study, particularly in areas where the head of school needed further clarification. Finally a schedule was made for a formal meeting with other academic staffs at the business school.

The meeting with the head of school and other professors took place at the university one week after the telephone discussion. During the meeting, the researcher clearly addressed her interest in approaching MBA students, who were at the time full-time employees. To ensure their voluntary participation, an assurance was made to everyone regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of the participation from the business school and the participants' responses.

Given that some professors have expressed interest in this research topic, a report summarising key research findings and their theoretical and practical implications was also requested.

With the business school's consent to proceed with the survey, professors were instructed to pass on a survey kit, which included the student questionnaire and the supervisor questionnaire, to their students. The students were then requested to pass on the supervisor questionnaire, which was enclosed in a small envelope, to their immediate supervisors. The completed supervisor surveys were sealed in the envelope given and sent directly back to the designated subordinates. All completed surveys were returned to the designated professors in class.

4.3.3. Questionnaire. This study was conducted using a questionnaire survey, in which a cross-sectional design was adopted. To develop the questionnaire, several steps were undertaken. First, separate surveys were developed for subordinates and supervisors. Specifically, subordinates were asked to assess their need for achievement, their experience of OBSE and their perception towards their chances of getting promoted (i.e., promotability). Supervisors were asked to evaluate the ingratiatory behaviours of their subordinates. Second, given that English is not a native language of the Thai participants in this study, the translation and back-translation procedure was adopted. Hence, the questionnaire surveys initially developed in English were first to be translated into Thai and then back translated into English (Brislin, 1970). This is to ensure consistency across the original meaning and the translated meaning. Third, to ensure that the data coming from dyadic sources were correctly matched, a coding system was employed. For instance, responses coming from the subordinate coded 'A45' and the supervisor coded 'B45' were matched together. Finally, to ensure that the questions contained in the questionnaire asked are specific, concise and simple for the participants, a qualitative pre-test of the survey

instrument was conducted. The pre-test primarily involved interviews with 10 other MBA students coming from the same academic institution.

To encourage voluntary participation and enhance the response rate, each survey was accompanied by an information sheet (see Appendices A.1 and A.2), which was developed separately for MBA students and supervisors, and a consent form (see Appendix A.4). The information sheet contained relevant information about (a) the primary objectives of the study, (b) the nature of the study, (c) the confidentiality of participants' responses, (d) the anonymity of their identities, and (e) the voluntary nature of their participation. Out of the 120 student surveys and 120 supervisor surveys administered, 100 student surveys and 97 supervisor surveys were returned, representing response rates of 83% and 81%, respectively. After having dealt with mismatched dyads, missing values and outliers (i.e., detected using Mahalanobis Distance), a total of 89 matched subordinate–supervisor dyads comprised the final sample, representing a valid response rate of 74.17%.

4.3.4. Measures. Unless otherwise specified, the response format for the following scale items, excluding the control variables, was a 7-point Likert scale, which was used with strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7) as endpoints.

Need for achievement. Need for achievement was assessed using 4 items out of the full 5-item scale developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976). The exclusion of one of the items was due to a low factor loading, which has affected the reliability of the measure. Subordinates were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with statements such as "I do my best at work when my job assignments are fairly difficult," and "I try to perform better than my co-workers" (see

Appendix B.2 for the need for achievement items used in Study 1). The Cronbach's alpha was .77.

Ingratiation. Ingratiatory behaviours of subordinates were assessed using the ingratiation scale developed by Kumar and Beyerlein (1991). The scale consists of 6 items representing one's performance of other-enhancement, 7 items representing one's performance of opinion conformity, and 6 items representing one's performance of favour rendering. Supervisors were requested to evaluate ingratiatory behaviours of their subordinates by rating the extent to which they perceive their employees to engage in behaviours such as "exaggerates your admirable qualities to convey the impression that he/she thinks highly of you," "gives frequent smiles to express enthusiasm/interest about something you are interested in even if he/she does not like it," and "tries to do things for you that shows his/her self-less genenerosity" (see Appendix B.3 for all ingratiation items). These items were rated along the 7-point Likert scale, which was used with not at all (1) and to a very large extent (7) as endpoints. The Cronbach's alpha was .93.

Organisation-based self-esteem. OBSE was assessed using the 10-item scale developed by Pierce, Gardner, Cummings and Dunham (1989). Subordinates were also asked to rate the extent to which they agree with statements such as "I count around here," "I am important," "There is faith in me," "I can make a difference," and "I am helpful" (see Appendix B.4 for all OBSE items) The Cronbach's alpha was .89.

Promotability. Promotability was assessed using the 4-item scale developed by Wayne, Liden, Graf and Ferris (1997). Subordinates were asked to rate the extent to which they believe they will be promoted to a higher position based on statements such as "If my supervisor has to select a successor for his/her position, it would be me," and "I will probably be promoted to a

higher-level position in this organization" (see Appendix B.5 for all promotability items). The Cronbach alpha was .80.

Control variables. Certain demographic characteristics of individuals may have confounding impacts upon career-related outcomes. Past research has shown organisational tenure to empirically affect promotions, and thus it has also been used as a control variable in studies of career advancement (Bowman, 1964). Gender is one of the individual characteristics that has been found to affect promotability (Stewart & Gudykunst, 1982). More specifically, empirical evidence has shown that females tend to receive fewer promotions than males (Olson & Becker, 1983). In addition, age may also impact on promotability as it implicitly implies work experience. Hence, age, gender and tenure of both subordinates and supervisors were controlled in this study (see Appendix B.1 for demographic questions).

4.4. Results

4.4.1. Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and bivariate correlations. The descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations), inter-correlations and reliability coefficients (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) are presented in Table 4.1 (see p.84). All major variables tested exhibit acceptable reliabilities with their Cronbach alphas being above 0.75. An inspection of the correlations shows some interesting findings that relate to Hypothesis 1. First, ingratiation was not found to be significantly associated with promotability ($r = 0.14$, *ns*). This is consistent with the argument made during hypotheses development. Specifically, this thesis argues that it is not the frequency of the use of ingratiation that contributes to positive outcomes but rather how effectively ingratiation is being exercised. This finding also suggests that the direct association may be moderated by relevant boundary conditions. Second, OBSE was found to be significantly

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and positively correlated with promotability ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.01$). This result implicitly suggests that OBSE may pose some moderating impacts on how ingratiation can influence promotability.

4.4.2. Measurement model. Prior to testing moderated mediation hypotheses, confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted using AMOS 19 to examine the distinctiveness of the multi-item variables. Once it has been assured that the measurement model is operating adequately, one can then have more confidence in the empirical findings obtained from the assessment of the hypothesised model (Byrne, 2010). Given the small sample size relative to the number of parameters to be modeled, item parcels were created as a method to improve the ratio of N relative to the parameter estimates (Little, Cunningham, Shahar & Widaman, 2002). An item parcel, as defined by Little and colleagues (2002), refers to "an aggregate-level indicator comprised of the sum (or average) of two or more items, responses, or behaviors" (p.152). Ingratiation was parceled, except need for achievement, OBSE and promotability. In parceling out ingratiation, this study adopted an internal-consistency approach (Kishton & Widaman, 1994) by creating parcels that use facets as the grouping criteria. Accordingly, three parcels of ingratiation were created according to the three ingratiatory tactics: other-enhancement; opinion conformity; and favour rendering.

The next step involves assessing the model fit. To assess a model fit, several statistics were computed: (a) a chi-square p value; (b) confirmatory fit index (CFI); (c) Tucker Lewis index (TLI); and (d) root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA). These fit indices are among the most commonly used indices and have been widely recommended by other researchers (e.g., Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). First, it is suggested that a chi-square p value should be greater than .05. Second, it is suggested that CFI and TLI indices should be used in conjunction with one another. Accordingly, both of their cut-off values should be close to .95

(Hu & Bentler, 1999). Finally, Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggested that the RMSEA values that fall below .05 are considered as a good fit, whereas those values that go above .08 should be considered reasonable errors of approximation in the population. Given these, the measurement model of Study 1 did not receive a good fit with observed data, χ^2 (183, N = 89) = 450.37, p < .001, CFI = .76, TLI = .73, and RMSEA = .13. The standardised path estimates of the manifest indicators were all statistically significant, with coefficient values ranging between .43 and .93.

This study further examined the distinctiveness of the multi-item variables and empirically demonstrated that the hypothesised model is superior to plausible alternative models (Holmes-Smith, 2010). Model 1 combined all constructs examined into one factor (i.e., need for achievement, OBSE, ingratiation and promotability into Factor 1), χ^2 (189, N = 89) = 706.68, p < .001, CFI = .54, TLI = .49, and RMSEA = .17. Model 2 combined constructs based on sources of measurement (i.e., need for achievement, OBSE and promotability into Factor 1 and ingratiation into Factor 2), χ^2 (188, N = 89) = 601.54, p < .001, CFI = .63, TLI = .59, and RMSEA = .15. Model 1 versus Model 2 received χ^2diff (1) = 105.14, p < .001. Model 3 combined need for achievement and OBSE into Factor 1, ingratiation into Factor 2, and promotability into Factor 3, χ^2 (186, N = 89) = 527.96, p < .001, CFI = .70, TLI = .66, and RMSEA = .14. Model 2 versus Model 3 received χ^2diff (3) = 73.58, p < .001. Results of the chi-square difference test between the hypothesised measurement model (four-factor model) and the three-factor Model 3 suggested that the former had the best fit; final measurement model versus Model 3 received χ^2diff (3) = 77.59, p < .001.

Table 4.1: Means, standard deviations, reliability, and bivariate correlations among variables studied (Study 1)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age (Subordinate)	1.94	.51										
2. Gender (Subordinate)	1.70	.46	-.22*									
3. Tenure (Subordinate)	3.42	2.65	.55**	-.34**								
4. Age (Supervisor)	2.85	.87	.21*	-.17	.05							
5. Gender (Supervisor)	1.54	.50	-.28**	.27**	-.17	-.16						
6. Tenure (Supervisor)	9.91	7.08	-.004	-.11	.02	.54**	-.07					
7. Need for achievement	5.71	.76	-.02	-.06	-.05	-.13	-.02	-.02	(.77)			
8. Organisation-based self-esteem	5.07	.66	-.003	-.16	-.09	-.08	.04	.09	.4**	(.89)		
9. Ingratiation	4.12	.99	.07	-.19	.1	.02	.11	.27*	-.21**	.05	(.93)	
10. Promotability	4.89	.96	-.03	-.04	-.08	.09	-..09	.31**	.20	.60**	.14	(.80)

Note:

1. N = 89

2. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed test)

4.4.3. Tests of moderated-mediation. To test Hypothesis 1, which depicts moderated-mediation patterns, this study estimated the sampling distribution of the conditional indirect effect through bootstrapping to generate confidence intervals (CIs). By using this approach, Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007) argued that no assumptions need to be made about the shape of the sampling distribution, and no particular formula for the SE is required. Given that bootstrapping can be applied as readily to the assessment of conditional indirect effects as in the case of unconditional indirect effects, the bootstrapping approach has been advocated by several researchers (Lockwood & MacKinnon, 1998; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002) as an alternative option to normal-theory tests of mediation.

Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007) developed an SPSS macro, which involves "a sequence of commands that define new functions the user can control to conduct custom analyses" (p. 207). This macro creates a command called MODMED. By using the MODMED command, the researcher was able to provide information about which variables to be estimated function as the independent variable, the mediator, the outcome, and the moderator consistent with the moderated-mediation patterns hypothesised. Preacher and colleagues' (2007) approach to moderated-mediation is recommended over the Moderated Causal Steps Approach of regression analysis (Muller, Judd and Yzerbyt, 2005), which was derived from the Baron and Kenny (1986) simple mediation approach, as their SPSS macro enables users to conduct bootstrapping and as well as to probe the significance of conditional indirect effects at different values of the moderating variables. Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) predict that the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger when OBSE is high but not when it is low either at the first-stage or second-stage moderation,

respectively. Table 4.2 demonstrates roughly how the syntaxes were created to test Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b).

Table 4.2: SPSS syntaxes for hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) (Study 1)

Hypothesis 1(a)	First-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation / mmodel = need for achievement OBSE.
Hypothesis 1(b)	Second-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation OBSE / mmodel = need for achievement.

Table 4.3 summarises the results obtained for Study 1. At the first-stage moderation of OBSE, results revealed that the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation was significant only at high levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.06, SE = 0.05, z = -1.17, 95% CI: -0.21 to -0.001), but not at low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.05, SE = 0.04, z = -1.25, 95% CI: -0.14 to 0.003). When the slope analysis was conducted, however, there was no significant association between need for achievement and ingratiation at either low levels of OBSE (β = .15, $t(89)$ = .10, ns.) or high levels of OBSE (β = -.40, $t(89)$ = -1.78, ns.). Hence, Hypothesis 1(a) received inconclusive findings.

At the second-stage moderation of OBSE, results showed that the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation was significant only at high levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -.08, SE = 0.05, z = -1.47, 95% CI: -0.20 to -0.01), but not at low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.03, SE = 0.05, z = -.08, 95% CI: -0.07 to 0.07). The

simple slope analysis shown in Figure 4.1 suggests that the effect of ingratiation on promotability was significant when OBSE was high (β = .26, $t(89)$ = 2.27, p < .05) but not when OBSE was low (β = -.13, $t(89)$ = -1.81, $ns.$). Hence, Hypothesis 1(b) received full empirical support.

