

University of South Alabama

**JagWorks@USA**

---

Theses and Dissertations

Graduate School

---

12-2022

## **Impact of Burnout on Risk-Taking: The Role of Managerial Political Skill**

Ashleigh M. Vignes

Follow this and additional works at: [https://jagworks.southalabama.edu/theses\\_diss](https://jagworks.southalabama.edu/theses_diss)



Part of the [Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons](#), [Business and Corporate Communications Commons](#), and the [Performance Management Commons](#)

---

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH ALABAMA  
MITCHELL COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

THE IMPACT OF BURNOUT ON RISK-TAKING: THE ROLE OF MANAGERIAL  
POLITICAL SKILL

BY

Ashleigh M. Vignes

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
University of South Alabama  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Business Administration, Management

December 2022

Approved:

Date:

*Robyn Brouer (Stefanone)*  
Robyn Brouer (Stefanone) (Oct 5, 2022 10:32 EDT)

---

Chair of Dissertation Committee: Dr. Robyn Brouer

*Joe F. Hair, Jr.*  
Joe F. Hair, Jr. (Oct 5, 2022 09:57 CDT)

---

Committee Member: Dr. Joseph Hair

*Matthew Howard*  
Matthew Howard (Oct 5, 2022 11:07 CDT)

---

Committee Member: Dr. Matthew Howard

*I-Heng Wu*  
I-Heng Wu (Oct 5, 2022 13:30 CDT)

---

Committee Member: Dr. I-Heng Ray Wu

*Gwendolyn Pennywell*  
Gwendolyn Pennywell (Oct 5, 2022 13:39 CDT)

---

Director of Graduate Studies: Dr. Gwendolyn Pennywell

*Harold Pardue*

---

Dean of the Graduate School: Dr. J. Harold Pardue

10/27/2022

**THE IMPACT OF BURNOUT ON RISK-TAKING: THE ROLE OF  
MANAGERIAL POLITICAL SKILL**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
University of South Alabama  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Business Administration, Management

December 2022

by

Ashleigh M. Vignes

MBA, William Carey University, 2010

B.S., University of Southern Mississippi, 2008

December 2022

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to thank my parents, Johnny and Cassie Conner, for their continual support throughout this process. Everything that I am today is because of their constant love, guidance, and sacrifice. I will never be able to express my gratitude for them. My hope has always been to make them proud.

I want to thank my husband, Chris, for his patience, kindness, and encouragement. Thank you for making me sit down and write, but also for making me take breaks to walk Pumpkin and get fresh air. Thank you for being positive, for making me laugh when I didn't want to, and for always reminding me that the end is in sight.

I want to thank my manager, Elaine Ramirez, for encouraging me to never stop learning and growing, both professionally and academically. Thank you for teaching me that challenges are usually opportunities.

I want to thank my chair, Dr. Robyn Brouer, and committee for their support and guidance throughout the dissertation process. I have learned so much in this program and know that it will serve me well in the future.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES .....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	viii
ABSTRACT.....	ix
CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION .....	1
CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT.....	6
2.1 Conservation of Resources Theory .....	6
2.1.1 Resources.....	8
2.1.1.1 Object Resources. ....	8
2.1.1.2 Condition Resources.....	9
2.1.1.3 Personal Resources. ....	9
2.1.1.4 Energy Resources.....	10
2.1.2 Principles of Conservation of Resources Theory .....	10
2.1.2.1 Principle 1 – Primacy of Loss Principle. ....	10
2.1.2.2 Principle 2 – Resource Investment Principle.....	11
2.1.2.3 Principle 3 – Gain Paradox Principle.....	12
2.1.2.4 Principle 4 – Desperation Principle. ....	12
2.1.3 Corollaries of Conservation of Resources Theory .....	12
2.1.3.1 Corollary 1. ....	12
2.1.3.2 Corollary 2. ....	12
2.1.3.3 Corollary 3. ....	13
2.1.3.4 Corollary 4. ....	13
2.2 Burnout.....	13
2.2.1 Emotional Exhaustion.....	14
2.2.2 Depersonalization.....	15
2.2.3 Diminished Personal Accomplishment .....	15

