

7-2-2016

Are You Actually Helping or Just Looking Out for Yourself?: Examining the Individual and Interactive Effects of Relationship Quality and Political Skill on Supervisor Motive Attributions

Rebecca L. Badaway
Youngstown State University

Brooke A. Shaughnessy
Ludwig-Maximilians Universitat Munchen

Robyn L. Brouer
Canisius College

Stephanie R. Seitz
California State University-East Bay

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarship.shu.edu/omj>



Part of the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#), and the [Organizational Communication Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Badaway, Rebecca L.; Shaughnessy, Brooke A.; Brouer, Robyn L.; and Seitz, Stephanie R. (2016) "Are You Actually Helping or Just Looking Out for Yourself?: Examining the Individual and Interactive Effects of Relationship Quality and Political Skill on Supervisor Motive Attributions," *Organization Management Journal*: Vol. 13: Iss. 3, Article 3.

Available at: <https://scholarship.shu.edu/omj/vol13/iss3/3>

Are You Actually Helping or Just Looking Out for Yourself?: Examining the Individual and Interactive Effects of Relationship Quality and Political Skill on Supervisor Motive Attributions

Rebecca L. Badawy^a, Brooke A. Shaughnessy^b, Robyn L. Brouer^c, and Stephanie R. Seitz^d

^aDepartment of Management, Williamson College of Business Administration, Youngstown State University, Youngstown, Ohio, USA;

^bInstitute for Leadership and Organization, Ludwig-Maximilians Universität München, München, Germany.; ^cDepartment of Management, Canisius College, Buffalo, New York, USA; ^dDepartment of Management, California State University–East Bay, Hayward, California, USA

ABSTRACT

Scholars have argued for the importance of motive attributions in supervisors' reactions and subsequent decisions about their subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). However, research examining models of attributions of OCBs have not considered the role of individual skill and relationship quality. The purpose of this two-experiment study is to examine the impact of subordinate political skill and leader–member exchange (LMX) on the attributions supervisors make of their subordinates' OCBs and how these attributions affect subordinate performance ratings. Results from experiment 1 ($n = 195$) indicate that subordinates who are highly politically skilled and in high-quality relationships receive more favorable, other-serving attributions, which are related to higher evaluations of performance. Additionally, results from experiment 2 ($n = 175$) indicate that political skill may be a more potent contributor to motive attributions than LMX.

KEYWORDS

LMX; motive attributions; performance; political skill

There is growing emphasis on the importance of performance in organizations that is not directly related to formal job descriptions. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are a subset of discretionary performance that help the work group or organization as a whole (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). It has been argued by some that OCBs and impression management are essentially the same behaviors (e.g., Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, & Judge, 1995). However, OCBs are generally seen as prosocial in nature—done just to help others (e.g., other-serving)—whereas impression management is thought to be political behavior, motivated primarily for personal gain (e.g., self-serving). As Bolino (1999) suggested, individuals performing OCBs fueled by self-serving motives are viewed more negatively than those who are seen as doing these behaviors selflessly, as “good soldiers.”

Though research has demonstrated a direct impact of OCBs on positive outcomes such as performance evaluations and promotion decisions (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998), there is evidence that these behaviors may also be met with negative outcomes (Bolino, 1999). Specifically, different evaluations arise from the “transparency” of OCB motives

(Gordon, 1996). For instance, for the same behavior such as staying late at work, some employees may be seen as self-serving (e.g., trying to look good to one's supervisor), while others may be seen as other-serving (e.g., staying to help a co-worker meet work demands). In other words, motive attributions mediate the relationship between OCBs and positive outcomes. Indeed, research has demonstrated the role of managerial motive attributions of their subordinates' behaviors on subsequent outcomes (e.g., Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010). However, though others have theorized for factors that could impact this relationship (e.g., Bowler, Halbesleben, & Paul, 2010), extenuating factors, such as relational and dispositional factors, have yet to be empirically tested. To fill this gap, this article offers an integrative explanation of motive attributions through the exploration of relationship quality and political skill (PS).

Specifically, we examine the influence of leader–member exchange (LMX) and PS on performance ratings as mediated by motive attributions (see Figure 1 for theoretical model). As theorized by Bowler and colleagues (2010), because high-quality supervisor–subordinate relationships are marked by mutual trust, respect, and commitment

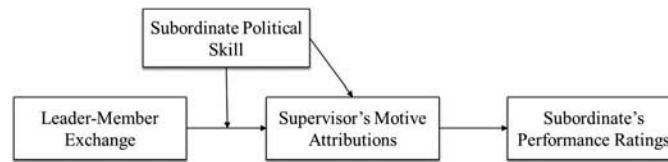


Figure 1. Theoretical model.

(Liden & Maslyn, 1998), supervisors are more likely to attribute their subordinates' behaviors to more favorable, other-serving motives rather than self-serving. The essence of high-quality relationships is captured in the construct of LMX, which focuses on the two-way relationship between the supervisor and subordinate, theorizing that a supervisor does not treat all subordinates the same (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Because higher quality relationships are characterized by trust, communication, and interaction (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997), subordinates in higher quality relationships with their supervisors can expect more positive attributions from their supervisors. As such, the first purpose of this article is to empirically test the Bowler et al. (2010) theory stating that LMX leads to more favorable OCB motive attributions. We extend this to also consider how these motive attributions impact performance ratings.

Bowler et al. (2010) also suggested that there are boundary conditions to this proposed relationship, such as "the manner in which the behavior is delivered" (p. 314). Thus, the second purpose of this article is to examine PS as an individual characteristic that should impact the delivery of OCBs. PS is a social competency necessary for effectiveness in organizations (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewe, 2005). Politically skilled individuals possess a keen understanding of their environment and are generally seen as trustworthy (Ferris et al., 2007). Because of their apparent sincerity and ability to adjust their behaviors (Ferris et al., 2007), we propose that politically skilled subordinates are able to develop more favorable impressions through their supervisors' motive attributions of their behaviors, resulting in supervisors perceiving the subordinate to have other-serving, rather than self-serving, motives. In this way, it is likely that subordinate PS may annex the effect that LMX has on supervisors' motive attributions, and ultimately performance evaluations. Simply put, politically skilled employees should experience higher performance ratings from their supervisors through the mediating factor of motive attributions.

This article makes several important contributions to the literature. First, it expands the attribution literature by building on existing models of attributions, which focus on outcomes, and addresses the black box of precisely what factors contribute to assigning different motive attributions to OCBs. Second, the current study

provides an empirical test of the proposition set forth by Bowler et al. (2010), examining the role of LMX in supervisor attributions of subordinate motives. A third contribution of the present study is that it extends the PS literature by focusing on how PS might affect others' attributions (namely, supervisors), testing an integral part of the model proposed by Ferris et al. (2007). Although these authors argued that PS leads to target impressions of the actor, to our knowledge, the impact of PS on motive attributions has yet to be tested.