Table 4.3: Regression results for conditional indirect effects of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation

	IE	SE	Z	CI
Hypothesis 1(a): First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	-0.05	0.04	-1.25	-0.14 to 0.003
Simple paths for high OBSE	-0.06	0.05	-1.17	-0.21 to -0.001
Hypothesis 1(b): Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	-.003	0.04	-.08	-0.07 to 0.07
Simple paths for high OBSE	-0.08	0.05	-1.47	-0.20 to -0.01

Figure 4.1: The interactive effect between ingratiation and organisation-based self-esteem in predicting promotability

4.5. Discussion of Results
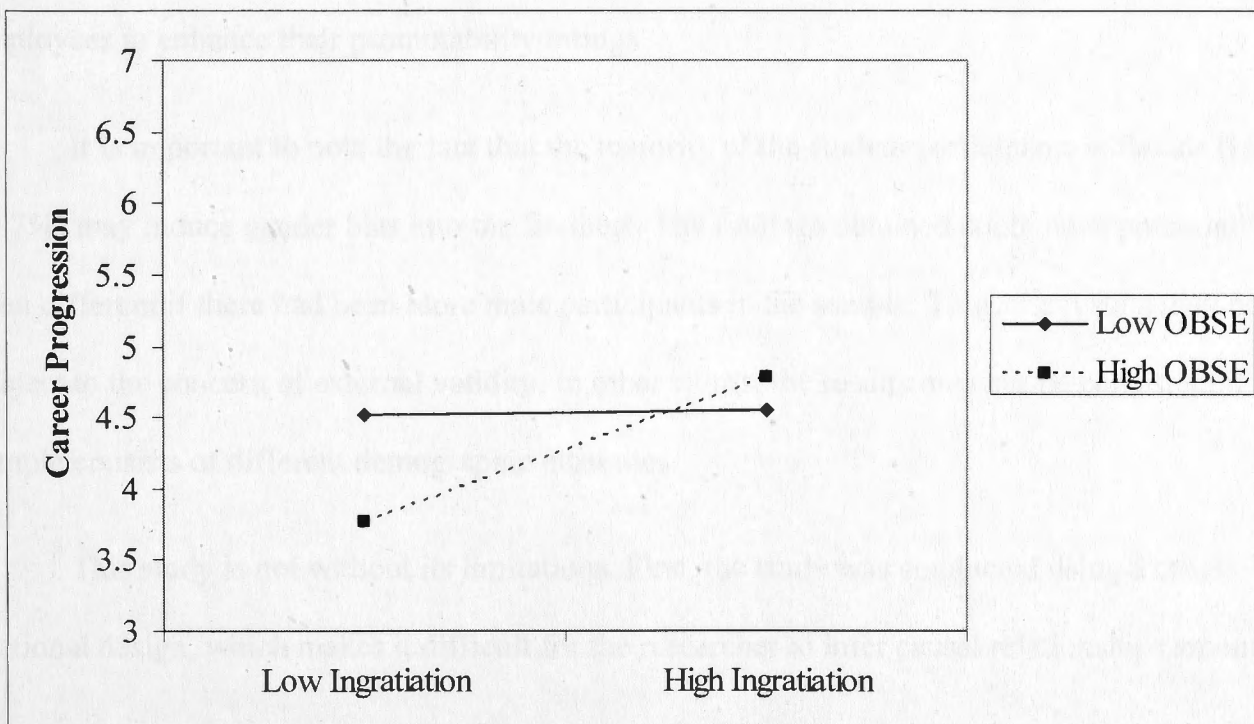
The purpose of Study 1 is to test the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation. The overall results revealed that the conditional direct effect became significant only when OBSE was high either at the first-stage or the second-stage moderation, which is consistent with what was initially hypothesised. These results suggest that OBSE is a relevant boundary condition at (a) the first-stage moderation that helps explain why achievement-driven employees would consciously decide to engage in ingratiation, (b) and at the second-stage moderation that helps explain why their ingratiation efforts are likely to be successful in achieving higher promotability ratings. Specifically, it is argued that to the extent that achievement-driven employees view their organisation as a need-satisfying agency that enables them to fulfill their achievement need as a result of having achieved higher promotability ratings, and that they display their confidence in their performance of ingratiatory behaviours, ingratiation would serve as an intermediary mechanism that enables achievement-driven employees to enhance their promotability ratings.

It is important to note the fact that the majority of the student participants is female (i.e., 69.7%) may induce gender bias into the findings. The findings obtained could have potentially been different if there had been more male participants in the sample. Thus, the results may be subject to the concern of external validity. In other words, the results may not be consistent if the sample consists of different demographic attributes.

This study is not without its limitations. First, the study was conducted using a cross-sectional design, which makes it difficult for the researcher to infer causal relationships among

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need for achievement, ingratiation and promotability. Second, the study was developed specifically in the cultural context of Thailand. Thus, it is important to test the generalisability of these results in other contexts. Third, promotability was determined solely by subjective promotability ratings assessed by subordinates themselves. The responses obtained from such self-reports may be contaminated by social desirability. Hence, in addition to promotability ratings, other more objective measures can be used to determine one's career advancement, such as actual number of promotions and salary increases. Finally, although a supervisor-rated measure of ingratiation was used in order to deal with common method bias and also to determine the extent to which employees' engagement in ingratiation can be interpreted by their supervisors, there are certain aspects of employees' engagement in ingratiation that are personal to ingratiators themselves, such as "even if he/she does not like it" (see Appendix B.3 for ingratiation items). Thus, this aspect of employees' engagement in ingratiation may not be detected by supervisors. To address this limitation, a comparison can be made between the two sources (i.e., subordinates versus supervisors) to determine differential interpretations of ingratiatory behaviours.

4.6. Summary

Study 1 was designed to examine the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation – thereby representing Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) developed in Chapter 2. This chapter has mainly discussed the key steps involved in conducting the study, including the sample, data collection and data analytical techniques, and the empirical results obtained. A brief discussion of the results has also been provided to discuss the extent to which Hypothesis 1(a) and Hypothesis 1(b) were supported by the empirical findings.

CHAPTER 5 – STUDY 2

5.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses Study 2 and consists of four main sections: (a) the purpose and scope of the second study; (b) the method, which describes the characteristics of the participants involved, the main procedures undertaken in developing questionnaire surveys, the data collection process, and the scale items used to measure the constructs examined; (c) the empirical results obtained; and (d) the general discussion of the results.

5.2. Purpose and Scope of Study 2

Study 2 aims to extend Study 1 in three important ways. First, it aims to replicate the results in Study 1 using a unique triadic data set (i.e., independent matched subordinate–peer–supervisor triads). Doing so helps to address concerns regarding the generalisability of the results obtained in the previous study. Second, this study incorporates need for power as an additional antecedent and political skill as an additional boundary condition. Hence, Study 2 attempts to test the whole proposed research model depicted in Figure 1.1 (see Chapter 1, p. 7). Finally, this study further predicts how the interplay between OBSE and political skill may affect the conditional indirect effects of the two career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) in predicting promotability through ingratiation.

Accordingly, Study 2 proposes twelve moderated-mediation relationships. First, it predicts the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b)) in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Second, it predicts the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of political skill on

the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b)) on promotability through ingratiation. Finally, it further examines the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive effects of the two boundary conditions on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypotheses 6(a) and 6(b)) on promotability through ingratiation. Table 5.1 summarises all the twelve hypotheses tested in Study 2.

Table 5.1: Summary of hypotheses for Study 2

Hypothesis 1(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*
Hypothesis 1(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*
Hypothesis 2(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*
Hypothesis 2(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*

Table 5.1: Summary of hypotheses for Study 2 (continued)

Hypothesis 3(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.*
Hypothesis 3(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.*
Hypothesis 4(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.*
Hypothesis 4(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill.*
Hypothesis 5(a)	*At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the first-stage moderation.*
Hypothesis 5(b)	*At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the second-stage moderation.*

Table 5.1: Summary of hypotheses for study 2 (continued)

Hypothesis 6(a)	*At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the first-stage moderation.*
Hypothesis 6(b)	*At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the second-stage moderation.*

5.3. Method

5.3.1. Participants. Study 2 employed full-time employees coming from nine different organisations in Thailand, and from various industries such as banking, furniture, hospitality and education. By combining the nine organisations into one sample, this enabled the researcher to get access to an adequate sample size for the analysis of the subordinate–peer–supervisor triads. The sample initially consisted of altogether 600 participants, which consisted of 200 subordinates, 200 peers and 200 supervisors – thereby representing independent matched 200 subordinate–peer–supervisor triads. Among the subordinate participants, the average tenure was approximately 6.5 years, 55% of them were young adults (i.e., in the range of ages between below 25 and 35) and 57% of them were females. Among the peer participants, the average tenure was approximately 6 years, 69% of them were young adults and 58% of them were females. Among the supervisor participants, the average tenure was approximately 10 years, 70% of them were adults (i.e., in the range of ages between 36 and 65) and 53% of them were males.

5.3.2. Procedure. Data collection was initiated by sending a letter to the managing director (MD) of each of the nine organisations. The information contained in the letter included the primary objectives of the study, the theoretical and practical contributions. The practical contributions of the study were particularly emphasised in order to entice attention from practitioners, and the procedure involved in conducting the study. Following the expression of interest by the MD from each company, nine telephone interviews were conducted with the MDs to provide further details of the study, particularly in areas where they needed further clarification. A schedule was later made for a formal meeting with the human resource (HR) department at their company.

The meetings were later held with the MD and the HR department from the nine organisations. During the meeting, the researcher clearly addressed her interest to gain participation from their employees and how the help of the HR department could contribute to the study. To enhance their voluntary participation, an assurance was made to everyone regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of their organisation's involvement and their employees' responses. Given that two of the nine participating organisations have shown interest in the practical implications provided by this research, a report summarising key research findings and its practical implications was requested

In every organisation, self-reported surveys were administered by the HR department. The HR department was instructed to pass on a survey kit, which included the subordinate questionnaire, the peer questionnaire and the supervisor questionnaire, to supervisory level participants. The supervisors were then requested to pass on a smaller packet contained in the survey kit given, which consisted of the subordinate questionnaire and peer questionnaire, to their immediate subordinate. Selected subordinates were then advised to nominate a peer with

whom they had regular interactions at work and to pass on a small envelope contained in the packet given, which consisted of the peer questionnaire, to the designated peer. All participants were instructed to put their completed survey back in the packet given to each individual, and to return it directly back to the HR department.

5.3.3. Questionnaire. Similar to the previous study, Study 2 was conducted using a questionnaire survey, in which a cross-sectional design was adopted. Several similar steps to Study 1 were also undertaken in this study when developing the questionnaire. First, separate questionnaire surveys were developed for subordinates, peers and supervisors. Specifically, subordinates were instructed to assess themselves on need for achievement, need for power, OBSE and political skill. Peers were asked to evaluate the ingratiatory behaviours of the colleague who had given them the survey. Supervisors were asked to rate their subordinate's promotability, which was determined by their likeliness to be promoted. Second, the translation and back-translation process was also conducted to develop a Thai-version survey for Thai participants, whose English is not their native language. Third, to ensure that the data coming from triadic sources were correctly matched, a coding system was adopted. For example, responses coming from the subordinate coded 'A50', the peer coded 'B50' and the supervisor coded 'C50' were matched together. Finally, the researcher also conducted a qualitative pre-test, which involved interviews with two randomly selected employees from each of the nine organisations – thereby representing 18 interviews altogether. The interviews mainly involved the discussion on how the questions contained in the questionnaire could be improved to make them more specific, concise and simple for the participants.

Similar to Study 1, each questionnaire survey was accompanied by an information sheet (see Appendix A.3) and a consent form (see Appendix A.4). The information sheet contained

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information about (a) the purpose of the study, (b) the nature of the study, (c) the confidentiality of participants' responses, (d) the anonymity of participants' identities, and (e) the voluntary nature of their participation. Out of the 600 surveys administered (200 for subordinates, 200 for peers and 200 for supervisors), 519 completed surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 86.5%. More specifically, 173 surveys were retrieved from subordinates (i.e., a response rate of 86.5%), 180 were retrieved from peers (i.e., a response rate of 90%) and 166 were retrieved from supervisors (i.e., a response rate of 83%). After having dealt with mismatched triads and cases with outliers (i.e., detected using Mahalanobis Distance), 150 matched subordinate-peer-supervisor triads remained, representing a valid response rate of 75%.

5.3.4. Measures. Unless otherwise specified, the response format for the following scale items, excluding the control variables, was a 7-point Likert scale which was used with *strongly disagree* (1) and *strongly agree* (7) as endpoints.

Need for achievement. Similarly to Study 1, subordinates were asked to assess their levels of need for achievement (see Appendix C.2 for all need for achievement items) using the 5-item scale developed by Steers & Braunstein (1976). The Cronbach's alpha was .73 in this study.

Need for power. Need for power was assessed using the 5-item scale developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976). Subordinates were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with statements such as "I seek an active role in the leadership of a group," "I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work," and "I try to influence those around me" (see Appendix C.3 for all need for power items). The Cronbach's alpha was .81.