2.3 Moral Disengagement .....	16
2.3.1 Cognitive Reconstruction Mechanisms .....	17
2.3.2 Obscuring or Distorting Mechanisms .....	18
2.3.3 Blaming and Dehumanization Mechanisms .....	19
2.4 Political Skill .....	19
2.4.1 Social Astuteness .....	20
2.4.2 Interpersonal Influence .....	21
2.4.3 Networking Ability .....	21
2.4.4 Apparent Sincerity .....	22
2.5 Risk .....	23
2.5.1 Risk-Taking Attitude .....	24
2.6 Hypothesis Development .....	25
2.6.1 Burnout and Moral Disengagement .....	25
2.6.2 Moral Disengagement and Risk-Taking Attitude .....	27
2.6.3 Burnout, Moral Disengagement, and Risk-Taking Attitude .....	28
2.6.4 Burnout, Political Skill, and Moral Disengagement .....	29
2.6.5 Moral Disengagement, Political Skill, and Risk-Taking Attitude .....	32
CHAPTER III - METHODS .....	34
3.1 Study Design .....	34
3.2 Procedure .....	34
3.2.1 Time 1 .....	34
3.2.2 Time 2 .....	35
3.2.3 Data Quality .....	35
3.3 Sample Characteristics .....	36
3.4 Measures .....	36
3.4.1 Burnout .....	36
3.4.2 Moral Disengagement .....	36
3.4.3 Risk-Taking Attitude .....	37
3.4.4 Managerial Political Skill .....	37
3.4.5 Controls .....	37
CHAPTER IV - RESULTS .....	39
4.1 Analyses .....	39
4.1.1 PLS-SEM .....	39

4.1.1.1 Measurement Model. ....	39
4.1.1.2 Structural Model. ....	43
4.1.2 PROCESS Macro .....	51
4.1.2.1 Assessing Discriminant Validity.....	51
4.1.2.3 Hypothesis Testing.....	53
4.1.3 Supplemental PROCESS Analysis.....	56
4.1.3.1 Results.....	56
4.1.4 Comparison of PLS-SEM and PROCESS Macro .....	59
CHAPTER V - DISCUSSION.....	61
5.1 Theoretical Implications.....	62
5.2 Practical Implications.....	64
5.3 Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research.....	66
5.4 Conclusion.....	68
REFERENCES .....	69
Appendix A: IRB Approval to Conduct Research.....	82
Appendix B: Codebook for Dissertation Data Collection – Summer 2022.....	83
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH .....	89

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
4.1. Outer Model Analysis: Item Loadings and Statistical Significance .....	41
4.2. Outer Model Analysis: Reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Validity.....	42
4.3. Inner Model Analysis: VIF .....	43
4.4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables.....	45
4.5. R2 and Adjusted R2 .....	48
4.6. F Square .....	48
4.7. PLS-SEM vs. LM Prediction Errors .....	50
4.8. Model Fit Conclusions.....	52
4.9. Discriminant Validity.....	53
4.10. Direct Effects – Primary Model.....	55
4.11. Direct Effects – Supplemental Model.....	58
4.12. PLS-SEM vs. PROCESS Macro – Coefficients and P-Values.....	59
4.13. PLS-SEM vs. PROCESS Macro – R <sup>2</sup> Values.....	60



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
4.1. Inner Model Analysis: Path Coefficients.....	44
4.2. Conceptual Model with PLS-SEM Results.....	47
4.3. Conceptual Model with PROCESS Results.....	55
4.4. Supplemental Conceptual Model with Results .....	57

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CCA	Confirmatory Composite Analysis
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
COR	Conservation of Resources
CR	Composite Reliability
DF	Degrees of Freedom
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait
IRB	Institutional Review Board
LM	Linear Regression Model
MAE	Mean Absolute Error
MAPE	Mean Absolute Percentage Error
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
RMSE	Root Mean Squared Error
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

## ABSTRACT

Vignes, Ashleigh M., Ph.D., University of South Alabama, December 2022. The Impact of Burnout on Risk-Taking: The Role of Managerial Political Skill. Chair of Committee: Robyn Brouer, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between burnout, moral disengagement, risk-taking attitude, and managerial political skill. Using conservation of resources (COR) theory, this study seeks to determine what happens when employees who are experiencing burnout continue working within the organization. The study specifically focuses on the darker side of burnout, and its relationship with moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude by testing the proposition that employees who are experiencing burnout will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. The impact of managerial political skill on these relationships was also examined as managerial political skill was proposed to moderate the positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement and moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. To test the proposed hypotheses, Prolific, an online survey company, was utilized to collect data from 266 respondents. The survey was conducted in two phases, with each phase collected one month apart. The results of the study confirmed a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. Contrary to the hypotheses, the relationship between burnout and moral disengagement was not supported. Political skill was proposed to moderate the positive relationship between

burnout and moral disengagement and moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude.