Theoretical foundations and hypothesis development

OCBs are "discretionary behaviors, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and in aggregate promotes the efficient and effective function of the organization" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 3). OCBs are helpful and cooperative, and are manifested through taking on extra responsibilities, tolerating inconveniences, and other similar behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Examples of OCBs include helping others, defending the organization, going beyond the minimum required performance, expressing opinions to help the organization, contributing to a good organizational reputation, and acquiring new knowledge, skills, or abilities (George & Brief, 1992; Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Thus, OCBs are constructive extrarole behaviors aimed at facilitating organizational functioning. As such, it has historically been emphasized that employees performing OCBs often develop a positive impression in the eyes of supervisors, appearing as "good soldiers" (Bolino, 1999). However, researchers have started to investigate OCB motive, making the distinction between altruistic (other-serving) and impression management (self-serving) goals (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Though there is support that actual OCB motive is not limited to being either self-serving or other-serving (Eastman & Pawar, 2005; Lemmon & Wayne, 2015; Nguyen, Seers, & Hartman, 2008), research has demonstrated that the way motives are perceived (i.e., motive attributions) has a strong effect on how supervisors interpret and subsequently react to subordinates' behaviors.

Specifically, a recent subset of this research has identified the importance of motive attributions that decision makers assign to those performing OCBs (Bowler et al., 2010; Eastman, 1994; Halbesleben et al., 2010), suggesting that attributions are a crucial factor in OCB outcomes. A supervisor may attribute an OCB as being self-serving or other-serving (Ferris et al., 1995). Supervisors attribute self-serving intent to behaviors they perceive as having an instrumental function (e.g., impression management), whereas they attribute other-serving motives to behaviors they perceive as having altruistic intent (Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Therefore, it is important to consider the role of motive attributions on the outcomes of such behaviors. That is, regardless of the actual reasons individuals partake in OCBs, how do others evaluate the intentions of these behaviors? Drawing upon attribution theory (Heider, 1958), Harvey, Martinko, and Gardner (2006) stated that “individuals have an innate desire to determine the causes of events that are relevant to them” (p. 2). An imperative point of consideration then lies within the attributions others make of OCB motives. Research consistently demonstrates that the type of motive ascribed to an individual directly impacts relevant outcomes. For example, OCBs have been related to positive supervisor judgments when the supervisors believe subordinates’ motives are altruistic and not instrumental (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002). Furthermore, these same behaviors, when seen as self-serving, have negative outcomes for subordinates (e.g., Gordon, 1996).

Despite the relevance of motive attributions in the outcomes linked to OCBs, minimal empirical explorations of the factors that contribute to such attributions exist in the literature (see Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014). Two notable exceptions have examined supervisors’ responses to their subordinates’ OCBs: Eastman (1994) and Halbesleben and colleagues (2010). As these studies delineate, supervisor responses depend on whether supervisors attribute their subordinates’ behaviors to self- or other-serving motives. Specifically, Eastman (1994) found that supervisors attributed their subordinates’ OCB motives to ingratiation (i.e., self-serving) when the subordinate was not behaving in the same manner as those in his or her work group. Furthermore, Halbesleben et al. (2010) found that subordinates’ behaviors were labeled as impression management (self-serving) when the behavior was inconsistent across situations whereas these behaviors were labeled as having organizational concern (other-serving) in instances where OCBs were consistent across situations. These studies suggest that supervisors’ understanding of their subordinates’ OCB

motives is a function of perceptual factors (e.g., whether the supervisor perceives consistency within the context and across situations).

Thus, a major gap exists in the literature relating to factors that influence the nature of supervisors’ motive attributions (i.e., their perceptions of their subordinate’s motives). That is, because motive attributions are largely perceptual in nature, it is likely that perceptual biases impact the motive attributions supervisors make of their subordinates’ behaviors. However, little is known about the factors that contribute to and impact supervisor motive attributions. Research to date has not empirically explored the personal and relational characteristics that lead supervisors to make self-serving or other-serving attributions. This study attempts to address the question of what factors contribute to how supervisors arrive at these motive attributions by investigating the role of subordinate PS and LMX on supervisors’ motive attributions of subordinates’ OCB.

Political skill

This article argues that individual characteristics of the subordinate will influence the supervisor’s attribution of OCB motive: specifically, subordinate PS. PS was first introduced as a concept by Pfeffer (1981), who suggested that PS is necessary to be successful in an organization. Similarly, Mintzberg (1983) described organizations as political arenas, and he believed that PS could contribute to proficiency in negotiation, manipulation, and persuasion. Both authors argued for the importance of PS on such outcomes as performance, effectiveness, and career success. More recently, Ferris, Davidson, et al. (2005) established a working definition of PS as “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (p. 127).

Politically skilled individuals have an ability to accurately observe the social environment and understand the motives of those around them and the impact of their own behavior. Further, they are characterized by the ability to subtly influence others in the work environment by using a communication style that puts others at ease. The politically skilled are also effective relationship builders, and can create strong bonds for friendship, alliances, and coalitions. Finally, politically skilled individuals are perceived to be honest and sincere. Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, and Ferris (2004) described PS succinctly as the ability to “know just what to do, when, where, as well as how” (p. 296).

By its definition, PS is a necessary social effectiveness skill that allows individuals to thrive in any instance

where they are interacting with others. Models of PS revolve around the manner in which the politically skilled effectively manage the impressions and attributions others make of them (Ferris, Perrewe, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000). As stated by Kolodinsky and colleagues (2004), “politically skilled individuals develop an intuitive savvy and understanding of events in organizations because they read and learn from situations and enhance their understanding and perceived control over events through acquisition of informal or tacit knowledge” (p. 295). PS also gives individuals the confidence and the know-how to execute behaviors in a socially appropriate way, allowing for more favorable outcomes (Ferris et al., 2007).

Despite the efficacy of PS on target perceptions, few, if any, studies have examined the impact of PS on targets’ motive attributions of actors’ OCBs. It is likely that politically skilled subordinates will be able to influence the attributions supervisors make of their OCBs. Indeed, a main tenet of the Ferris et al. (2007) model is that politically skilled individuals can impact the impressions others form of them. Although not explicitly stated or empirically tested, it is a natural extension that the politically skilled should be able to impact the motive attributions made about them. In particular, the capacity of politically skilled subordinates to build effective interpersonal relationships and maintain an appearance of sincerity allows them to subtly create more positive motive attributions when performing the OCB. In the instance of an ulterior motive (e.g., a self-serving motive), the politically skilled would be able to disguise their motive and project other-serving intentions. The politically skilled, because of their ability to understand their environment, their leaders, and co-workers, can tailor their behaviors accordingly, inspiring trust and sincerity (Ferris et al., 1995, 2007).