Ingratiation. As in Study 1, ingratiation was assessed using the ingratiation scale developed by Kumar and Beyerlein (1991), 6 items of which were developed to rate one's

performance of other-enhancement, 7 items to rate one's performance of opinion conformity, and 6 items to rate one's performance of favour rendering. In this study, peers were requested to evaluate ingratiatory behaviours of their colleagues by rating the extent to which they perceive their colleagues to engage in behaviours such as "exaggerates the supervisor's admirable qualities to convey the impression that he/she thinks highly of the supervisor," "gives frequent smiles to express enthusiasm/interest about something the supervisor is interested even if he/she does not like it," and "tries to do things for the supervisor that shows his/her self-less genenerosity" (see Appendix C.4 for all ingratiation items). These items were rated along the seven-point Likert scale, which was used with *not at all* (1) and *to a very large extent* (7) as endpoints. The Cronbach's alpha was .94.

Organisation-based self-esteem. As in Study 1, subordinates were asked to rate themselves on their levels of OBSE (see Appendix C.5 for all OBSE items) using the 10-item scale developed by Pierce and colleagues (1989). Cronbach's alpha was .92 in this study.

Political skill. Political skill was assessed using the 18-item scale developed by Ferris, Davidson and Perrewe (2005). Given the constraints imposed by the participating organisations, 11 out of 18 items were selected based on the highest factor loadings. Subordinates were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with statements such as "I spend a lot of time and effort at work working with others," "It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do," "I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others," and "It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people" (see Appendix C.6 for all political skill items). The Cronbach's alpha was .86.

Promotability. As in Study 1, promotability was measured using the 4-item scale developed by Wayne and colleagues (1997). In this study, supervisors were asked to rate their subordinates' likeliness to be promoted (see Appendix C.7 for all promotability items). Cronbach's alpha was .94 in this study.

Control variables. Similar to Study 1, age, gender and tenure of all the participants were controlled (see Appendix C.1 for demographic questions).

5.4. Results

5.4.1. Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and bivariate correlations. The descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations), inter-correlations and reliability coefficients (i.e., Cronbach's alphas) are presented in Table 5.2. All of the constructs examined in this study exhibited acceptable reliabilities with their alphas being above 0.70. A close inspection of the correlations also showed some findings that are relevant to hypotheses development and similar to what was found in Study 1. Specifically, there was no significant relationship found between ingratiation and promotability ($r = 0.14$, *ns*). This finding suggests that it is not the frequency of the use of ingratiation that enhances promotability ratings but rather how effectively the ingratiatory tactics are being exercised in order to achieve higher promotability. In this case the study argued it to be contingent on one's levels of OBSE and political skill.

Table 5.2: Means, standard deviations, reliability, and bivariate correlations among variables studied (Study 2)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Age (Subordinate)	2.46	.74															
2. Gender (Subordinate)	1.57	.50	-.80														
3. Tenure (Subordinate)	6.54	5.83	.56**	.03													
4. Age (Peer)	2.25	.87	.33**	-.16	.38**												
5. Gender (Peer)	1.58	.50	-.20	.58**	0	-.07											
6. Tenure (Peer)	9.64	6.74	.31**	.01	.52**	.68**	-.06										
7. Age (Supervisor)	2.91	.73	.27**	.06	.26**	.36**	.02	.40**									
8. Gender (Supervisor)	1.47	.5	.08	.55**	.03	-.20	.48**	.08	.09								
9. Tenure (Supervisor)	9.64	6.74	.20*	.17*	.44**	-.28**	.06	.44**	.53**	.20*							
10. Need for Power	4.38	1.07	-.17	-.13	-.20*	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.02**	-.22**	-.24**	(.81)					
11. Need for Achievement	5.72	.80	-.09	-.10	-.13	-.07	-.08	.01	-.06	-.25**	-.02	.44**	(.73)				
12. Organisation-Based Self-Esteem	5.02	.86	.08	-.12	.05	.13	-.15	.05	-.18	-.13	-.04	.44**	.52**	(.92)			
13. Ingratiation	4.23	1.09	-.13	-.02	-.05	.10	.04	.09	0	-.11	-.03	.21*	.11*	.09	(.94)		
14. Political Skill	5.27	.73	-.04	-.11	-.15	-.11	-.15	-.09	.01	-.16*	-.06	.54**	.56**	.67**	.02	(.86)	
15. Promotability	5.22	1.21	-.18	-.09	-.15	-.05	-.11	-.04	-.02	-.12	-.09	.13	.14	.06	.14	.11	(.94)

Note:

1. N = 150

2. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed test)

5.4.2. Measurement model. Consistent to Study 1, CFAs were conducted prior to testing

moderated mediation hypotheses. First, item parcels were created to improve the ratio of N

relative to the parameter estimates (Little et al., 2002). In parceling out OBSE, an item-to-

construct balance approach was adopted to combine items with the highest and lowest factor

loadings, followed by items with the next highest and lowest loadings. In parceling out

ingratiation and political skill, an internal-consistency approach (Kishton & Widaman, 1994)

was adopted to create parcels that use facets as the grouping criteria. For example, four facets of

political skill were created based on the four dimensions of political skill: social astuteness;

networking ability; apparent sincerity; and interpersonal influence.

To examine the model fit, various fit statistics were computed: (a) a chi-square p value;

(b) confirmatory fit index (CFI); (c) Tucker Lewis index (TLI); and (d) root-mean-square-error

of approximation (RMSEA). Given these, the hypothesised measurement model of Study 2

received a good fit with observed data, χ^2 (237, N = 150) = 362.51, $p < .001$, CFI = .94, TLI =

.93, and RMSEA = .06. The standardised path estimates of the manifest indicators were all

statistically significant, with coefficient values ranging between .70 and .97.

The final step involved examining the distinctiveness of the multi-item variables and

empirically demonstrating that the hypothesised model was superior to plausible alternative

models (Holmes-Smith, 2010). Model 1 combined all constructs into one factor (i.e., need for

achievement, need for power, OBSE, political skill, ingratiation and promotability into Factor 1),

χ^2 (252, N = 150) = 1403.88, $p < .001$, CFI = .46, TLI = .41, and RMSEA = .18. Model 2

combined need for achievement, need for power and OBSE into Factor 1, ingratiation and

political skill into Factor 2, and promotability into Factor 3, χ^2 (249, N = 150) = 820.11, $p < .001$,

CFI = .73, TLI = .70, and RMSEA = .12. Model 1 versus Model 2 received χ^2diff (3) = 583.77, p

< .001. Model 3 combined constructs based on sources of measurement (i.e., need for achievement, need for power, OBSE and political skill into Factor 1, ingratiation into Factor 2 and promotability into Factor 3), χ^2 (249, N = 150) = 656.35, $p < .001$, CFI = .85, TLI = .83, and RMSEA = .08. Model 2 versus Model 3 received χ^2diff (0) = 163.76, $p < .001$. Model 4 combined need for achievement and need for power into Factor 1, OBSE and political skill into Factor 2, ingratiation into Factor 3, and promotability into Factor 4, χ^2 (246, N = 150) = 550.52, $p < .001$, CFI = .86, TLI = .84, and RMSEA = .09. Model 3 versus Model 4 received χ^2diff (3) = 105.83, $p < .001$. Model 5 combined need for achievement and need for power into Factor 1, political skill into Factor 2, OBSE into Factor 3, ingratiation into Factor 4, and promotability into Factor 5, χ^2 (242, N = 150) = 479.45, $p < .001$, CFI = .89, TLI = .87, and RMSEA = .08. Model 4 versus Model 5 received χ^2diff (4) = 71.07, $p < .001$. Results of the chi-square difference test between the hypothesised measurement model (six-factor model) and the five-factor Model 5 suggested that the former had the best fit; final measurement model versus Model 5 received χ^2diff (5) = 116.94, $p < .001$.

5.4.3. Tests of moderated-mediation. Similarly to Study 1, to test the hypothesised moderated-mediation patterns, Study 2 adopted Preacher, Rucker and Hayes' (2007) SPSS macro called MODMED to conduct bootstrapping and to probe the significance of conditional indirect effects at different values of the moderators examined. Table 5.3 demonstrates roughly how the syntaxes were created to test Hypotheses 1(a) to 4(b). Regarding Hypotheses 5(a) to 6(b), which predicted the interactive impacts of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of the two career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) on promotability through ingratiation, the syntaxes run for Hypotheses 1(a) to 4(b) were also run in this case with an additional attempt made to test the three-way interaction by selecting data cases

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based on high (i.e., 1SD below) versus low (i.e., 1SD above) levels of political skill using the

SPSS command.

Table 5.3: SPSS syntaxes for hypotheses 1 to 4

Hypothesis 1(a)	First-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation / mmodel = need for achievement OBSE.
Hypothesis 1(b)	Second-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation OBSE / mmodel = need for achievement.
Hypothesis 2(a)	First-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation / mmodel = need for power OBSE.
Hypothesis 2(b)	Second-Stage Moderation of OBSE
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation OBSE / mmodel = need for power.
Hypothesis 3(a)	First-Stage Moderation of Political Skill
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation / mmodel = need for achievement political skill.
Hypothesis 3(b)	Second-Stage Moderation of Political Skill
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel = ingratiation political skill / mmodel = need for achievement.

Table 5.3: SPSS syntaxes for hypotheses 1 to 4 (Continued)

Hypothesis 4(a)	First-Stage Moderation of Political Skill
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel =
	ingratiation / mmodel = need for power political skill.
Hypothesis 4(b)	Second-Stage Moderation of Political Skill
	modmed dv = promotability / med = ingratiation / dvmodel =
	ingratiation political skill / mmodel = need for power.

Table 5.4 summarises the empirical results obtained for the 12 hypotheses tested. Hypothesis 1(a) predicted that the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when OBSE is high as opposed to when it is low at the first-stage moderation. The results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.06, SE = 0.06, $z = 1.08$, 95% CI: -0.002 to 0.21, *ns.*) or low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.02, SE = 0.03, $z = -0.64$, 95% CI: -0.12 to 0.02, *ns.*). This is because the confidence intervals included zero. Hence, Hypothesis 1(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 1(b) predicted that the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when OBSE is high as opposed to when it is low at the second-stage moderation. The results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.05, SE = 0.06, $z = 0.81$, 95% CI: -0.06 to 0.2) or low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.02, SE = 0.03, $z = -0.62$, 95% CI: -0.1 to 0.02). Hence, Hypothesis 1(b) was not supported.

Table 5.4: Regression results for conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power on promotability through ingratiation

	IE	SE	Z	CI
Hypothesis 1(a) (Need for Achievement)				
First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	-0.02	0.03	-0.64	-0.12 to 0.02
Simple paths for high OBSE	0.06	0.06	1.08	-0.002 to 0.2
Hypothesis 1(b) (Need for Achievement)				
Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	-0.02	0.03	-0.62	-0.1 to 0.02
Simple paths for high OBSE	0.05	0.06	0.81	-0.06 to 0.2
Hypothesis 2(a) (Need for Power)				
First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	0.02	0.02	0.73	-0.01 to 0.1
Simple paths for high OBSE	0.02	0.03	0.77	-0.01 to 0.11
Hypothesis 2(b) (Need for Power)				
Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE	-0.03	0.03	-1.09	-0.11 to 0.003
Simple paths for high OBSE	0.08	0.05	1.6	0.004 to 0.24
Hypothesis 3(a) (Need for Achievement)				
First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low political skill	0.003	0.03	0.1	-0.04 to 0.07
Simple paths for high political skill	0.04	0.04	0.89	-0.01 to 0.16
Hypothesis 3(b) (Need for Achievement)				
Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low political skill	-0.01	0.02	-0.31	-0.07 to 0.01
Simple paths for high political skill	0.03	0.05	0.76	-0.03 to 0.16
Hypothesis 4(a) (Need for Power)				
First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low political skill	0.04	0.04	1.19	-0.001 to 0.13
Simple paths for high political skill	0.01	0.03	0.39	-0.03 to 0.09
Hypothesis 4(b) (Need for Power)				
Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low political skill	-0.01	0.03	-0.53	-0.07 to 0.02
Simple paths for high political skill	0.06	0.04	1.44	0.004 to 0.19