These relationships were not supported. In addition, burnout did not have a significant indirect effect on risk-taking attitude through moral disengagement. Implications of the findings and future directions are discussed.

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

On March 11, 2020, the World Health Organization declared the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak a global pandemic (Cucinotta & Vanelli, 2020). Offices and workplaces across the country were suddenly closed, forcing many Americans to work remotely while balancing increased demands at home. As the world enters the third year of the COVID-19 pandemic, nearly 70 percent of professionals who transitioned to remote work as a result of the pandemic say they now work on the weekends (Maurer, 2020). Approximately 45 percent of professionals who transitioned to remote work as a result of the pandemic say they regularly work more hours during the week than they did before (Maurer, 2020). Unsurprisingly, burnout is on the rise amongst American workers. According to the American Psychological Association's 2021 Work and Well-being Survey of 1,501 U.S. adult workers, 79% of employees experienced work-related stress in the month prior to the survey (Abramson, 2022). Additionally, nearly 3 in 5 employees reported negative impacts of work-related stress, including lack of interest, motivation, or energy (26%) and lack of effort at work (19%) (Abramson, 2022). Further, 36% reported cognitive weariness, 32% reported emotional exhaustion, and 44% reported physical fatigue—a 38% increase since 2019 (Abramson, 2022).

Burnout occurs when an employee's energy or capability to work diminishes (Korunka et al., 2010). This typically occurs over time when an employee's work environment does not provide the needed resources and is especially stressful. During the terminal stages of burnout, employees will often experience a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion from which it is difficult to rebound (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001). Burnout can be problematic for several reasons. It is known that burnout may lead to turnover intentions and actual turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Burnout also can cause employees to experience feelings of hopelessness, irritability, detachment from work and colleagues, absenteeism, impatience, moodiness, and less tolerance for others (John, 2007). In addition, it is known that turnover can be extremely costly for organizations. In the United States, it is estimated that burnout costs corporations more than \$300 billion a year (Rosch, 2001). However, what if employees don't turnover and decide to continue working for the organization while they are experiencing burnout? This study focuses on the already dark side of burnout, and its relationship with moral disengagement, the cognitive justifications that allow an individual to participate in some form of unethical behavior without feeling the accompanying guilt, and risk-taking attitude (He et al., 2019).

Conservation of resources (COR) theory is used to explain the relationship between burnout, moral disengagement, and risk-taking attitude. COR theory is based upon the tenet that individuals are motivated by resources, specifically to conserve their current resources and acquire new resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). It is important to note that COR theory recognizes that situations that threaten or deplete resources are inherently stressful (Holmgreen et al., 2017). Therefore, resources influence the way in

which an individual will cope with stress. Individuals respond to stress by attempting to limit losses and maximize resource gains (Holmgren et al., 2017). COR theory acknowledges that individuals display a variety of behaviors as a response to stress, but the behaviors serve the common goal of resource conservation or resource gain (Holmgren et al., 2017). In addition, COR theory integrates the individual's environment into the process of managing stressors (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

Drawing upon COR theory, it is proposed that moral disengagement allows employees who are experiencing burnout to minimize the anticipated costs of their unethical behavior, ultimately protecting their already limited resources (Tillman et al., 2018). It is believed that employees will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude in order to prevent further resource loss, to recover from loss of resources, and to gain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Based upon this information, it is also proposed that employees will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. Additionally, moral disengagement is believed to be the link between burnout and risk-taking attitude. It is known that burned out employees often participate in behaviors to preserve, recover, or maximize their own resources (Nelissen et al., 2013). To preserve their scarce resources, employees experiencing burnout will be more likely to engage in moral disengagement (Tillman et al., 2018). When employees recognize potential threats to their limited existing resources, they will initiate the process needed to protect their resources (Hobfoll, 2001). In this case, the process includes utilizing moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude to prevent further resource loss, aid in recovery from the loss of resources, or gain additional resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