Research has shown that politically skilled individuals are able to effectively influence others’ perceptions of them. Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, and Thatcher (2007), for example, found that more politically skilled subordinates were able to mask their use of ingratiation, so as to positively influence their supervisors’ ratings of interpersonal facilitation (a facet of contextual performance conceptually similar to OCB). Another study found that engaging in higher levels of impression management by politically skilled individuals resulted in supervisors perceiving them as better performers. However, individuals low in PS may be seen more negatively when engaging in impression management (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007; Kolodinsky, Treadway, & Ferris, 2007). In a multistudy empirical test of the proposed relationships, Liu and colleagues (2007) found that PS predicted job

performance, but when the mediating mechanism of reputation was introduced, that relationship disappeared. In other words, supervisors’ ratings of subordinates as a trustworthy and respectable co-worker (reputation) fully mediated the relationship between PS and job performance. Taken together, politically skilled employees are better able to disguise their influence attempts (i.e., Treadway et al., 2007) and foster a positive image (Liu et al., 2007) than their politically deficient counterparts. Therefore, a politically skilled employee will likely be seen as other-serving, as opposed to self-serving, when performing OCBs.

Hypothesis 1: Supervisors will attribute their subordinate’s OCBs as having other-serving motives when the subordinate is high in PS and self-serving when the subordinate is low in PS.

Leader–member exchange

The theory of LMX began with the premise that leaders do not treat all subordinates the same (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) and has evolved to encompass the idea that by varying their leadership style and actual behaviors between subordinates, supervisors may influence the relationship quality they have with their subordinates (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Thus, relationship quality between a subordinate and supervisor sits on a continuum from low quality to high quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High-quality LMX relationships include the elements of mutual trust, respect, and commitment (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), and foster support and more formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). In contrast, low-quality LMX relationships are characterized by a focus on the employment contract, where both supervisor and subordinate perform just what is expected from the contract (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These relationships are inherently distinguished by less trust, support, and frequency of interaction, as well as higher turnover (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Essentially, high-quality LMX relationships are more positive (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997). Leaders who have high-quality relationships with their subordinates are likely to trust those subordinates, and are not likely to perceive ulterior or self-serving motives. For instance, there is evidence that supervisors give subordinates with whom they share higher quality LMX relationships better performance evaluations, regardless of their objective performance (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994). This finding indicates that there is a certain bias present, and that the subordinates enjoying high-quality LMX

relationships are also enjoying a more positive view of their work than would be based on their objective performance. This further supports the notion that if, for example, a subordinate in a high-quality LMX relationship stays late at work, the supervisor would likely perceive that the subordinate was behaving this way to be friendly and helpful rather than to manipulate an impression for a manager. Indeed, Bowler et al. (2010) suggested that LMX plays an integral role in supervisor attributions. These authors made the theoretical claim that a supervisor in a high-quality LMX relationship would attribute the subordinate's OCBs to other-serving motives. Conversely, a supervisor in a low-quality LMX relationship would attribute the subordinate's OCBs to self-serving motives.

Hypothesis 2: Supervisors will attribute their subordinates' OCB's as having other-serving motives when they have a high-quality relationship (high LMX) and as self-serving when they have a low-quality relationship (low LMX).

The relationship between OCBs and performance ratings is evident due to the conceptual overlap between the definition of OCBs and contextual performance; OCBs have often been regarded as contextual performance, a facet of overall performance (Organ, 1997). However, given the subjective nature of contextual performance, researchers have considered mediating factors in the behavior–performance relationship. Halbesleben and colleagues' (2010) model incorporates a mediating link of motive attributions between subordinates' behaviors and the end outcome of the supervisors' performance ratings. Similarly, Eastman (1994) found that supervisors gave more positive evaluations to their subordinates that they labeled as “good citizens” (having other-serving motives) rather than ingratiation (having self-serving motives). Later research found the relationship between OCB-type behaviors and performance to be dependent on supervisors having altruistic motive attributions of their employees' OCBs (Huang, Zhao, Niu, Ashford, & Lee, 2013). These results indicate that there is a mediating mechanism that differentiates certain behaviors and their effect on performance. This mechanism is proposed to be motive attributions. Indeed, Allen and Rush (1998) found that causal motive attributions mediated the relationship between OCB and overall evaluations. Therefore, we expect supervisor motive attributions to mediate the relationships between subordinate's OCB and supervisor's performance ratings.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between a subordinate's (a) PS and (b) LMX and their subsequent performance ratings is mediated by the supervisor's motive attributions.

Though it is argued that PS and LMX will both play a direct role in supervisor's motive attributions of their subordinates' OCBs, the interactive effect of both these factors is an integral component when looking at subjective outcomes, such as motive attributions. The extant literature offers two competing perspectives. First is the notion that PS increases the effectiveness of LMX on work outcomes. For instance, Harris, Harris, and Brouer (2009) argued for the moderating effect of PS on the relationship between LMX with employees' job satisfaction and turnover decisions, suggesting that subordinates with high-quality relationships had more frequent interactions with their leaders and thus a greater opportunity to use their PS to influence their surroundings. This promotes an increased sense of control over their environment and work outcomes, rendering higher levels of subordinate job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intentions. More recent research has validated this claim by finding that politically skilled employees thrive under conditions of high LMX differentiation because it creates uncertainty situations in which politically skilled employees can utilize their interpersonal skills (Epitropaki, Kapoutsis, Ferris, Davis, & Ntotsi, 2014). The second notion suggests that politically skilled individuals, because of their social savvy, are more apt to develop higher quality work relationships, which impacts employee outcomes (Laird, Zboja, & Ferris, 2012). Thus, PS and LMX are intertwined concepts (i.e., affecting each other). Following the Bowler et al. (2010) theoretical assertion that the LMX–motive attribution relationship will be impacted by the manner in which OCBs are delivered and the Ferris et al. (2007) logic that PS is a skill that allows employees to deliver behaviors in a more socially appropriate way, we argue that PS will moderate the relationship between LMX and motive attributions. In other words, we argue that subordinate PS is a necessary component in their ability to appear sincere and thus, altruistic.

Hypothesis 4: PS will moderate the relationship between LMX and motive attributions such that motive attributions will be other-serving when PS is high and self-serving when PS is low regardless of LMX level.

Experiment 1

Experiment 1 examines the separate effects of subordinate PS and LMX on motive attributions and performance ratings.

Participants

The participants in our study were recruited from business students enrolled in upper level (juniors and seniors) undergraduate management courses at a large university in the northeastern United States. Students participated in this research as a way to complete a research requirement for management courses they were taking at the time and were recruited via computer-mediated modes (informed of the study availability via an e-mail and/or could view study availability through the [experimentrix.com](http://www.experimentrix.com) Web interface). Experimentrix.com is “an online experiment scheduling system” that allows researchers to “post experiments, schedule appointments, and track research credits through customized websites that run on [their] secured servers” (www.experimentrix.com). As such, at no point in the sampling method did the participants have direct contact with the researchers. This method (i.e., computer administration) has demonstrated “significant measurement advantages,” including yielding “higher concurrent validity, less survey satisficing, less random measurement error, and more reports of socially undesirable attitudes and behaviors” (Yeager et al., 2011, p. 710). Potential respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and that their responses would be confidential.