Table 5.4: Regression results for conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power on promotability through ingratiation (continued)
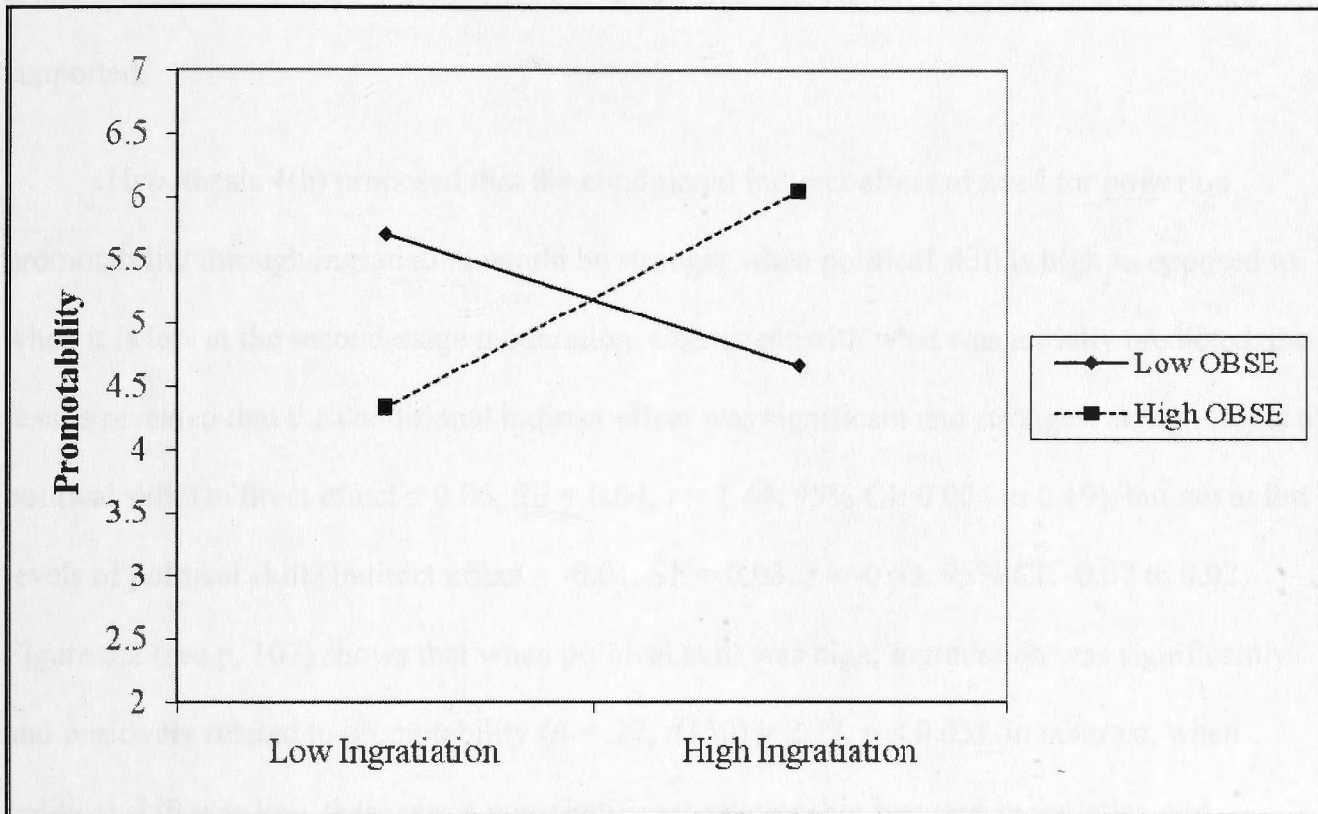
Hypothesis 5 (a) (Need for Achievement) First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE and low political skill	0.02	0.06	0.33	-0.06 to 0.22
Simple paths for low OBSE and high political skill	0.08	0.13	0.6	-0.1 to 0.55
Simple paths for high OBSE and low political skill	-0.001	0.04	-0.04	-0.1 to 0.07
Simple paths for high OBSE and high political skill	0.21	0.17	1.26	0.0002 to 0.74
Hypothesis 5(b) (Need for Achievement) Second-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE and low political skill	0.04	0.1	0.37	-0.14 to 0.29
Simple paths for low OBSE and high political skill	0.1	0.13	0.77	-0.05 to 0.45
Simple paths for high OBSE and low political skill	-0.03	0.07	-0.35	-0.24 to 0.08
Simple paths for high OBSE and high political skill	0.24	0.18	1.38	0.03 to 0.8
Hypothesis 6(a) (Need for Power) First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE and low political skill	-0.01	0.05	-0.29	-0.14 to 0.06
Simple paths for low OBSE and high political skill	0.01	0.06	0.14	-0.12 to 0.18
Simple paths for high OBSE and low political skill	-0.02	0.05	-0.3	-0.16 to 0.06
Simple paths for high OBSE and high political skill	0.03	0.08	0.38	-0.1 to 0.24
Hypothesis 6(b) (Need for Power) First-Stage Moderation				
Simple paths for low OBSE and low political skill	-0.17	0.1	-1.78	-0.38 to -0.02
Simple paths for low OBSE and high political skill	0.1	0.04	0.32	-0.04 to 0.18
Simple paths for high OBSE and low political skill	0.12	0.08	1.6	0.02 to 0.31
Simple paths for high OBSE and high political skill	0.04	0.04	0.44	-0.12 to 0.31

Hypothesis 2(a) predicted that at the first-stage moderation of OBSE the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when OBSE is high as opposed to when it is low. The results showed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.02, SE = 0.03, z = 0.77, 95% CI: -0.01 to 0.11) or low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = 0.02, SE = 0.02, z = 0.73, 95% CI: -0.01 to 0.1). Thus, Hypothesis 2(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 2(b) predicted that at the second-stage moderation of OBSE the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when OBSE is high as opposed to when it is low. The results showed that the conditional indirect effect was significant and strongest at high levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = 0.08, SE = 0.05, z = 1.6, 95% CI: 0.004 to 0.24), but not at low levels of OBSE (Indirect effect = -0.03, SE = 0.03, z = -1.09, 95% CI: -0.11 to 0.003). These results are consistent with what was initially predicted. As shown in Figure 5.1 (see p. 105), when OBSE was high, ingratiation was significantly and positively associated with promotability (β = .37, $t(150)$ = 3.31, $p <$ 0.01). In contrast, when OBSE was low, there was a non-significant relationship between ingratiation and promotability (β = .003, $t(150)$ = 0.23, ns.). Thus, Hypothesis 2(b) was fully supported.

Hypothesis 3(a) predicted that at the first-stage moderation of political skill the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when political skill is high but not when it is low. Consistent with the initial prediction, the results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.04, SE = 0.04, z = 0.89, 95% CI: -0.01 to 0.16) or low levels of political skill (Indirect effect = 0.003, SE = 0.03, z = 0.1, 95% CI: -0.04 to 0.07). Thus, Hypothesis 3(a) did not receive empirical support.

Figure 5.1: The interactive effect between ingratiation and organisation-based self-esteem in predicting promotability

Hypothesis 3(b) predicted that at the second-stage moderation of political skill the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when political skill is high but not when it is low. The results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.03, SE = 0.05, $z = 0.76$, 95% CI: -0.03 to 0.16) or low levels of political skill (Indirect effect = -0.01, SE = 0.02, $z = -0.31$, 95% CI: -0.07 to 0.01). Thus, Hypothesis 3(b) did not receive empirical support.

Hypothesis 4(a) proposed that the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when political skill is high as opposed to when it is low at the first-stage moderation. Inconsistent with what was initially predicted, the

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results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at either high (Indirect effect = 0.01, SE = 0.03, z = 0.39, 95% CI: -0.03 to 0.09) or low levels of political skill (Indirect effect = 0.04, SE = 0.04, z = 1.19, 95% CI: -0.001 to 0.13). Hence, Hypothesis 4(a) was not supported.
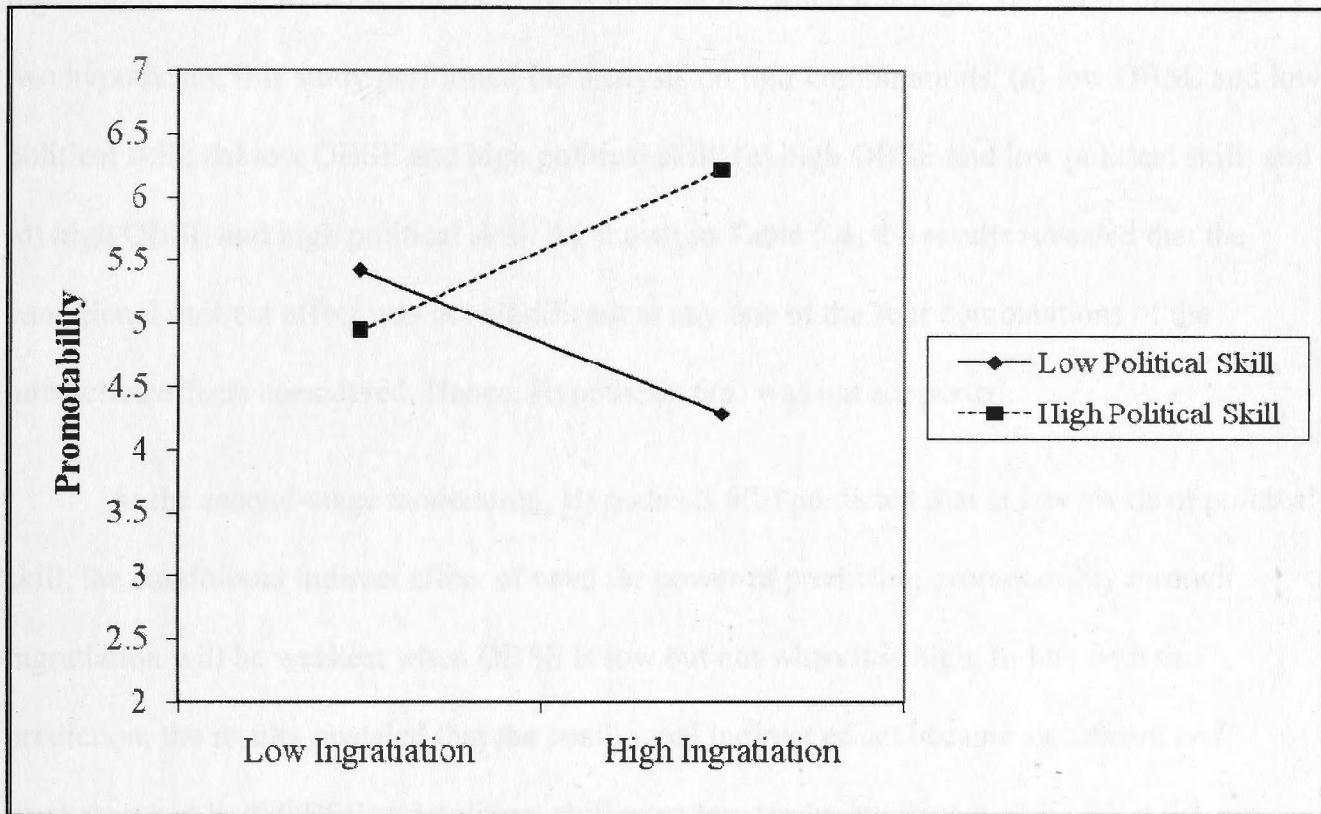
Hypothesis 4(b) proposed that the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation would be stronger when political skill is high as opposed to when it is low at the second-stage moderation. Consistent with what was initially predicted, the results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was significant and strongest at high levels of political skill (Indirect effect = 0.06, SE = 0.04, z = 1.44, 95% CI: 0.004 to 0.19), but not at low levels of political skill (Indirect effect = -0.01, SE = 0.03, z = -0.53, 95% CI: -0.07 to 0.02). Figure 5.2 (see p. 107) shows that when political skill was high, ingratiation was significantly and positively related to promotability (β = .27, t(150) = 2.22, p < 0.05). In contrast, when political skill was low, there was a non-significant relationship between ingratiation and promotability (β = .21, t(150) = 1.57, ns.). Hence, Hypothesis 4(b) was fully supported.

At the first-stage moderation, Hypothesis 5(a) proposed that at high levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be strongest when OBSE is high but not when it is low. To test these predictions, four combinations were examined: (a) low OBSE and low political skill; (b) low OBSE and high political skill; (c) high OBSE and low political skill; and (d) high OBSE and high political skill. As shown in Table 5.4, the hypothesis did not receive any significant results from any one of the four combinations. Hence, Hypothesis 5(a) was not supported.

Figure 5.2: The interactive effect between ingratiation and political skill in predicting promotability

At the second-stage moderation, Hypothesis 5(b) proposed that at high levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be strongest when OBSE is high but not when it is low. In line with what was initially predicted, the conditional indirect effect became statistically significant and strongest when both OBSE and political skill were high (Indirect effect = 0.24, SE = 0.18, z = 1.38, 95% CI: 0.03 to 0.8), but not for the other three combinations. However, when the simple slope analysis was conducted, the effect of ingratiation on promotability was not statistically significant under conditions of high political skill and high OBSE (β = 0.23, $t(150)$ = 1.15, $ns.$). Hence, Hypothesis 5(b) only received inconclusive findings.