While COR theory is useful in understanding the relationship between burnout, moral disengagement, and risk-taking attitude, this study seeks to determine the impact of managerial political skill on these relationships. Political skill is defined as an individual's ability to understand others in the workplace and utilize this information to influence the behavior of others to achieve their personal objectives or the organization's objectives (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). Managerial political skill is proposed to moderate the relationship between employee burnout and moral disengagement, such that employees with politically skilled managers will experience lower levels of moral disengagement than employees with less politically skilled managers. In addition, political skill is proposed to moderate the relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude, such that employees with politically skilled managers be less likely to utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude.

To achieve the goals of the proposed study, Prolific, an online survey company, was utilized to collect data. The participants of the study were recruited by the online survey company. The survey was conducted in two phases, with each phase collected one month apart. It is believed that the results of this study will contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between burnout, moral disengagement, risk-taking attitude, and managerial political skill. This study highlights the impacts of burnout and moral disengagement in the workplace and will be especially beneficial to those serving in a management role. The theoretical implications of COR theory in the workplace are twofold. COR theory was found to be relevant to burnout and moral disengagement because resources influence the way in which an employee will cope with stress. As a result of this study, employers should be able to identify when employees are



experiencing burnout and moral disengagement. In addition, managers who apply the tenets of COR theory should also be able to recognize the potential pitfalls that may occur when an employee who is experiencing burnout remains in their current role.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

#### **2.1 Conservation of Resources Theory**

Conservation of resources (COR) theory was developed by Stevan Hobfoll as a theory of motivation (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Hobfoll developed the theory in response to the commonly held belief that stress only exists within the minds of individuals and is an unwarranted reaction to an event or circumstance (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). The theory provides a framework that can be utilized to analyze the processes related to experiencing, managing, and surviving chronic and traumatic stress (Holmgreen et al., 2017). In addition, COR theory introduced the idea that stress originates from real loss or threat, failure to obtain resources, or following significant resource investment (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

The term “stress” was first used by Hans Selye, who defined stress as “the nonspecific response to any demand (Selye, 1956).” This definition was later refined by differentiating between the stressor and the stress response (Koolhaas et al., 2011). It is important to note that stress is an external force that can impact a single person or an entire organization (Schuler, 1980). When an individual experiences stress at work, it is referred to as job stress. Job stress can be defined as a “misfit between an individual’s

skill and abilities and the demands of the individual's job (French et al., 1974).” A later definition of job stress describes it as a “condition within which job-related factors interact with an employee to alter their psychological or physiological condition, causing the employee to deviate from their normal functions (Beehr & Newman, 1978). Stress, as it relates to COR theory, will occur in one of three instances (Hobfoll, 2001). Stress will occur:

1. ...when an individual's resources are threatened with loss (Hobfoll, 2001).
2. ...when an individual's resources are lost (Hobfoll, 2001).
3. ...when an individual is unable to gain sufficient resources following a significant resource investment (Hobfoll, 2001).

COR theory is based upon the tenet that individuals are motivated by resources, specifically to conserve their current resources and acquire new resources (Halbesleben, 2014) and situations that threaten or deplete resources are inherently stressful (Holmgreen et al., 2017). Therefore, resources influence the way in which an individual will cope with stress. Individuals respond to stress by attempting to limit losses and maximize resource gains (Holmgreen et al., 2017). COR theory states that individuals display a variety of behaviors as a response to stress, but the behaviors serve the common goal of resource conservation or resource gain (Holmgreen et al., 2017). In addition, COR theory considers the individual's environment into the process of managing stressors (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

### **2.1.1 Resources**

As previously discussed, COR theory centers around resources. Resources can be defined as something of value to an individual (Hobfoll, 1988). Conservation of resource theory states that the resources valued by individuals are either universal or culturally embedded (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). There are various types of resources, including object resources, condition resources, personal resources, and energy resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In accordance with COR theory, individuals will experience stress when these resources are lost or positive well-being when resources are gained (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

#### **2.1.1.1 Object Resources.**

Object resources are valued by individuals due to a specific aspect of their physical nature or the status associated with the resource's rarity or cost (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). An example of an object resource would be a vehicle (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Luxury vehicles are often seen as status symbols (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). A home would be a second example of an object resource, while a mansion would be considered a status symbol (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). In addition, clothing is also considered to be an object resource, while designer clothing would be viewed as a status symbol (Alvaro et al., 2010).