We received 195 completed surveys (119 males, 76 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 22.30$ years). The racial composition of our subjects was 60% Caucasian, 29% Asian, 4% African-American, 3% Hispanic, and 4% other. Participants in this sample worked 22.75 hours per week on average. However, the sample included working and nonworking participants. Because students were not part of our general population of interest (i.e., working individuals) and they were drawn from a homogeneous population (i.e., students taking upper level business courses; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007), this sampling method more closely mirrors a non-probability, or nonrandom, sample. Though nonprobability samples are sometimes considered inferior to probability samples (Yeager et al., 2011), “if the factors that determine a population member’s presence or absence in the sample are all uncorrelated with the variables of interest in a study ... then the observed distributions of those variables in a non-probability sample should be identical to the distributions in the population” (p. 711). To test for any potential biases

from work experience, we conducted analyses of variance (ANOVAs) on the study variables. Results indicated no significant mean differences on any of the study variables included in this investigation between the working and non-working groups. As such, the original sample size was retained for hypothesis testing.

Design and procedure

Participants responded using the online survey platform SurveyMonkey. After enrolling in the study, participants were sent an e-mail containing a link to the online survey. They were told to imagine themselves as a manager of a number of subordinates and were informed that their job requires making difficult decisions about pay raises, rewards, and promotions for their subordinates.

Next, depending on which condition they were assigned (Table 1), participants read one of four scenarios in which subordinate PS or relationship quality (LMX) was manipulated. Two scenarios manipulated PS, representing high and low PS, while the other two scenarios manipulated only LMX, consisting of high and low LMX.

Subordinate PS was manipulated by providing information about the way in which Pat (gender-neutral subordinate) is perceived at work. The manipulations were derived from items in the Political Skill Inventory (PSI) developed by Ferris and his colleagues (Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005). In the high-PS condition, Pat is described as well liked by others in the department. The scenario states that Pat makes people feel at ease and tends to say the right thing at the right time. Also, in this condition, Pat has a high level of apparent sincerity, with the scenario saying that Pat comes across as sincere and genuine. In the low-PS condition, Pat was described as not well liked in the department. In this condition, Pat was described as coming across as insincere. Also, Pat was said to make others feel uneasy and uncomfortable, usually saying the wrong thing.

Table 1. Experimental manipulations.

	Manipulations	
	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
Condition 1	High subordinate political skill ($n = 49$)	High subordinate political skill/high leader-member exchange ($n = 45$)
Condition 2	Low subordinate political skill ($n = 51$)	High subordinate political skill/low leader-member exchange ($n = 41$)
Condition 3	High leader-member exchange ($n = 48$)	Low subordinate political skill/high leader-member exchange ($n = 44$)
Condition 4	Low leader-member exchange ($n = 47$)	Low subordinate political skill/low leader-member exchange ($n = 45$)

LMX was manipulated by providing information about the relationship between the subordinate (again, called “Pat”) and the manager (the participant). In the high-quality LMX condition, the relationship was described as positive, where Pat and the respondent spend a lot of time engaging in both work and nonwork interactions. Information was also given that Pat and the respondent support each other fully. In the low-quality LMX condition, the relationship was described as poor, where Pat and the respondent do not interact more than what work requires of them, and the respondent does not know Pat very well and does not have a lot of trust in Pat.

After each condition, participants were given a scenario where Pat offered help on a project to simulate an OCB. Specifically, participants were told, “At work, you have a project with a deadline two days away. To complete the project will require a great deal of work on your part, and to help you with it, Pat has offered to put in long hours (until approximately 10pm) the next two days. Even though Pat knows that no compensation will be given for this work, Pat still offers to help you.”

Once the participants finished reading the scenarios, participants completed a measure of motive attributions. Motive attributions were measured using the organizational citizenship behavior scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991), rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ($\alpha = .85$). The directions stated: “The following items are examples of extra-role behaviors. Based on what you know about Pat, please rate whether you think Pat would do these things to benefit him/herself or to benefit the organization and its employees.” In order to capture attributions of self-serving versus other-serving motives, the responses were anchored from 1 (*to benefit him/herself, to make him/herself look good*) to 7 (*to benefit the organization and its employees*). Thus, higher scores were an indication of other-serving attributions whereas lower scores were an indication of self-serving attributions. This method has been employed in previous studies on OCB motive attributions (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2008).

Following this, participants were asked to assess Pat’s performance. We used the measure developed by Wright and colleagues (Wright, Kacmar, McMahan, & Deleeuw, 1995) to assess performance ($\alpha = .89$). It consisted of 10 items, including items such as “This subordinate always gets things done on time” and “I am never disappointed in the quality of work that I receive from this subordinate.” Respondents were asked to rate these items on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Lastly, participants completed manipulation checks, assessing subordinate PS and LMX. The subordinate PS manipulation was assessed by three items: “Pat is good at getting people to like him/her,” “Pat understands other people very well,” and “Pat knows how to present him/herself to others.” The LMX manipulation was assessed by responses to one item: “I have a high-quality relationship with Pat.”

Results

Manipulation checks indicated that participants perceived the manipulations as intended. Comparing the means on the three subordinate PS manipulation check items ($\alpha = .92$) revealed significant mean differences between the high ($M = 5.27$, $SD = .93$) and low ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.20$) PS conditions [$t(98) = 9.64$, $p < .001$]. The LMX manipulation check also indicated significant mean differences between the high ($M = 5.75$, $SD = .98$) and low ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 1.18$) LMX conditions [$t(92) = 3.85$, $p < .001$].

Hypothesis tests

Hypothesis 1 was tested using independent samples t -tests for mean differences in motive attributions between the high and low conditions of subordinate PS. Means and standard deviations of motive attributions across conditions are presented in Table 2. There was a significant mean difference in supervisors’ ratings of motive attributions between high ($M = 4.96$, $SD = .79$) and low ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .98$) PS conditions ($t(93) = 4.79$, $p < .01$). We further assessed this using regression analysis. PS conditions were dummy coded as 0 for low PS and 1 for high PS. This was then entered into a regression equation. Results revealed a standardized β of .35 ($p < .01$) for subordinate PS on supervisor’s ratings of motive attributions ($\Delta R^2 = .12$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1. In sum, subordinate PS explained a significant amount of variance in the way supervisors rated the behavioral motives of their subordinates. High PS was related to other-serving motive attributions; low PS was related to self-serving motives attributions.

Hypothesis 2 was also tested using independent samples t -tests. There was a significant mean difference (Table 2) in supervisors’ ratings of motive attributions between high ($M = 4.99$, $SD = .74$) and low ($M = 4.63$,

Table 2. Motive attribution means and standard deviations based on condition—Experiment 1.