At the first-stage moderation, Hypothesis 6(a) predicted that at low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be weakest when OBSE is low but not when it is high. Similar to the previous two hypotheses, this study performed the analysis on four combinations: (a) low OBSE and low political skill; (b) low OBSE and high political skill; (c) high OBSE and low political skill; and (d) high OBSE and high political skill. As shown in Table 5.4, the results revealed that the conditional indirect effect was not significant at any one of the four combinations of the interactive effects considered. Hence, Hypothesis 6(a) was not supported.
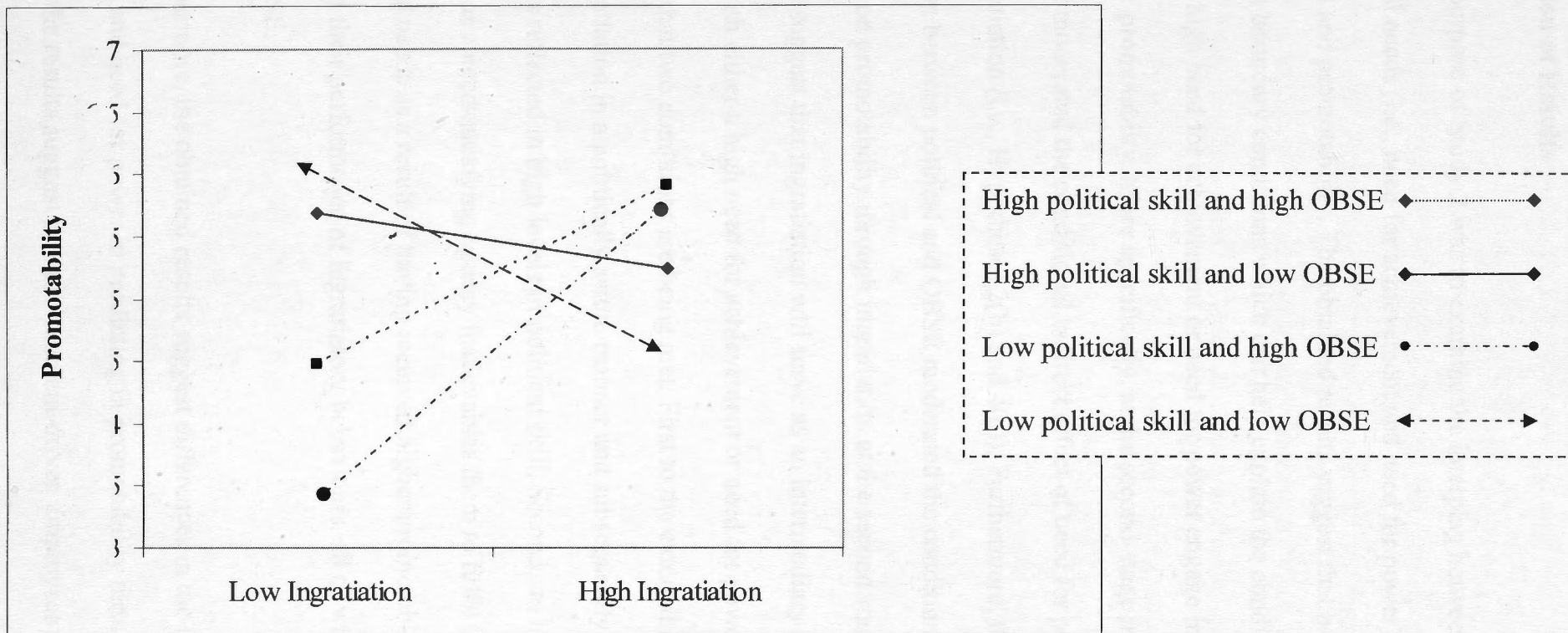
At the second-stage moderation, Hypothesis 6(b) predicted that at low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation will be weakest when OBSE is low but not when it is high. In line with this prediction, the results revealed that the conditional indirect effect became significant and weakest when both OBSE and political skill were low (Indirect effect = -0.17, SE = 0.1, z = -1.78, 95% CI: -0.38 to -0.02). Furthermore, the conditional indirect effect also became significant and strongest at high levels of OBSE and low levels of political skill (Indirect effect = 0.12, SE = 0.08, z = 1.6, 95% CI: 0.02 to 0.31). The conditional indirect effect was not significant not at the other two combinations. As shown in Figure 5.3 (see p.113), when the simple slope analysis was conducted the association between ingratiation and promotability was statistically significant under conditions of low OBSE and low political skill (β = -0.49, $t(150)$ = 5.33, $p < .01$), and also under conditions of high OBSE and low political skill (β = 0.56, $t(150)$ = 3.13, $p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 6(b) was fully supported.

Figure 5.3: The three-way interactions among ingratiation, political skill and organisation-based self-esteem in predicting promotability

5.5. Discussion of Results

The purpose of Study 2 was to examine the interplay between career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power), ingratiation, OBSE, political skill and promotability. The obtained results suggest that both OBSE and political skill are important boundary conditions which can help explain the conditions under which employees with either a high need for achievement or need for power engage in ingratiation as a means to enhance their promotabilty. More specifically, at the second-stage moderation, both OBSE and political skill moderated the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation (i.e., Hypotheses 2(b) and 4(b)). Furthermore, the results also revealed that the interaction between political and OBSE moderated the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation at the second stage (i.e., Hypothesis 5(b)). These results suggest that ingratiation will serve as an intermediary mechanism that enables employees with either a high need for achievement or need for power to enhance promotability to the extent that two conditions are being met. First to the extent that they believe they can exercise ingratiation in a politically astute manner and subsequently capitalise on their political skill, which is reflected in high levels of political skill. Second, to the extent that they view their organisation as a need-satisfying agency that enables them to fulfil their career-related psychological needs as a result of having received higher promotability ratings, and display their confidence in their performance of ingratiatory behaviours, all of which is reflected in high levels of OBSE.

Furthermore, the obtained results suggest differences in the effects of need for achievement and need for power in predicting in promotability through ingratiation. More specifically, the results suggest that achievement-driven employees may require more supporting

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conditions than power-driven employees to ingratiate successfully. As the results suggest, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation was found to be significant and strongest when either OBSE was high (i.e., Hypothesis 2(b)) or political skill was high at the second-stage moderation (i.e., Hypothesis 4(b)). However, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement was found to be significant and strongest only when both high levels of OBSE and political skill interacted at the second-stage moderation (i.e., Hypothesis 5(b)). Given that employees with a high need for power tend to find satisfaction from having exercised control and influence over their social environment (Jenkins, 1994), they are generally more inclined to engage in ingratiation, as opposed to those with a high need for achievement who generally find satisfaction from having accomplished challenging tasks (McClelland, 1962). Thus, power-driven employees are likely to have more experience than achievement-driven employees in exercising social influence, such as ingratiation. The experience that power-driven employees have in exercising social influence helps explain why they would require less supporting conditions than achievement-driven employees to enact ingratiation effectively in order to receive higher promotability ratings.

Likewise, the results revealed that the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation was significant and strongest when high OBSE interacted with low political skill at the second-stage moderation (i.e., Hypothesis 6(b)). These results can also be attributed to the theoretical argument made previously that power-driven employees are generally more inclined to exercise ingratiation as they may derive gratification from having influence over their supervisors (Jenkins, 1994). Hence, it is argued that to the extent that power-driven employees view their organisation as a need-satisfying agency that enables them to fulfil their power need through higher promotability ratings, which is reflected in their high levels of

OBSE, they should be inclined to go through with the ingratiation attempt without having to either hold the efficacy belief in their political skill or capitalise on their political skill to enact ingratiatory tactics effectively.

This study is not without its limitations, some of which are similar to Study 1. First, the study adopted a cross-sectional design to conduct questionnaire surveys. Second, given that the study was conducted in the cultural context of Thailand, it is important to take into consideration that the same phenomenon may not occur in other cultural contexts to a similar extent. Third, to assess one's career progression, only subjective ratings of subordinates' likeliness to be promoted were considered. Furthermore, the use of a peer-rated measure of ingratiation may be confounded with political skill, since peers would not be able to identify aspects such as "even if he/she does not like it" of their colleagues' ingratiation (see Appendix C.4 for ingratiation items). Thus, for those employees with high political skill, ingratiation may not appear as such and could only be properly identified through self-report. Although the major reason for using peer-rated ingratiation in this study was to address common method bias, this limitation can be better addressed if a comparison is made across the various sources (i.e., subordinates versus peers) of the interpretation of ingratiatory behaviours. Finally, although a self-rated measure of political skill was used at the first-stage moderation in order to determine the extent to which one will engage in ingratiation, the same self-rated measure may not be able to explain why ingratiation would lead to promotability (i.e., the second-stage moderation) in comparison to the supervisor's perception of the employee's political skill.

5.6. Summary

Study 2 was designed to test the moderated-mediation relationships depicted in the whole proposed model (see Chapter 1, p. 6). Specifically, this study tested the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of (a) OBSE, (b) political skill and (c) the interactive effects of both on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement and need for power on promotability through ingratiation. The chapter has discussed the main procedures involved in conducting the study, including the sample, data collection and data analyses. The empirical results obtained from the analyses were later presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 6 — DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the major findings, theoretical contributions, practical implications, and methodological strengths and limitations of this thesis. The empirical results obtained from both Study 1 and Study 2 are integrated and discussed in relation to the twelve moderated-mediation relationships hypothesised (see Table 6.1 for a summary of results). After having reviewed the results obtained and discussed the theoretical and practical implications, this chapter further discusses the strengths and limitations that lie in the methodologies of both studies. The chapter will conclude with a discussion that offers relevant avenues for future research.

6.2. Overall Discussion

Ingratiation, defined as "a set of assertive tactics which have the purpose of gaining the approbation of an audience that controls significant rewards for the actor" (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984, p. 37), has been identified as one of the most commonly used social influence tactics when examining employees in a structurally disadvantaged position (Mowday, 1978; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Westphal, 1998). For instance, ingratiation is often used by employees to gain the approval of their supervisors who have the positional power to determine career-related benefits for them, such as positive performance evaluations (Gordon, 1996), pay increases (Gould & Penley, 1984) and promotions (Thacker & Wayne, 1995), all of which result from their increased interpersonal attractiveness among their superiors. Indeed, past research has empirically shown that ingratiation leads to higher liking (Stevens & Kristof, 1995). As such,

ingratiation is generally regarded as a career influence tactic that enables career-motivated employees to obtain career-related benefits (King, 2004).

Although considerable research has been done on ingratiation, there are still research gaps that remain. First, it is generally agreed by researchers that ingratiation serves as a career influence tactic. However, very limited effort has been made to test ingratiation as an intermediary mechanism. This is because research has disproportionately focused on examining main effect associations, for instance, from antecedents to ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004) and from ingratiation to consequences (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Furthermore, research that examined main effect associations has been inconsistent at best (Ayree et al., 1996; Kacmar et al., 2004; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Two implications can be drawn out from these inconclusive findings. First, although employees with certain individual characteristics may be more predisposed than others to engage in ingratiation, their conscious decision to go through with the ingratiation attempt may be either strengthened or attenuated by relevant boundary conditions. Second, the extent to which ingratiation will translate into positive career-related outcomes may also be either strengthened or attenuated by relevant boundary conditions.

This thesis aimed to contribute to the literature on ingratiation in three important ways. First, it incorporated the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993) to account for how ingratiation may serve as an intermediary mechanism that enables career-motivated employees to progress in their careers. Based on the functional purpose served by ingratiation, which in this case promotability was determined, need for achievement (McClelland, 1953) and need for power (McClelland, 1975) were identified as predictors of ingratiation.

Second, this thesis incorporated social cognitive theory (SCT: Bandura, 1986) as an overarching perspective to identify some relevant boundary conditions that may affect one's conscious decision to engage in ingratiation in an attempt to enhance promotability. This helps ameliorate the inconclusive findings in the literature concerning how individual characteristics may be predicting ingratiation. The self-regulatory capability (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) posited by SCT suggests that achievement- or power-driven employees engage in ingratiation in an effort to become better affiliated with the organisation they view as a need-satisfying agency, which is indexed by high levels of organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE: Pierce et al., 1989). By doing so, they believe this would enable them to achieve a higher standard set, such as promotability. The self-reflective capability (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) posited by SCT further suggests that achievement- or power-driven employees may attempt ingratiation when they believe they are able to enact ingratiatory tactics in a politically astute manner, which is indexed by high levels of political skill (Ferris et al., 2005).

Finally, this thesis aimed to provide a better understanding of why certain ingratiation efforts are more successful than others in enhancing one's career prospects. By incorporating cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970) and social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), this thesis attempted to explain how OBSE and political skill may contribute to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised, respectively. Given that high OBSE employees evaluate and perceive themselves as a competent and capable organisational member, they will engage in behaviours and display attitudes that are consistent with their self-concept. Thus, their self-perceived competence should also be reflected in their proactive style of ingratiation. Likewise, politically skilled employees are better able to observe what their supervisors are thinking and understand how to influence their perceptions accordingly to enhance their promotability ratings.

Hence, this thesis took into consideration the fact that what contributes to positive outcomes is how effectively ingratiatory tactics are being exercised.

Accordingly, twelve moderated-mediation relationships were proposed and empirically tested. First, this thesis tested the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of OBSE on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypothesis 2(a) and 2(b)) in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Second, it tested the independent first-stage and second-stage moderating impacts of political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b)). Finally, it tested the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive impacts of OBSE and political skill on the conditional indirect effects of need for achievement (i.e., Hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b)) and need for power (i.e., Hypothesis 6(a) and 6(b)). To test these hypotheses, two studies were conducted. Study 1 was developed to test a portion of the whole research model proposed. Specifically, Study 1 tested Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) using dyadic data sources (i.e., independent matched subordinate–supervisor dyads). Study 2 extended the previous study by testing all the twelve hypotheses using triadic data sources (i.e., independent matched subordinate–peer–supervisor triads).

6.2.1. Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b). Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage moderation of OBSE, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation. As shown in Table 6.1, Study 1 provided initial support for Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b). The results in generally revealed that the conditional indirect effect became significant only when OBSE was high either at the first-stage or the second-stage moderation. Although the first-stage moderation of OBSE was only partially supported, which is due to the non-significant results in the slope analysis, the significant

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conditional indirect effect obtained still warrants further discussion. At the first-stage moderation, the obtained results suggest that achievement-driven employees would make a conscious decision to engage in ingratiation to the extent that they position their organisation as a need-satisfying agency that fulfils their achievement need through achieving higher promotability ratings. At the second-stage moderation of OBSE, the results further suggest that the extent to which their ingratiation efforts will translate into promotability is contingent on the style of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised, which is affected by the self-perceived competence and ability of high OBSE employees.