Research states that an object's physical attributes and status promote stress resistance (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). In each of the previous examples, the object that is considered to be a status symbol is linked to socioeconomic status, an integral component in stress resistance (Hobfoll et al., 1995). As an individual's socioeconomic status increases, their access to better pay, working conditions, and living conditions increases (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1969). In accordance with COR theory, status

resources often facilitate the emergence of further social and personal resources (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). When this occurs, individuals can establish a background net of potential resources that can aid in stress resistance and coping (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Further, socioeconomic status reportedly exhibits an inverse relationship with negative emotions and emotional disorders (Gallo et al., 2005). Based upon this relationship, it can be inferred that object resources that are viewed as status symbols buffer the negative effects of stress.

#### **2.1.1.2 Condition Resources.**

Condition resources are social circumstances that are valued by individuals because they are sought after (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). An example of a condition resource would be employment, tenure, or seniority (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Condition resources play an important role in understanding the stress resistance abilities of an individual (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). In accordance with COR theory, condition resources can serve as a buffer against stressors for many individuals (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). For example, consider the previously noted condition of employment. The condition of employment provides various benefits or resources, including income, a sense of identity, and access to social relationships (Jahoda, 1982). Individuals can build upon these resources to establish a background net of further potential resources that can aid in stress resistance and coping (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004).

#### **2.1.1.3 Personal Resources.**

Personal resources are characteristics or skills that are perceived as valuable because they aid in stress resistance (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). An example of a personal resource would be personal traits or skills, such as self-efficacy or optimism

(Hobfoll et al., 2018). Positive personal traits, including high self-esteem, open mindedness, and optimism, are related to stress resistant resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). In addition, individuals that possess positive personal traits are likely to possess superior coping skills (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

#### **2.1.1.4 Energy Resources.**

Energy resources are valued by individuals because they assist in the acquisition of additional resources (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). An example of an energy resource would be knowledge, credit, or money (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Energy resources are not viewed as stand-alone resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). The value of energy resources comes from their ability to generate other types of resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

### **2.1.2 Principles of Conservation of Resources Theory**

Conservation of resources theory proposes several principles related to resource loss and resource gain. Each will be discussed further.

#### **2.1.2.1 Principle 1 – Primacy of Loss Principle.**

Primacy of loss, the first principle of COR theory, states that the loss of resources is disproportionately more salient than the gain of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). It is important to note that this applies to both the degree and rate of resource loss (Holmgreen et al., 2017). Resource loss is reported to have a larger psychological impact on an individual than the gain of the same resource (Holmgreen et al., 2017). Further, resource loss is reported to have a greater impact on and be more prevalent among individuals that are already experiencing a resource deficit (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). In addition, this principle is related to the concept known as loss spirals. The concept of loss spirals states that individuals that lack resources will be more likely to experience additional loss of

resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). In accordance with the concept of loss spirals, resources are needed to prevent further loss of resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.).

### **2.1.2.2 Principle 2 – Resource Investment Principle.**

Resource investment, the second principle of COR theory, states that individuals must invest resources to prevent resource loss, to recover from loss of resources, and to gain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This highlights the complex relationships among resource loss, resource gain, and resource distress and the way in which they impact an individual's behavior (Holmgreen et al., 2017). As previously discussed, loss of resources is known to be related to stress. Individuals may be able to offset the resource loss and reduce stress by activating or obtaining other resources (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). Further, replacing resources is reported to be the most basic way to counteract the negative effects associated with resource loss (Hobfoll et al., n.d.). It should be noted that the required resource investment outlined in this principle is inclusive of both direct replacement of resources and indirect investment of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For example, assume that an individual must utilize their savings to pay for lost income. In this example, the individual is directly replacing their lost resources to prevent further resource loss, to recover from loss of resources, and to gain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). As a secondary example, assume that an individual plans to increase their skills in preparation for a future job that pays more. In this example, the individual is indirectly investing resources as the increase in skills and confidence will offset the potential loss of income if the future job is not obtained (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

### **2.1.2.3 Principle 3 – Gain Paradox Principle.**

Gain paradox, the third principle of COR theory, states that gaining resources becomes more important when the probability of resource loss is high (Hobfoll et al., 2018). When this occurs, resources become more valuable.