	High political skill		Low political skill		High LMX		Low LMX	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Motive attributions	4.96	.80	4.09	.98	4.99	.74	4.63	.78

$SD = .78$) LMX conditions ($t(87) = 2.31, p < .05$). Again, regression analysis was used to further test Hypothesis 2. LMX conditions were dummy coded as 0 for low LMX and 1 for high LMX and entered into a regression equation. Showing support for Hypothesis 2, the results displayed evidence for the effect of LMX on motive attributions ($\beta = .23, p < .01; \Delta R^2 = .06, p < .05$). Like subordinate PS, LMX explained a significant amount of variance in the way supervisors rated the behavioral motives of their subordinates. High LMX was related to other-serving motive attributions, whereas low LMX was related to self-serving motives.

In order to test Hypotheses 3a and 3b, bootstrapping analysis was conducted using methods proposed by Preacher and Hayes (2008, 2004) and Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007). Bootstrapping uses resampling methods (i.e., “cases from the original data set are randomly selected with replacement to generate other data sets”; Kline, 2010, p. 42) and yields more robust predictions (Burke & Moore, 2000; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) because it does not rely on sample distribution assumptions that other, traditional, tests rely on (e.g., “normal and equally variable population distributions”; Kline, 2010, p. 42). Furthermore, mediation tests provided in the Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) macro reduce the likelihood of Type 1 error because the number of inferential tests is reduced. Testing Hypothesis 3a, motive attribution was tested as mediator between the PS conditions and performance ratings. As illustrated in Table 3 and Figure 2, model summary results give support for the overall mediating relationship of motive attributions between PS and performance ($R^2 = .60, F(3,90) = 44.64, p < .001$). Specifically, the indirect effect of PS on performance mediated by motive attributions was estimated at $\beta = .49, 95\% \text{ CI} [.29, .77]$, indicating that the indirect effect is statistically different from zero. Holding the indirect effect constant, the direct relationship between PS (dummy coded for analysis) and

Table 3. Summary of mediation results for political skill and LMX on performance as the dependent variable.

IV	M	Effect	Effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Model summary	
		IV on M	M on DV			R^2	F
Political skill	Motive attributions	.88**	.56**	.53**	.49a	.60	44.64**
LMX	Motive attributions	.35*	.61**	.06	.22a	.34	14.32**

Note. DV, dependent variable (= performance); M, mediating variable; IV, independent variable.
^a95% confidence interval does not include zero.
 * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

performance remained significant ($\beta = .53, p < .01$). Taken together, these results show evidence for partial mediation effects of motive attributions on the PS–performance relationship.

This analysis was repeated for LMX (Table 3 and Figure 3) to test Hypothesis 3b. Model summary results give support for the overall mediating relationship of motive attributions between LMX (also dummy coded for analysis) and performance ($R^2 = .34, F(3,84) = 14.32, p < .001$). The indirect effects of LMX on performance as mediated by motive attributions were estimated at $\beta = .22, 95\% \text{ CI} [.03, .45]$, giving evidence that the indirect effect is statistically different from zero. Holding the indirect effect constant, the direct relationship between LMX and performance was not significant ($\beta = .06, ns$). These results support the argument that the effect LMX has on performance is fully mediated by motive attributions.

As demonstrated in Figure 2 and Figure 3, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 3a and support for Hypothesis 3b. Mediating effects were observed in both analyses. However, the direct relationship between PS and performance remained significant, establishing a partial mediation effect for this relationship. On the other hand, the direct effect of LMX on performance is no

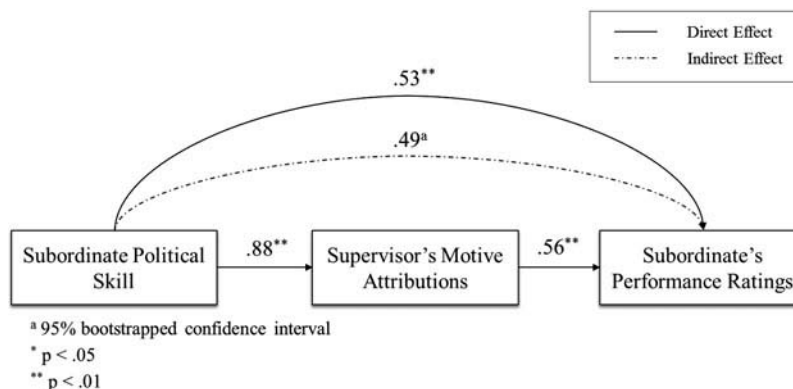


Figure 2. Results summary of political skill model.

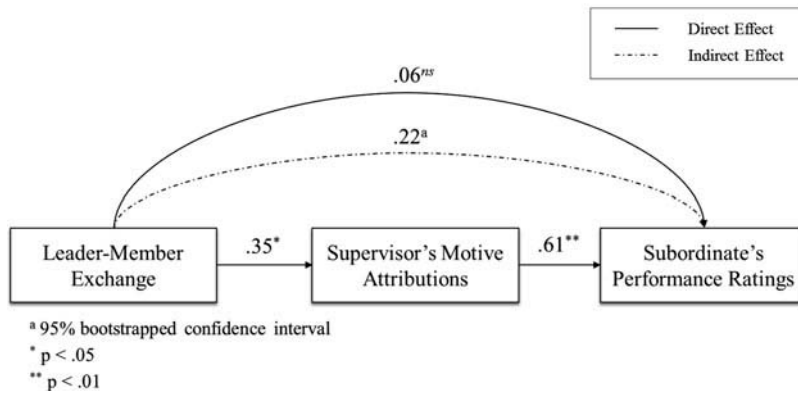


Figure 3. Results summary of LMX model.

longer significant when analyzing this path as mediated by motive attributions, suggesting a full mediation.

Experiment 2

The results of Experiment 1 indicate that both subordinate PS and LMX have effects on motive attributions and performance ratings. However, to fully understand how PS and LMX impact motive attribution ratings, it is necessary to explore these two variables together. As such, Experiment 2 provides an extension of Experiment 1 by examining the interactive effects of subordinate PS and LMX on motive attributions.

Participants

Participants for a second sample were recruited from business students enrolled in upper level (juniors and seniors) undergraduate management courses at a large university in the northeastern United States. One hundred and seventy-five participants (119 males, 56 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 21.78$ years) completed Experiment 2. The racial composition of these subjects was 57% Caucasian, 33% Asian, 3% African-American, 3% Hispanic, and 4% other. Participants in this sample worked an average of 20.94 hours per week. We conducted ANOVAs on the study variables to test for any potential biases from work experience. Similar to the first sample, results indicated no significant mean differences on any of the study variables included in this investigation between the working and nonworking groups in the second sample.