Using dyadic data sources (i.e., independent matched subordinate–supervisor dyads), Study 1 provided preliminary evidence for Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) and served as a foundation from which Study 2 extended by using a unique triadic data set. When the same hypothesised relationships were tested in Study 2, however, they did not receive any empirical support. As shown in Table 5.4 (see Chapter 5, p. 108), the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation was not found to be significant at either high or low levels of OBSE and at either the first-stage or the second-stage moderation. The discrepancy of the findings obtained across Study 1 and Study 2 can in part be attributed to the nature of the data sources being used. For instance, whereas ingratiatory behaviours of subordinates were rated by supervisors in Study 1, the same behaviours were rated by peers in Study 2. The interpretation of ingratiatory behaviours may vary depending upon the source that reports the behaviour (i.e., actor, target or observer) (Eastman, 1994). Furthermore, whereas in Study 1 promotability was rated by subordinates themselves, in Study 2 the same construct was assessed by supervisors, who play an important role in career progression decision. To this end,

it is important to take these differences into consideration when attempting to determine the discrepancy of the results across the two studies.

6.2.2. Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b). Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage moderation of OBSE, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation. Study 2 was conducted using triadic data sources (i.e., independent matched subordinate–peer–supervisor triads) to test the hypothesised relationships. As shown in Table 6.1, whereas Hypothesis 2(a) did not receive any empirical support, Hypothesis 2(b) was fully supported. The results revealed that the conditional indirect effect became significant and strongest only when OBSE was high at the second-stage moderation, but not at the first-stage moderation. These findings suggest that power-driven employees have the tendency to engage in ingratiation to some extent. People with a high need for power tend to find satisfaction from having exercised influence over their social environment (Jenkins, 1994), such as by engaging in ingratiation. However, the extent to which their ingratiation efforts will translate into promotability is rather contingent on the efficacy of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. This efficacy is being attributed to one's level of OBSE.

6.2.3. Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b). Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage moderation of political skill, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation. Study 2 was conducted to test the hypothesised relationships. As shown in Table 6.1, the hypothesised relationships did not receive any empirical support. The conditional indirect effect did not become significant either at high or low levels of political skill nor at either the first-stage or the second-stage moderation. Despite the lack of empirical support, these findings suggest that achievement-driven employees, in comparison to power-driven employees, may require more supporting conditions in order to

go through with the ingratiation attempt and to subsequently use ingratiation to enhance their promotability. Indeed, achievement-driven employees find satisfaction from having achieved desired outcomes that involve challenging tasks (Jenkins, 1987). Hence, they are less likely to adopt a 'short-cut' tactic, such as ingratiation, as a way to achieve their desired outcomes.

6.2.4. Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b). Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage moderation of political skill, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation. Study 2 was conducted to test the hypothesised relationships. As shown in Table 6.1, whereas Hypothesis 4(a) was not supported, Hypothesis 4(b) was fully supported. This is because the conditional indirect effect became significant and strongest only when political skill was high at the second-stage moderation, but not at the first-stage moderation. Similar to what was found from Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b), these findings can be attributed to the fact that power-driven employees are generally inclined to engage in ingratiation due to the satisfaction gained from having exercised social influence over other people. The findings further suggest that although power-driven employees are likely to engage in ingratiation, ingratiation will translate into positive career-related benefits only to the extent that the tactics are exercised in a politically astute manner. This is contingent on one's levels of political skill.

6.2.5. Hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b). Hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive impact of both OBSE and political skill, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Study 2 was also conducted to test the hypothesised relationship. As shown in Table 6.1, whereas Hypothesis 5(a) did not receive any empirical support, Hypothesis 5(b) was partially supported. The conditional indirect effect of need for achievement became significant

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only when both OBSE and political skill were at high levels at the second-stage moderation. Although when the slope analysis was conducted, the relationship between ingratiation and promotability was found to be non-significant, the significant results obtained from conducting bootstrapping are still worth mentioning. As mentioned before, achievement-driven employees are less prone to engage in ingratiation due to their strong drive to achieve success and excellence in accomplishing difficult and challenging tasks (McClelland, 1962). Hence, achievement-driven employees would require more supporting conditions to enact ingratiation successfully.

6.2.6. Hypotheses 6(a) and 6(b). Hypotheses 6(a) and 6(b) proposed the independent first-stage and second-stage interactive impact of both OBSE and political skill, respectively, on the conditional indirect effect of need for power in predicting promotability through ingratiation. Study 2 was conducted to test this hypothesised relationships. As shown in Table 6.1, whereas Hypothesis 6(a) was not supported, Hypothesis 6(b) received full empirical support. Accordingly, the conditional indirect effect of need for power was found to be significant and strongest only when OBSE was high and political skill was low at the second-stage moderation. As mentioned before, power-driven employees are generally inclined to engage in ingratiation due to the satisfaction they gain from having exercised social influence (Jenkins, 1994). Hence, power-driven employees would require less supporting conditions to enact ingratiatory tactics successfully. The results obtained suggest that to the extent that power-driven employees see themselves as being a competent organisational member, which is an indication of displaying high levels of OBSE, the self-concept that they have of themselves should also be reflected in their performance of ingratiatory behaviours.

Table 6.1: Summary of results of study 1 and study 2

Hypotheses	Hypothesised Relationships	Study 1	Study 2
Hypothesis 1(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	Partially supported	Not supported
Hypothesis 1(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	Fully supported	Not supported
Hypothesis 2(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 2(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Fully supported

Table 6.1: Summary of Results of Study 1 and Study 2 (Continued)

Hypotheses	Hypothesised Relationships	Study 1	Study 2
Hypothesis 3(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 3(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(a)	*At the first-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(b)	*At the second-stage moderation of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low organisation-based self-esteem.*	-	Fully supported

Table 6.1: Summary of Results of Study 1 and Study 2 (Continued)

Hypotheses	Hypothesised Relationships	Study 1	Study 2
Hypothesis 5(a)	*At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the first-stage moderation.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(b)	*At high levels of organisation-based self-esteem, the conditional indirect effect of need for achievement on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low political skill at the second-stage moderation.*	-	Partially supported
Hypothesis 6(a)	*At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the first-stage moderation.*	-	Not supported
Hypothesis 6(b)	*At low levels of political skill, the conditional indirect effect of need for power on promotability through ingratiation will be stronger for those employees with high as opposed to those with low levels of organisation-based self-esteem at the second-stage moderation.*	-	Fully supported

6.3. Theoretical Contributions

This thesis contributes to the existing literature on ingratiation in several important ways. First, it makes an important theoretical contribution to the extant work on ingratiation by using SCT as an overarching framework to unravel some relevant boundary conditions, notably OBSE and political skill. While it recognises that other theories have been used to examine the predictors and outcomes of ingratiation, this thesis offers SCT as a complementary theoretical lens to help explain (a) under what conditions people would consciously go through with the ingratiation attempt and (b) why some ingratiation attempts are more successful than others. As Whetton (1989) suggests, the identification of boundary conditions does indeed constitute an important theory-development contribution because it can help contextualise prior work, and also explain inconsistencies therein. Despite prior research examining antecedents and outcomes of ingratiation, these results obtained across studies have been shown to be inconsistent at best (Ayree et al., 1996; Harrison et al., 1998; Kacmar et al., 2004; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), which warrants further exploration to identify relevant conditions that are conducive to the use of ingratiation.

Second, by identifying relevant boundary conditions through the lens of SCT, this thesis extends from past research that has examined, mainly separately, the main-effect relationships between antecedents and ingratiation (Kacmar et al., 2004; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), and ingratiation and consequences (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Stern & Westphal, 2010; Thacker & Wayne, 1995) by offering a model that concurrently examines antecedents and consequences of ingratiation. Despite the commonly held assumption that ingratiation can enable career-motivated employees to achieve desired career outcomes (King, 2004), very little research has in fact examined ingratiation as an intermediary mechanism. Overall, the obtained results from both

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Study 1 and Study 2 suggest that ingratiation serves as an intermediary mechanism that enables either power-driven or achievement-driven employees to increase their chances for promotability to the extent that relevant boundary conditions, such as OBSE and political skill, are taken into consideration.

Although not all the developed hypotheses received full empirical support, one emerging theme can be observed across the two studies, particularly from those hypotheses that were supported by both the moderated-mediation test and the slope test (i.e., Hypothesis 1(b) in Study 1, and Hypotheses 2(b), 4(b) and 6(b) in Study 2). Specifically, both OBSE and political skill were found to be important boundary conditions at the second-stage moderation of the conditional indirect effects of the two career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) on promotability through ingratiation. These results indicate that regardless of how conducive the surrounding conditions are, people driven either by a high need for achievement or need for power will have the tendency to engage in ingratiation to some extent. These results can be explained in two ways. First, researchers generally agreed that the primary motive of individuals engaging in ingratiation is to increase their interpersonal attraction (Wortman & Linsenmeier (1977). Hence, it is possible that they may engage in ingratiation because they generally want to be liked by others given that wanting to be liked is a common characteristic to us all (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Second, as predicted by the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993), people driven either by a high need for achievement or need for power may ingratiate their supervisors because they want to enhance their chances of getting promoted. Furthermore, the underlying reason that they want to get promoted is because they either want to assume more challenging tasks (i.e., an indication of achievement need) or have more control over their work environment (i.e., an indication of power need).

Furthermore, the fact that the conditional indirect effects became significant only at the second-stage of either OBSE or political skill also provides some theoretical insights. These findings suggest that although people with a high need for achievement or need for power are likely to engage in ingratiation, ingratiation will translate into career-related benefits only when OBSE and political skill are considered. In other words, it is not the frequency of the use of ingratiation that contributes to positive outcomes but rather the efficacy of the use. Drawing on cognitive consistency theory (Korman, 1970), we postulated OBSE as a relevant boundary condition in the relationship between ingratiation and promotability. Due to their high levels of self-perceived competence and ability, the self-concept that high OBSE employees have of themselves will also be reflected in their exercise of ingratiatory behaviours in an attempt to achieve higher promotability ratings from their supervisor. By incorporating social influence theory (Levy et al., 1998), this thesis argued that politically skilled employees are better able to understand the social interactions they have with their supervisor and accordingly ingratiate them in order to enhance their chances of promotability at work, which can be attributed to their abilities such as social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005).

Finally, this thesis also presents some novel findings in relation to the moderating role of OBSE. Past research often associates low self-esteem with ingratiation (Baron, 1974, Kacmar et al., 2004). For instance, Kacmar and colleagues (2004) found that employees with low self-esteem were more likely to engage in ingratiatory behaviours, such as other-enhancement and opinion conformity. Self-enhancement motivation theory (Dipboye, 1977) suggests that low self-esteem people generally lack confidence about their ability to succeed (Campbell, 1990) and will attempt to compensate for their perceived inadequacies by utilising more self-protective

strategies, such as conforming to other people's opinions. By incorporating SCT (Bandura, 1986), the thesis offers an alternative theoretical reasoning to the association between OBSE and ingratiation. As a result of having satisfied their career-related psychological needs (i.e., either need for achievement or need for power) through organisational roles, high OBSE employees are likely to have positive outcome expectations (i.e., higher perceived chances of getting promoted) associated with becoming better affiliated with the organisation. Hence, the significant results found at the second-stage moderation of OBSE suggest that high OBSE employees are likely to be more proactive in their style of ingratiation in an attempt to minimise risks and guarantee their career success.

6.4. Practical Implications

This thesis offers some practical implications concerning how human resource (HR) practices in organisations can be carried out more effectively. The results obtained from both studies suggest that employees who ingratiate effectively may enhance their chances of promotability. From the standpoint of individual employees, these results suggest that ingratiation may be important for career advancement. Among those who already have very good performance records, they may also have to develop ingratiatory tactics in order to advance in their career even further. From the standpoint of the organisation, however, engaging in such behaviours to increase chances of promotability can be considered as a source of bias in performance management, which further affects career management decisions. Hence, it is important to ensure that performance evaluations are carried out in an objective manner to be less susceptible to social influence, which can be done by, for example, providing training to front line managers to recognise social influence tactics as a source of performance measurement error, and conducting a 360 degree feedback.

First, it is important to provide training to front line managers regarding how performance appraisal criteria are to be developed and, most importantly, assessed in ways that can help reduce the bias in performance management. Line managers play an important role in implementing HR practices, such as performance appraisals which in part determine one's career promotability. This is because, to a larger extent, performance evaluations are those that are enacted by front line managers with direct supervisory responsibility (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). There is an increasing trend of research showing a disconnect between HR policies and actual HR practices adopted with the gap being attributed to front line managers' lack of training (Fenton O'Creevy, 2001; Harris, 2001; Whittaker & Marchington, 2003). When front line managers are not given adequate training on how performance evaluations should be carried out, the performance criteria used to evaluate employees' potential for getting promoted may not be objectively developed and assessed. As a result, employees can get away with these assessments by exercising social influence towards their supervisors and using it to their advantage, for instance, to advance their career prospects (Liden & Mitchell, 1988).