### **2.1.2.4 Principle 4 – Desperation Principle.**

Desperation principle, the fourth principle of COR theory, states that individuals become defensive when their resources become limited or exhausted (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In accordance with desperation principle, individuals may display aggressive or irrational behaviors to preserve the self when resources are scarce (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

## **2.1.3 Corollaries of Conservation of Resources Theory**

Conservation of resources theory also proposes several corollaries related to resource loss and resource gain.

### **2.1.3.1 Corollary 1.**

The first corollary of COR theory states that individuals with more resources are in a better position to gain additional resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In accordance with this corollary, individuals that have accumulated resources can draw from and invest their stored resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Further, individuals that possess fewer resources are at an increased risk of resource loss (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

### **2.1.3.2 Corollary 2.**

The second corollary of COR theory states that the loss of initial resources leads to the loss of future resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). The loss of future resources is related to an individual's vulnerability and the lack of initial resources (Brouer et al., 2011). This corollary is related to the previously discussed concept of loss spirals.



### **2.1.3.3 Corollary 3.**

The third corollary of COR theory states that the gain of initial resources leads to the gain of future resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In accordance with this corollary, the gain of resources can also occur in a spiraling pattern (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Resource gain spirals are less impactful and occur at a slower pace than resource loss spirals (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Despite the sluggish nature of gain spirals, they are required to neutralize losses and create engagement (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The accumulation of resources via resource gain spirals allows individuals to prevent future resource loss and often results in increased status, possession, and self-esteem (Brouer et al., 2011).

### **2.1.3.4 Corollary 4.**

The fourth corollary of COR theory states that a lack of resources results in defensive attempts to conserve the remaining resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Individuals facing resource loss often display defensive behaviors and actions when investing future resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Further, as individuals experience loss of resources, they will take the necessary steps to protect their remaining resource pool (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

## **2.2 Burnout**

The term “burnout” was first used by Herbert Freudenberger, an American psychologist, in the early 1970s (Schaufeli, 2017). Freudenberger frequently volunteered at a free clinic in the East Village of New York City, an area with a large population of drug users (Reith, 2018). During this time, Freudenberger noted that the clinic’s volunteer staff exhibited signs of emotional depletion and the accompanying

psychosomatic symptoms (Reith, 2018). Freudenberger referred to this phenomenon as “burnout,” borrowing the term from drug culture where it was commonly used to describe the damaging effects of long-term drug abuse (Freudenberger, 1974). Freudenberger defined burnout as exhaustion resulting from excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources in the workplace (Freudenberger, 1974). It should be noted that burnout is characterized by a set of symptoms, including malaise, fatigue, frustration, cynicism, and inefficacy (Reith, 2018). Freudenberger also noted that burnout commonly occurs in jobs that require large amounts of empathy and personal involvement, primarily among employees that display dedication and commitment (Reith, 2018).

Building upon the work of Freudenberger, social psychologist Christina Maslach developed a model of burnout that consists of three components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach later developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which continues to be the preferred instrument in assessing burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory consists of three subscales to measure the three components of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Each of these components will be discussed further.

### **2.2.1 Emotional Exhaustion**

Emotional exhaustion, the first component of burnout, is characterized by a lack of energy and the feeling that one’s emotional resources have been depleted (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Emotional exhaustion is widely viewed as the fundamental and onset symptom of burnout (Shirom, 1989). Employees that are experiencing emotional exhaustion often report feeling used up, frustrated, and tired (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Emotional exhaustion is the burnout component that is most responsive to work environment stressors (Greenglass et al., 1998). It is important to note that emotional exhaustion fails to capture the critical aspects of the relationship that employees have with their work (Maslach et al., 2001).