Design and procedure

To effectively test the interactive effects of subordinate PS and LMX on motive attributions, we employed the

same procedures as in Experiment 1 with different manipulations. Specifically, we employed scenarios in which both subordinate PS and LMX were manipulated in the same condition to complete a 2 (high subordinate PS, low subordinate PS) \times 2 (high LMX, low LMX) research design. In doing this, we can examine how varying levels of subordinate PS impact the role of LMX on motive attributions. Additionally, we can look at how varying levels of LMX impact the role of subordinate PS on motive attributions. The resulting four scenarios from this design are high subordinate PS/high LMX, high subordinate PS/low LMX, low subordinate PS/high LMX, and low subordinate PS/low LMX (see Table 2).

Experiment 2 dependent variable measures revealed reliability levels similar to those in Experiment 1. Motive attributions, measured using the OCB scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991), had a Cronbach's alpha of .84. The Cronbach's alpha for the performance measure by Wright and colleagues (1995) was found to be .89.

Results

Manipulation checks indicated that participants perceived the manipulations as intended. The subordinate PS manipulation was assessed by comparing the means of the four different conditions against responses on the subordinate PS manipulation check items ($\alpha = .94$). Results indicated significant mean differences between the high and low subordinate PS conditions ($F(3,182) = 230.95, p < .001$), regardless of LMX level. Similarly, the LMX manipulation was assessed by comparing the means of the four different experimental conditions against the one-item LMX manipulation check. Results revealed significant mean differences between the high and low LMX manipulations (F

Table 4. Means and standard deviations of motive attributions from the interactive conditions of subordinate political skill and LMX—Experiment 2.

	Low PS/ low LMX		Low PS/ high LMX		High PS/ low LMX		High PS/ high LMX	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Motive attributions	4.23	.96	4.18	.60	4.89	.96	4.91	.84

Table 5. Analysis of variance table: Motive attributions.

Source of variation	Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>
Main effects				
Subordinate political skill	20.84	1	20.84	28.66**
Leader–member exchange	.01	1	.01	.01
Two-way interaction				
Subordinate political skill × leader–member exchange	.04	1	.04	.05

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

(3,182) = 115.47, $p < .001$), regardless of subordinate PS level. This indicates that the two manipulations were seen independently by the respondents.

Hypothesis tests

Hypothesis 4 considers the interactive effect of subordinate PS and LMX on motive attributions. Means and standard deviations for motive attribution scores across each condition are recorded in Table 4. To fully test Hypothesis 4, we performed a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), using two between-subject factors: subordinate PS and LMX. The results are recorded in Table 5. Outcomes revealed a main effect for the subordinate PS on motive attributions ($F(1,171) = 28.66$, $p < .01$), but not for LMX on motive attributions ($F(1,171) = .01$, ns). Furthermore, as Table 5 indicates, the interaction between subordinate PS and LMX on supervisor ratings of motive attributions was not significant ($F(1,171) = .05$, ns). These results suggest that LMX makes little difference when PS is included as a factor. Participants more often rated their subordinate's behavior as other-serving in the high-PS conditions than in the low political conditions, regardless of LMX.

Discussion

The results obtained from this two-experiment study were mostly consistent with the proposed hypotheses. It was observed that PS and LMX have an effect on how supervisors attribute OCB motive. The results of this study support the idea that subordinates high in PS and subordinates that have a high LMX relationship with their leader will generally be perceived as having other-

serving motives by their leader, and thus their performance will be rated as higher. Further, motive attributions at least partially mediate these relationships. The subordinate PS–performance ratings relationship was partially mediated by motive attributions, whereas the LMX–performance ratings relationship was fully mediated by motive attributions. This indicates that although PS does impact motive attributions, it still has a direct impact on performance ratings. Further, it seems that the impact of LMX on performance is explained by the positive attributions leaders make about their subordinates' other-serving behaviors.

Theoretical contributions

A main contribution of this article is the integration of subordinate PS and LMX in leader attribution models. This builds on previous models of leader attributions (e.g., Eastman, 1994; Halbesleben et al., 2010) by including aspects of the subordinate and the relationship, furthering our understanding of this area of research. Our results highlight how motive attribution antecedents depend on individual and relationship characteristics, such as subordinate PS and LMX. Consistent with calls from Bowler et al. (2010) and Ferris et al. (2007), identifying PS and LMX as factors in how motive attributions are developed sheds light on the black box between OCBs and supervisors' evaluations of their subordinates' motives. This is further evident in the mediation effect of motive attributions on performance ratings. The LMX–performance relationship was fully mediated by motive attributions, whereas the subordinate PS–performance relationship was only partially mediated. These results have two major theoretical implications. First, it is necessary to reflect upon the potent effect PS has on important outcomes such as performance ratings. Though motive attributions reduced the absolute effect of PS on performance, this effect was not reduced to zero. Not only is PS essential in appearing other-serving, it also can be a useful predictor in subjective measures such as performance outcomes in and of itself. Second, the impact LMX has on performance is fully mediated by motive attributions, indicating relationship quality alone functions in a different manner than does PS. PS is a social effectiveness ability that results in greater influence power. In fact, this power may be enough to affect performance evaluations directly. However, LMX deals primarily with relationship quality, and it may be the trust component of the relationship that leads supervisors to perceive their subordinates' behaviors as other-serving rather than self-serving. Relationship

quality does not influence performance ratings in the same way as PS.

A second major contribution is parceling out the relative importance of PS and LMX on work outcomes. One of the largest strengths of this study is the experimental design, allowing us to investigate the separate role of PS and LMX on motive attributions and performance ratings. Without manipulating information in an experimental nature, it is nearly impossible to parcel out the effects of PS and LMX. Indeed, researchers have often looked at the role of PS in developing a more positive LMX relationship (e.g., Brouer, Duke, Treadway, & Ferris, 2009) or interactive effects of PS and LMX on work-related outcomes (e.g., Breland, Treadway, Duke, & Adams, 2007). The current study offers a unique perspective by removing potentially overlapping effects of PS on LMX–work outcomes relationships.

Conducting our investigation in this manner allowed us to make a more confident conclusion regarding the relative importance of PS and LMX on motive attributions and performance ratings. These findings displayed initial evidence that PS may be a more important factor than LMX in some instances. Specifically, respondents in the supervisor role rated their subordinate's behavior as other-serving significantly more when their subordinate was high in PS rather than low in PS, regardless of the quality of the relationship. Our results support findings from a meta-analysis that PS is related to performance measures above and beyond all other factors (Munyun, Summers, Thompson, Ferris, 2015). It may be that highly politically skilled individuals are better able to recognize the need for citizenship behaviors, and are more likely to have the skills to effectively execute such behaviors while giving the impression of an authentic organizational concern.

Practical implications

This two-experiment study provides two main practical implications. First, the results indicate that subordinate PS can significantly impact the way leaders attribute motives to their subordinates' behaviors. PS is the capacity to operate effectively within the organizational arena, and often these ratings of effectiveness (i.e., performance and/or citizenship behaviors) are those submitted by their supervisor. First, the direct effect of PS on positive motive attributions suggests that social effectiveness has a direct impact on the way that leaders interpret subordinate behavior. In practical terms, this study further lends support to the argument for “soft skills” training and the ability to network and

manage impressions effectively for employees. Generally, business schools recognize this need and provide their students with the opportunity to develop these skills. However, not all employees receive this training and the organization is their first stop. As such, organizations should not underestimate the added value of providing their employees with a chance to develop soft skills internally. This could be particularly important in fields based in the hard sciences or technology where employees possess the expertise, but lack the explicit social training.