In addition, to create an assessment of employees' performance that is void of subjectivity, a 360 degree feedback can be adopted to obtain assessments from various perspectives, such as colleagues at senior, peer and junior levels in the workplace. The main advantage associated with the use of such multi-rater feedback is the improved validity of multi-rater over single-rater assessments (Mabey, 2001). It has been found that average ratings of subordinates' performance received across multiple sources were more reliable and had acceptable predictive validity (McEvoy & Beatty, 1989; Pollack & Pollack, 1996). Providing that multi-rater assessments are used "to avoid bias in feedback, idiosyncratic rating errors and poor reliability/validity of the instrument itself" (Mabey, 2001, p. 42), the literature on

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performance management has been supportive of the use of the 360 degree feedback as a potential tool to developing both individual employees and the organisation as a whole (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998).

6.5. Strengths and Limitations

One major strength in this study lies in how common method bias was dealt with by obtaining data using dyadic sources (i.e., subordinates and supervisors) in Study 1, and triadic sources (i.e., subordinates, peers and supervisors) in Study 2. For instance, in Study 2 subordinates' ingratiatory behaviours were assessed by peers rather than by subordinates themselves or supervisors. This was done for two main reasons, both of which attempted to strengthen the validity of the obtained results. First, the interpretation of ingratiatory behaviours varies accordingly to the source that reports the behaviour, for example, the actor, target or observer. These differences occur as a result of subjective evaluations which create ample room for judgment errors (Rao et al., 1995; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). For example, when ingratiation is rated by the actor him or herself, responses obtained from self-reports may be contaminated by social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). Subordinates are not very good judges of their own behaviour (Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Another reason for utilising triadic data sources is to deal with any potential common method bias. Obtaining ratings of ingratiation from peers rather than supervisors helps to minimise the same-source bias from using supervisory ratings of both ingratiation and promotability. Furthermore, using both employees' belief of their likelihood of getting promoted in Study 1 and the supervisors' belief of their subordinates to achieve promotions in Study 2 enabled the researcher to examine the impact that the exercise of such tactic can have on the actor her/himself and as well as the target's impression of the actor. thus, whereas the first study examined the effectiveness of ingratiation coming from an employees'

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perspective, the second study examined the effectiveness of ingratiation in terms of the impact that individuals have actually made on their supervisors' perceptions, which is consistent with the study's primary objective.

This thesis is not without its limitations. Although the results obtained across Study 1 and Study 2 provided some theoretical insights on ingratiation, there are some methodological limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the major findings. First, both Study 1 and Study 2 were conducted using a cross-sectional design. Through the use of the cross-sectional design, data were collected from a sample at a single moment in time. This is considered a limitation because it is difficult to determine definitively the direction of causality among the two career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power), ingratiation and promotability. Furthermore, the two processes examined in this study both allude to the salience of time: (a) a cognitive-motivational process underpinning one's performance of ingratiatory behaviours; and (b) the effectiveness of ingratiation in enhancing promotability. For instance, one's motivation to engage in ingratiation does not happen at a single moment in time but it rather takes over a period of time for one to go through self-reflection and make a conscious decision to enact ingratiatory tactics. Likewise, for one to see the result of their promotability as a result of having exercised ingratiation, the process also takes a longer period of time. To address this limitation, future research should consider adopting a longitudinal design when determining employees' career outcomes.

Second, both studies were developed specifically to fit the cultural context of Thailand. Given that the work culture of Thailand can be characterised as highly collectivistic with high power distance (Hofstede, 2012), the results obtained in this research may be different in comparison to other studies conducted mainly in the Western context (e.g., Harvey, Stoner,

Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2007; Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Westphal & Stern, 2007). In a highly collectivistic culture where people tend to identify themselves with group membership (Hofstede, 1984), some researchers have argued that people are more likely to use ingratiation to maintain harmony at work (Leung et al., 1992), and to 'give face' as well as to 'save face' (Ting-Toomey et al., 1991). In regards to power distance, it has been argued that the work culture is characterised as having high power distance may be more conducive to the use of ingratiation (Carl, Gupta & Javidan, 2004). Consistent with this, authoritarianism of managers has been identified as one of the predicting factors of ingratiation (Kumar, 1986). Given this, it is important to take into account the fact that the same phenomenon may not happen to a similar extent when comparing with other cultural contexts. Thus, future research may consider examining the same phenomenon in other cultural contexts or making a comparison between two or more cultural contexts.

Third, although one of the primary objectives of Study 2 was to replicate the results obtained from the first study, consistency in the pattern of results cannot be observed across the two studies. As shown in Table 6.1, whereas Hypothesis 1(a) received partial empirical support and Hypothesis 1(b) received full empirical support in Study 1, the same relationships hypothesised did not receive any support in Study 2. This discrepancy can be attributed to the fact that two of the constructs examined, notably ingratiation and promotability, were assessed by different sources in the two studies. Whereas supervisors were asked to rate ingratiatory behaviours of their subordinates in Study 1, peers were asked to rate ingratiatory behaviours of their colleagues in Study 2. As mentioned before, the interpretation of ingratiatory behaviours tends to vary depending upon the source that reports the behaviour (i.e., actor, target or observer). Thus, it is possible that supervisors may interpret their subordinate's ingratiatory

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behaviours as sincere interpersonal behaviours, whereas peers may interpret their colleague's behaviours as being manipulative and, accordingly, define them as ingratiation. These differences exist as a result of subjective perceptions which may open ample room for judgment errors (Rao et al., 1995; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Furthermore, in Study 1 subordinates were asked to rate their likeliness of getting promoted to determine their promotability. This is considered a limitation because such self-assessments may be contaminated by social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964).

In addition, although both Study 1 and Study 2 attempted to address common method bias by using supervisor-rated ingratiation and peer-rated ingratiation, respectively, the major concern lies in how certain aspects of employees' ingratiatory behaviours, such as "even if he/she does not like it" and "even if it means extra work for him/her" (see Appendices B3 and C4 for ingratiation items), may not be accurately detected by supervisors and peers. These aspects are rather personal to individuals who actually engaged in the behaviour. Furthermore, supervisors' and peers' interpretation of ingratiatory behaviours may also be confounded by OBSE and political skill, since this thesis postulated these two individual characteristics to be contributing to the effectiveness of the ingratiatory tactics being exercised. This would make it even harder for supervisors and peers to detect those aspects of ingratiation that are personal to ingratiators themselves. To address differential interpretations of ingratiatory behaviours, future research may consider making a comparison among various sources (i.e., subordinates, peers and supervisors) when determining employees' ingratiatory behaviours.

Finally, regarding the constructs examined to determine promotability, aside from subjective evaluations of one's likeliness to get promoted, this thesis did not incorporate other objectively measured variables, such as actual number of promotions or salary increases. Only a

limited number of control variables were considered in this study. Whitely, Dougherty and

Dreher (1991) has identified several factors that may pose confounding impacts on one's career

progression, such as human capital (e.g., levels of education, work experience and career

interruptions), demographic influences (e.g., marital status and socioeconomic status) and

work/life balance (e.g., spousal and familial demands). More specifically, it was found that those

holding a master degree and coming from high socioeconomic backgrounds were likely to have

better chances in their career success. On the other hand, it was further reported that those having

household responsibilities, familial demands and career interruptions were less likely to achieve

career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

6.6. Future Research Directions

There are a number of avenues for future research to develop based on the preliminary

evidence provided by this thesis. First, to provide a better understanding to why people may

ingratiate, future research may examine a broader range of psychological needs. By

incorporating the functional approach to motivation (Snyder, 1993) psychological needs or

motives can be uncovered based on the identification of functional purposes or outcomes

achieved by ingratiation. For example, past research has shown that employees who engaged in

ingratiation were able to develop high quality leader-member exchanges (LMX) with their

supervisors (Deluga & Perry, 1994). High quality LMX generally involves exchanges of special

treatment, resources, opportunities and psychological support (Graen et al., 1990). Accordingly,

future research may consider drawing on this connection to other personal motives or needs,

such as self-expansion motive, which refers to people's desire to "...enhance their potential self

efficacy by increasing the physical and social resources, perspectives, and identities that facilitate

achievement of any goals that might arise" (Aron, Aron & Norman, 2004, p. 99), or need for

affiliation, which refers to a need to feel a sense of belonging or a need to be affiliated with a social group (Steers & Braunstein, 1976).

Given that this study only incorporates three basic human capabilities posited by SCT (i.e., self-regulation, self-reflection and forethought capability), to provide a more comprehensive cognitive-motivational process underpinning the performance of ingratiatory behaviours, future research may operationalise other basic human capabilities posited by SCT that have not been explored in the current study. This is to identify what other boundary conditions may be relevant to and how they may affect one's conscious decision to exercise ingratiation. For instance, through vicarious learning, people learn from others' experiences by observing their behaviours and their subsequent consequences without having to engage in the actual situation. This capability should enhance one's outcome expectations associated with a particular behavioural act. Future research may operationalise this capability through perceived organisational politics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). Organisational politics are generally characterised by the use of political tactics by individuals in reaching desired outcomes that are scarce, and when such political attempts are rewarded by the organisation (Parker, Dipboye & Jackson, 1995). Hence, through vicarious learning, employees may observe and learn from the political tactics their colleagues have used to survive the political game, and subsequently employ the same tactics to tackle the situation. One of the political tactics that employees may observe from other colleagues is ingratiation. As Kacmar and Carlson (1997) argued, in order to survive the political game, it is important not to "rock the boat" but to rather build up relationships with relevant others, which can be achieved through ingratiatory behaviours.

To provide a better understanding of why certain ingratiation efforts are more successful than others in achieving career-related benefits, in addition to examining individual

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characteristics, future research may consider how organisational contextual factors may come into play as relevant boundary conditions. As Liden and Mitchell (1988) argued, some situations may be more conducive than others to the use of ingratiation. Although not empirically tested, researchers have proposed several situational characteristics that constitute a context that is conducive to the use of ingratiation. For instance, in a workplace environment where there are few established HR policies in place or policies that are not strictly enforced (Liden & Mitchell, 1988), such workplace environment may open ample room for organisational members to avoid certain policies by exercising social influence, such as ingratiation, towards their superiors. Likewise, when the scarcity of resources presents at work (Ralston, 1985), employees are inclined to use ingratiatory tactics to survive in a highly competitive work environment. Moreover, when individuals are highly dependent on their supervisors for completing tasks and gaining relevant information, resources or other support, ingratiation is likely used as a means to which they can increase their interpersonal attractiveness among their superiors (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). These conditions altogether characterise an organisational context which is highly political. In a highly political workplace, organisational policies tend to be relatively slack, which enables organisational members to get away with formal policies through political tactics, such as ingratiation. Hence, in addition to examining how organisational politics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) may contribute to one's conscious decision to ingratiate, it would also be interesting for future research to examine how organisational politics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) may promote the effectiveness of ingratiation to obtain favourable career-related outcomes.

Finally, to provide a more in-depth understanding of how ingratiation serves as a career influence tactic that enables employees to fulfil their career-related psychological needs as a

result of having achieved desired career outcomes, future research may consider examining a mediating mechanism that is placed in between ingratiation and outcomes. Given that ingratiation is primarily attempted by individuals to enhance their interpersonal attractiveness, future studies may examine how employees use their interpersonal attractiveness to enhance network benefits obtained from their superiors, and to subsequently capitalise on these network benefits to further their career objectives. Seibert, Kraimer and Liden (2001) suggested three types of network benefits that can be positively related to objective career success, including access to information (Spreitzer, 1996), access to resources (Spreitzer, 1996), and career sponsorship (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Burt (1997) argued that employees are able to use their network positions to fill a broker role within their organisation and add greater value to the organisation. Accordingly, past research has shown positive associations between network positions and task performance (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001).

6.7. Overall Conclusion

This thesis extends the literature on ingratiation in several important ways. First, this thesis identified psychological needs underlying people's performance of ingratiation. Need for achievement and need for power were identified based on the desired outcome achieved by ingratiation – in this case promotability. Second, this thesis proposed an integrative model that concurrently examined antecedents and outcomes of ingratiation by addressing ingratiation as a mediating mechanism. Third the results further revealed that ingratiation would serve as a behavioural mediator that links career-related psychological needs (i.e., need for achievement and need for power) to promotability to the extent that OBSE and political skill are salient in the second-stage, and as such need to be considered in predicting the career benefits of ingratiation. Finally, whereas past research often associates low self-esteem with higher engagement in

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ingratiation, this thesis provides an alternative perspective for examining the same phenomenon by suggesting that people who we would least expect, such as those with high OBSE, are also likely to ingratiate. Whereas those with low self-esteem may ingratiate to compensate for their self-inadequacies, those with high OBSE may ingratiate in order to guarantee success at their workplace. Altogether, the results obtained across Study 1 and Study 2 helped develop a better understanding of (a) why people ingratiate, (b) how ingratiation serves as a career influence tactic that enables career-motivated employees to enhance their promotability, and (c) why some ingratiation attempts are more successful than others.