Second, it is evident that motive attributions affect the way supervisors rate their subordinates, given the same behavior. This research shows an attribution bias in the performance appraisal process. Performance ratings are a necessary tool used in performance management. Decisions such as promotions, raises, and terminations are often based on the performance appraisal process. These decisions are clearly linked to important outcomes for both the employee and the organization. Though purely objective performance ratings are unlikely, leaders should be made aware of the varying factors that affect the ways they rate their subordinates on performance, in an effect to reduce the influence of subjectivity on intended objective outcomes. Research has shown that making individuals aware of their tendencies to be biased or that their objective ratings are influenced by subjective elements may impact decision making to reduce some of these biases (Endsley, 1995). Moreover, to guard against these influences, organizations should implement multidimensional performance ratings—that is, 360° feedback, peer ratings, self-ratings, customer ratings, and objective criteria (i.e., units sold).

Potential limitations

This study employed cross-sectional, self-reported data from a single source, which raises two central concerns: one of common method variance and the other dealing with internal validity. To assess any biases that could be present due to common method effects, Harman's one-factor test, including confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis, was conducted. First, all items making up the study variables from Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 were entered into an exploratory factor analysis. Results indicated two distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together account for 49.43% of the variance. Second, two confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to compare the fit of a single-factor model and a two-factor model. Results demonstrated that the single-factor model did not fit the data well (model $\chi^2 = 2172.6$, $df = 253$, $p < .0001$). Better fit was

demonstrated with the two-factor model (model $\chi^2 = 1606.4$, $df = 252$, $p < .0001$). An analysis of variance revealed that the two-factor model fit the data significantly better than did the single-factor model ($\chi^2_{\text{difference}} = 566.18$, $p < .0001$). Though these analyses do not remove the possibility for common method variance, they do provide evidence that common method variance is unlikely to confound the interpretations of our results.

As stated, we also need to consider possible threats of our design to internal validity. We implemented an experimental design in which the independent variables were manipulated in both studies, helping increase internal validity. However, the mediating and outcome variables were collected at the same time, which may challenge our causal claims. We have taken significant measures to help alleviate these concerns, mainly through relying rigorously on theoretical explanations for the proposed relationships and utilizing advanced statistical methods (e.g., tests of indirect effects, bootstrapping). Despite this, however, we recommend that future studies consider incorporating multiple sources in the data collection process.

Although the experimental nature of this study is one of its strengths, there are also inherent limitations. The results are based on two samples of university students. Though most of the students have working experience and there were no significant mean differences in study variables among working and nonworking students, scenario experiment designs limit the possibility of other “real-world” phenomena. However, we believe this study provides a necessary basis for research considering PS and relationship quality on motive attributions. To build upon this basis, we suggest that future studies explore the relationships investigated in this study using a field sample across multiple organizations, industries, and cultures.

Conclusion

Though some research has addressed the importance of supervisors’ motive attributions of their subordinates’ OCBs on performance ratings, the majority of the extant literature on OCB motives focuses on how individuals’ motives impact OCB effectiveness. Furthermore, little research has addressed the question of what factors could bias supervisors’ motive attributions. To better understand how OCBs lead to performance ratings, this study examined how subordinate PS and LMX impact the development of self-versus other-serving motive attributions. We were able to demonstrate that subordinates with PS and in high-quality LMX relationships receive more

favorable, other-serving attributions, which are related to higher evaluations of performance. Moreover, when parceling out the effects of these highly interlaced variables, we found support that PS may be a more potent contributor to motive attributions than LMX. Our results demonstrate the utility of training organizational members on “soft skills” and of including multisource ratings for performance evaluations.

About the authors

Rebecca L. Badawy is an assistant professor of management in the Williamson College of Business Administration (WCBA) at Youngstown State University (YSU). She received her PhD in organization and human resources from the School of Management at SUNY Buffalo. Her research focuses on social influence, impression management, individual self-concepts, identity, and leadership. Rebecca leads the leadership certificate program at YSU and helps business leaders develop their leadership skills. She can be reached at rbadawy@ysu.edu.

Brooke A. Shaughnessy is an assistant professor in the Institute for Leadership and Organization at the Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich. She received her PhD in organization and human resources from the School of Management at SUNY Buffalo. Prior to taking her position at LMU, she held a postdoctorate position at the Technische Universität München. Brooke conducts leadership workshops, specifically focused on women and leadership. She can be reached at shaughnessy@bwl.lmu.de.

Robyn L. Brouer is an assistant professor in the Management Department in the Richard J. Wehle School of Business at Canisius College. She received her PhD in organizational behavior and human resource management from Florida State University. Her research interests include leadership, social influence, and person-environment fit. She has more than 25 peer-reviewed publications in these research areas. She is the co-faculty adviser for the student Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) chapter. Robyn has also been appointed the director of the Western New York Prosperity Fellowship. She can be reached at robyn.brouer@canisius.edu.

Stephanie R. Seitz is an assistant professor in the Department of Management at California State University, East Bay. Stephanie received her PhD from the School of Management at SUNY Buffalo in the area of organization and human resources. Her research interests include leadership, toxic relationships at work, power and politics, and implicit theories. She can be reached at stephanie.seitz@csueastbay.edu.

References

- Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 247–260. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.247

- Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *The Academy of Management Review*, 24(1), 82–98. doi:10.5465/AMR.1999.1580442
- Bowler, W. M., Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Paul, J. R. B. (2010). If you're close with the leader, you must be a brownnose: The role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader, and coworker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(4), 309–316. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.04.001
- Breland, J. W., Treadway, D. C., Duke, A. B., & Adams, G. L. (2007). The interactive effect of leader–member exchange and political skill on subjective career success. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 13(3), 1–14. doi:10.1177/10717919070130030101
- Brouer, R. L., Duke, A., Treadway, D. C., & Ferris, G. R. (2009). The moderating effect of political skill on the demographic dissimilarity–Leader–member exchange quality relationship. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20(2), 61–69. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.015
- Burke, L. A., & Moore, J. E. (2000). The reverberating effects of job rotation: A theoretical exploration of nonrotaters' fairness perceptions. *Human Resource Management Review*, 10(2), 127–152. doi:10.1016/s1053-4822(99)00047-9
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13, 46–78. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(75)90005-7
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader–member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(3), 618–634.
- Duarte, N. T., Goodson, J. R., & Klich, N. R. (1994). Effects of dyadic quality and duration on performance appraisal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 499–521. doi:10.2307/256698
- Eastman, K. K. (1994). In the eyes of the beholder: An attributional approach to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5), 1379–1391. doi:10.2307/256678
- Eastman, K. K., & Pawar, B. S. (Eds.). (2005). *An integrative view of and a common conceptual space for employee extra-role behaviors*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishing.
- Endsley, M. R. (1995). Toward a theory of situation awareness in dynamic systems. *Human Factors*, 37(1), 32–64. doi:10.1518/001872095779049543
- Epitropaki, O., Kapoutsis, I., Ferris, G. R., Drivas, K., & Ntotsi, A. (2014, August). *Navigating on uneven terrain: Political skill, LMX differentiation and employee outcomes*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Proceedings, Philadelphia, PA.
- Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewé, P. L., Brouer, R. L., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007). Political skill in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 290–320. doi:10.1177/0149206307300813
- Ferris, G. R., Bhawuk, D. P. S., Fedor, D. F., & Judge, T. A. (1995). Organizational politics and citizenship: Attributions of intentionality and construct definition. In M. J. Martinko (Ed.), *Attribution theory: An organizational perspective* (pp. 231–252). Delray Beach, FL: St. Lucie Press.
- Ferris, G. R., Davidson, S. L., & Perrewé, P. L. (2005). *Political skill at work: Impact on work effectiveness*. Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.
- Ferris, G. R., Perrewé, P. L., Anthony, W. P., & Gilmore, D. C. (2000). Political skill at work. *Organizational Dynamics*, 28, 25–37. doi:10.1016/S0090-2616(00)00007-3
- Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., Douglas, C., & Frink, D. D. (2005). Development and validation of the Political Skill Inventory. *Journal of Management*, 31(1), 126–152. doi:10.1177/0149206304271386
- George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good–doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work–organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(2), 310. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.112.2.310
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827–844. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827
- Gordon, R. A. (1996). Impact of ingratiation on judgements and evaluations: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 54–70. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.71.1.54
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader–member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219–247. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5
- Graham, J. W. (1991). An essay on organizational citizenship behavior. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4(4), 249–270. doi:10.1007/BF01385031
- Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. (2009). Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 900–912. doi:10.1037/a0013770
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Bowler, W. M., Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2010). Organizational concern, prosocial values, or impression management? How supervisors attribute motives to organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40(6), 1450–1489. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00625.x
- Harris, K. J., Harris, R. B., & Brouer, R. L. (2009). LMX and subordinate political skill: Direct and interactive effects on turnover intentions and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 39(10), 2373–2395. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00530.x
- Harris, K. J., Kacmar, C. J., Zivnuska, S., & Shaw, J. D. (2007). The impact of political skill on impression management effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 278–285. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.278
- Harvey, P., Madison, K., Martinko, M., Crook, T. R., & Crook, T. A. (2014). Attribution theory in the organizational sciences: The road traveled and the path ahead. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 28(2), 128–146. doi:10.5465/amp.2012.0175
- Harvey, P., Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2006). Promoting authentic behavior in organizations: An attributional perspective. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 12(3), 1–11. doi:10.1177/107179190601200301

- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Huang, G., Zhao, H., Niu, X., Ashford, S., & Lee, C. (2013). Reducing job insecurity and increasing performance ratings: Does impression management matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(5), 852–862. doi:10.1037/a0033151
- Johnson, D. E., Erez, A., Kiker, D. S., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2002). Liking and attributions of motives as mediators of the relationships between individuals' reputations, helpful behaviors and raters' reward decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 808–815. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.808
- Kline, R. B. (2010). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2004). Nonlinearity in the relationship between political skill and work outcomes: Convergent evidence from three studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(2), 294–308. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2003.08.002
- Kolodinsky, R. W., Treadway, D. C., & Ferris, G. R. (2007). Political skill and influence effectiveness: Testing portions of an expanded Ferris and Judge (1991) model. *Human Relations*, 60(12), 1747–1777. doi:10.1177/0018726707084913
- Laird, D. M., Zboja, J. J., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). Partial mediation of the political skill–reputation relationship. *Career Development International*, 17(6), 557–582. doi:10.1108/13620431211280132
- Lemmon, G., & Wayne, S. J. (2015). Underlying motives of organizational citizenship behavior comparing egoistic and altruistic motivations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 22(2), 129–148. doi:10.1177/1548051814535638
- Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader–member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, 24(1), 43.
- Liu, Y., Ferris, G. R., Zinko, R., Perrewé, P. L., Weitz, B., & Xu, J. (2007). Dispositional antecedents and outcomes of political skill in organizations: A four-study investigation with convergence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(1), 146–165. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2007.04.003
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Ahearne, M. (1998). Some possible antecedents and consequences of in-role and extra-role salesperson performance. *The Journal of Marketing*, 62(3), 87–98. doi:10.2307/1251745
- Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Structure in fives: Designing effective organizations* (p. 210). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Munyon, T. P., Summers, J. K., Thompson, K. M., & Ferris, G. R. (2015). Political skill and work outcomes: A theoretical extension, meta-analytic investigation, and agenda for the future. *Personnel Psychology*, 68(1), 143–184. doi:10.1111/peps.2015.68.issue-1
- Nguyen, N. T., Seers, A., & Hartman, N. S. (2008). Putting a good face on impression management: Team citizenship and team satisfaction. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 9(2), 148–168.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Collins, K. M. T. (2007). A typology of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research. *The Qualitative Report*, 12(2), 281–316.
- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775–802. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01781.x
- Organ, D. W. (1988). A restatement of the satisfaction–performance hypothesis. *Journal of Management*, 14(4), 547–557. doi:10.1177/014920638801400405
- Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85–97. doi:10.1207/s15327043hup1002_2
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981). *Power in organizations*. Boston, MA: Pitman.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 513–563. doi:10.1177/014920630002600307
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 36(4), 717–731. doi:10.3758/BF03206553
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Assessing mediation in communication research. In A. F. Slater & L. B. Snyder (Eds.), *The Sage sourcebook of advanced data analysis methods for communication research* (p. 13). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42(1), 185–227. doi:10.1080/00273170701341316
- Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(6), 1306–1314. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.86.6.1306
- Treadway, D. C., Ferris, G. R., Duke, A. B., Adams, G. L., & Thatcher, J. B. (2007). The moderating role of subordinate political skill on supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 848–855. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.848
- Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17(3), 601–617. doi:10.1177/014920639101700305
- Wright, P. M., Kacmar, K. M., McMahan, G. C., & Deleuw, K. (1995). P=f(M X A): Cognitive ability as a moderator of the relationship between personality and job performance. *Journal of Management*, 21(6), 1129–1139. doi:10.1177/014920639502100606
- Yeager, D. S., Krosnick, J. A., Chang, L., Javitz, H. S., Levendusky, M. S., Simpser, A., & Wang, R. (2011). Comparing the accuracy of RDD telephone surveys and Internet surveys conducted with probability and non-probability samples. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 75, 709–747.