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APPENDIX A

Information Sheet and Consent Form

Appendix A.1 MBA student information sheet – Study 1

Appendix A.2 Supervisor information sheet – Study 1

Appendix A.3 Participant information sheet – Study 2

Appendix A.4 Consent form – Study 1 and Study 2

Appendix A.1

MBA student information sheet – Study 1

University: The Australian National University
School: School of Management, Marketing and International Business
Research Title: What does it take to get ahead? Examining employees' social influence behaviours at Work
Researcher: Hataya Sibunruang
<u>Address:</u> 323 Seri 6 Soi 7

      Suanluang

      Bangkok 10250 Thailand
<u>Telephone:</u> (089) 9777 – 4710
<u>Fax:</u> (02) 718 – 2950
<u>Email:</u> hataya.sibunruang@anu.edu.au

The Purpose of the Study:

Why are some employees more successful in their careers than others? This is the key question that this research project attempts to answer. *Career success* in this aspect can be defined as the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one's work experience. Past research has shown that major factors contributing to career success lie in individuals' demographic background, such as age and gender, and human capital, such as level and degree of education, and socio-economic background, such as one's social standing. However, not everyone will hold such advantage. Therefore, this study attempts to examine ways in which individuals can substitute for what they lack, and accordingly suggests the importance of enhancing one's social capital. In this regards, the study argues that individuals may enhance their social capital by enacting certain social influence behaviors, which enable them to develop network relationships with relevant others.

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Practical Contributions:

This research project provides practical implications which are mainly concerned with how organizations can develop a career system through human resource policies and practices, which support individual employees' career advancement. On the employee standpoint, organizational support is instrumental in moving up their career ladder. On the organization standpoint, such support given to employees is instrumental in enhancing employees' organizational commitment and work motivation, and most importantly in retaining talented employees. .

Research Method:

Questionnaire surveys are a primary method of obtaining responses from participants in this organisation. The participants are not required to provide any information that reveals individual identities. By adopting a <u>coding system</u>, all participants will be assigned serial codes, which is to ensure the <u>anonymity</u> of the individuals. Upon the completion of their questionnaire, the participants will be <u>strictly advised to seal their questionnaire in an envelope</u> given before sending it back to the lecturer in class, which is to ensure the <u>confidentiality</u> of their responses.

Participants' right:

- Your participation is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate or discontinue participation at any time.
- The research data will be analysed and presented in an aggregate format only, excluding all references to any individual participants.
- In addition to my PhD thesis from which the data collected from this study may be referenced, these data may also be presented at professional conferences, and/or published in professional journals.
- All personal information will remain confidential and no information which could lead to identification of any individual will be released.
- The data from this survey will be stored on a removable hard disk and hard copy for five years in a locked filling cabinet at a secure location to ensure confidentiality.

The Australian National University Human Research Ethics Committee has reviewed this study. Should you wish to discuss the project with someone not directly involved, in particular in relation to matters concerning policies, information about the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, please contact:

Secretary (Human Ethics Officer)

Address: Human Research Ethics Committee

      Research Office

      Chancelry 10B

      The Australian National University

      ACT 0200 Australia

Telephone: + (612) 6125-7945

Fax: + (612) 6125-4807

Email: Human.Ethics.Officer@anu.edu.au

Thanking you in advance for you kind participation in this research project.

Sincerely yours,

Hataya Sibunruang

Supervisor information sheet – Study 1

University: The Australian National University

School: School of Management, Marketing and International Business

Research Title: What does it take to get ahead? Examining employees' social influence behaviours at Work

Researcher: Hataya Sibunruang

Address: 323 Seri 6 Soi 7

       Suanluang

       Bangkok 10250 Thailand

Telephone: (089) 9777 – 4710

Fax: (02) 718 – 2950

Email: hataya.sibunruang@anu.edu.au

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Participants' right:

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- The research data will be analysed and presented in an aggregate format only, excluding all references to any individual participants.
- In addition to my PhD thesis from which the data collected from this study may be referenced, these data may also be presented at professional conferences, and/or published in professional journals.
- All personal information will remain confidential and no information which could lead to identification of any individual will be released.
- The data from this survey will be stored on a removable hard disk and hard copy for five years in a locked filling cabinet at a secure location to ensure confidentiality.

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      The Australian National University

      ACT 0200 Australia

Telephone: + (612) 6125-7945

Fax: + (612) 6125-4807

Email: Human.Ethics.Officer@anu.edu.au

Thanking you in advance for you kind participation in this research project.

Sincerely yours,

Hataya Sibunruang

Participant information sheet – Study 2

University: The Australian National University

School: School of Management, Marketing and International Business

Research Title: What does it take to get ahead? Examining employees' social influence behaviours at Work

Researcher: Hataya Sibunruang

Address: 323 Seri 6 Soi 7

       Suanluang

       Bangkok 10250 Thailand

Telephone: (089) 9777 – 4710

Fax: (02) 718 – 2950

Email: hataya.sibunruang@anu.edu.au

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Research Method:

Questionnaire surveys are a primary method of obtaining responses from participants in this organisation. The participants are not required to provide any information that reveals individual identities. By adopting a coding system, all participants will be assigned serial codes, which is to ensure the anonymity of the individuals. Upon the completion of their questionnaire, the participants will be strictly advised to seal their questionnaire in an envelope given and to send it directly back to the Human Resource Department of the organisation, which is to ensure the confidentiality of their responses.

Participants' right:

- Your participation is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate or discontinue participation at any time.

- The research data will be analysed and presented in an aggregate format only, excluding all references to any individual participants.

- In addition to my PhD thesis from which the data collected from this study may be referenced, these data may also be presented at professional conferences, and/or published in professional journals.

- All personal information will remain confidential and no information which could lead to identification of any individual will be released.

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Telephone: + (612) 6125-7945

Fax: + (612) 6125-4807

Email: Human.Ethics.Officer@anu.edu.au

Thanking you in advance for you kind participation in this research project.

Sincerely yours,

Hataya Sibunruang

Consent form – Study 1 and Study 2

Project title: What does it take to get ahead? Examining employees' social influence behaviours at Work

Researcher's name: Hataya Sibunruang

Supervisor's name: Dr. Alessandra Capezio

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.

- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.

- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.

- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.

Name of Participant...

Signed..**Date**..............................

I have provided information about the research to the research participant and believe that he/she understands what is involved.

Appendix B

Materials for Study 1

Appendix B.1 Participant demographic questions

Appendix B.2 Need for achievement items

Appendix B.3 Ingratiation items

Appendix B.4 Organisation-based self-esteem items

Appendix B.5 Promotability items

Participant demographic questions

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ASK YOU TO PROVIDE SOME <u>PERSONAL OR BACKGROUND INFORMATION</u> ABOUT YOURSELF

1. What is your gender? ☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. What is your age group?
   ☐ Below 25   ☐ 25 – 35   ☐ 36 – 45   ☐ 46 – 55   ☐ 56 – 65

   ☐ Above 65

3. How many years have you been working in this company? _____

Appendix B.2

Need for achievement items

Item 1   I do my best at work when my job assignments are fairly difficult

Item 2   I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work

Item 3   I take moderate risks and stick my neck out to get ahead

Item 4   I try to accept any added responsibilities on my job

Item 5   I try to perform better than my co-workers

Appendix B.3

Ingratiation items

Other-Enhancement

Item 1   This subordinate impresses you that only you can help him/her in a given situation mainly to make you feel good about yourself

Item 2   This subordinate tells you that he/she can learn a lot from your experience

Item 3   This subordinate exaggerates your admirable qualities to convey the impression that he/she thinks highly of you

Item 4   This subordinate looks out for opportunities to admire you

Item 5   This subordinate compliments you on your achievement, however trivial it may actually be to him/her personally

Item 6   Highlights the achievements made under your leadership

Opinion Conformity

Item 1   This subordinate shows you that he/she shares your enthusiasm about your new idea

Item 2   This subordinate gives frequent smiles to express enthusiasm/interest about something that you are interested in even if he/she does not like it

Item 3   This subordinate lets you know the attitudes he/she shares with you

Item 4   This subordinate laughs heartily at your jokes even when they are not really that funny

Item 5   This subordinate expresses work attitudes that are similar to you

Item 6   This subordinate disagrees on trivial or unimportant issues but agree on those issues in which you expect support from him/her

Item 7   This subordinate tries to imitate your work behaviours, such as working late or occasionally working on weekends

Favour Rendering

Item 1   This subordinate goes out of his/her way to run an errand for you

Item 2   This subordinate offers to help you by using his/her personal contacts

Item 3   This subordinate volunteers to be of help to you in matters like locating a good apartment, finding a good insurance agent, etc.

Item 4   This subordinate spends time listening to your personal problems

Item 5   This subordinate volunteers to help you in his/her work even if it means extra work for him/her

Item 6   This subordinate tries to do things for you that show his/her self-less generosity

Appendix B.4

Organisation-based self-esteem items

Item 1	I count around here
Item 2	I am taken seriously
Item 3	I am important
Item 4	I am trusted
Item 5	There is faith in me
Item 6	I can make a difference
Item 7	I am valuable
Item 8	I am helpful
Item 9	I am efficient
Item 10	I am cooperative

Appendix B.5

Promotability items

Item 1   If my supervisor has to select a successor for his/her position, it would be me

Item 2   I believe that I have what it takes to be promoted to a higher-level position

Item 3   I will probably be promoted to a higher-level position in this organisation

Item 4   It would be best for the organisation if I were promoted from my current level during the next five years

Appendix C

Materials for Study 2

Appendix C.1 Participant demographic questions

Appendix C.2 Need for achievement items

Appendix C.3 Need for power items

Appendix C.4 Ingratiation items

Appendix C.5 Organisation-based self-esteem items

Appendix C.6 Political skill items

Appendix C.7 Promotability items

Appendix C.1

Participant demographic questions

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ASK YOU TO PROVIDE SOME <u>PERSONAL OR BACKGROUND INFORMATION</u> ABOUT YOURSELF

1. What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your age group?
   ☐ Below 25   ☐ 25 – 35   ☐ 36 – 45   ☐ 46 – 55   ☐ 56 – 65

   ☐ Above 65

3. How many years have you been working in this company? _____

Appendix C.2

Need for achievement items

Item 1   I do my best at work when my job assignments are fairly difficult

Item 2   I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work

Item 3   I take moderate risks and stick my neck out to get ahead

Item 4   I try to accept any added responsibilities on my job

Item 5   I try to perform better than my co-workers

Appendix C.3

Need for power items

Item 1   I seek an active role in the leadership of a group

Item 2   I find myself organising and directing the activities of others

Item 3   I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work

Item 4   I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group

Item 5   I try to influence those around me

Appendix C.4

Ingratiation items

Other-Enhancement

Item 1   My colleague impresses the supervisor that only he/she can help him/her in a given situation mainly to make the supervisor feel good about him/herself

Item 2   My colleague tells the supervisor that he/she can learn a lot from the supervisor's experience

Item 3   My colleague exaggerates the supervisor's admirable qualities to convey the impression that he/she thinks highly of the supervisor

Item 4   My colleague looks out for opportunities to admire the supervisor

Item 5   My colleague compliments the supervisor on his/her achievement, however trivial it may actually be to him/her personally

Item 6   My colleague highlights the achievements made under the supervisor's leadership

Opinion Conformity

Item 1   My colleague shows the supervisor that he/she shares the supervisor's enthusiasm about his/her new idea

Item 2   My colleague gives frequent smiles to express enthusiasm/interest about something that the supervisor is interested in even if he/she does not like it

Item 3   My colleague lets the supervisor knows the attitudes he/she shares with the supervisor

Item 4   My colleague laughs heartily at the supervisor's jokes even when they are not really that funny

Item 5   My colleague expresses work attitudes that are similar to the supervisor

Item 6   My colleague disagrees on trivial or unimportant issues but agrees on those issues in which the supervisor expects support from him/her

Item 7   My colleague tries to imitate the supervisor's work behaviours, such as working late or occasionally working on weekends

Favour Rendering

Item 1   My colleague goes out of his/her way to run an errand for the supervisor

Item 2   My colleague offers to help the supervisor by using his/her personal contacts

Item 3   My colleague volunteers to be of help to the supervisor in matters like locating a good apartment, finding a good insurance agent, etc.

Item 4   My colleague spends time listening to the supervisor's personal problems

Item 5   My colleague volunteers to help the supervisor in his/her work even if it means extra work for him/her

Item 6   My colleague tries to do things for the supervisor that show his/her self-less generosity

Appendix C.5

Political skill items

Networking Ability

Item 1   I spend a lot of time and effort at work working with others

Item 2   At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected

Item 3   I am good at using my connections and networks to make things happen at work

Item 4   I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done

Apparent Sincerity

Item 1   It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do

Item 2   When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say or do to influence others

Social Astuteness

Item 1   I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others

Item 2   I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others

Item 3   I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others

Interpersonal Influence

Item 1   It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people

Item 2   I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me

Appendix C.6

Organisation-based self-esteem items

Item 1	I count around here
Item 2	I am taken seriously
Item 3	I am important
Item 4	I am trusted
Item 5	There is faith in me
Item 6	I can make a difference
Item 7	I am valuable
Item 8	I am helpful
Item 9	I am efficient
Item 10	I am cooperative

Appendix C.7

Promotability items

Item 1   If I have to select a successor for my position, it would be him/her

Item 2   I believe that he/she has what it takes to be promoted to a higher-level position

Item 3   This subordinate will probably be promoted to a higher-level position in this organisation

Item 4   It would be best for the organisation if this subordinate was promoted from his/her current level during the next five years