### **2.2.2 Depersonalization**

Depersonalization, the second component of burnout, is characterized by a negative and dehumanizing approach within which the employee treats other people like objects (Jackson et al., 1987). Employees in a state of depersonalization often appear to be detached, cynical, and emotionally callous (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Depersonalization is widely viewed as a tool utilized by employees who are experiencing emotional exhaustion (Greenglass et al., 1998). Employees experiencing depersonalization often attempt to distance themselves from their coworkers by ignoring the characteristics that make them unique and appealing (Maslach et al., 2001).

Employees experiencing depersonalization may also attempt to withdraw by taking longer breaks or by participating in extended conversations with coworkers to avoid work (Maslach & Pines, 1977).

### **2.2.3 Diminished Personal Accomplishment**

Diminished personal accomplishment, the third component of burnout, is described as an employee's feelings of decreased or insufficient progress in accomplishing his or her job (Zellars et al., 2000). Employees that are experiencing burnout often feel less secure in their competencies and abilities, resulting in the tendency to negatively characterize themselves (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Diminished personal accomplishment may also be the result of a gap between the employee's job knowledge

and previous high expectations about their work (Leiter, 1993). Diminished personal accomplishment is widely viewed as a coping resource utilized by employees who are experiencing exhaustion (Koeske & Koeske, 1989).

### **2.3 Moral Disengagement**

Moral disengagement theory was developed by Albert Bandura as an extension of social cognitive theory (Moore et al., 2012). Bandura's social cognitive theory states that when an individual's self-regulatory capabilities are working properly, anticipated self-condemnation deters the individual from participating in transgressive behaviors that conflict with their internalized moral standards (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura, this process of moral self-regulation can be described as both constant and fluid as individuals are continually considering the impact of socially imposed consequences and self-imposed self-sanctions (Bandura, 1999). An individual's fear of negative repercussions for violating social norms, paired with the positive benefits received when an individual acts in accordance with their internalized moral rule set, serve as motivation to regulate individual actions (Johnson & Buckley, 2015). In summary, individuals act in accordance with moral norms and their internalized moral rule set to avoid punishment and obtain rewards (Johnson & Buckley, 2015).

Moral disengagement theory expands upon this by seeking to explain how an individual's self-regulatory process can fail when the mechanisms of moral disengagement are used by an individual to rationalize their unethical behaviors (Moore et al., 2012). According to Bandura, moral disengagement can be defined as cognitive justifications that allow an individual to participate in some form of unethical behavior

without feeling the accompanying guilt (He et al., 2019). Bandura proposed eight moral disengagement mechanisms through which moral self-sanctions are selectively activated and disengaged from negative behaviors at various points in the self-regulatory process (Bandura, 1986). Bandura's eight moral disengagement mechanisms impact the self-regulatory process in three distinct ways: cognitive restructuring of unethical behavior, obscuring or distorting the negative effects of unethical behavior, and blaming or dehumanizing the victims of unethical behavior (Johnson & Buckley, 2015). Each mechanism will be discussed further.

### **2.3.1 Cognitive Reconstruction Mechanisms**

Individuals who utilize the first set of Bandura's moral disengagement mechanisms engage in cognitive reconstructing to rationalize unethical behaviors through moral justification, euphemistic labeling, or advantageous comparison (He et al., 2019). Moral justification occurs when an individual cognitively reframes unethical behavior to link the behavior with a worthy cause (Egels-Zandén, 2017). For example, moral justification is utilized when employees rationalize their participation in unethical behavior if the behavior helps the organization succeed. Euphemistic labeling occurs when an individual attempts to mask unethical behavior or assign a respectable status to the behavior (Egels-Zandén, 2017). For example, euphemistic labeling is utilized when an employee reframes stealing from their employer as a "temporary loan" or "an advance on their salary" (Hystad et al., 2014). Advantageous comparison occurs when an individual makes an unethical behavior seem insignificant by comparing it to a more serious behavior or activity (Egels-Zandén, 2017). In the previous employee theft

example, the employee would compare their theft to alternative behaviors that are perceived as being worse to make the act of stealing seem more acceptable (Hystad et al., 2014).

### **2.3.2 Obscuring or Distorting Mechanisms**

Individuals who utilize the second set of Bandura's moral disengagement mechanisms often obscure or distort their role in and control over unethical behaviors via displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, and distorting consequences (He et al., 2019). Displacement of responsibility occurs when individuals believe that they are not responsible for their unethical behavior and attribute their participation in the behavior to other factors such as a request or command from an authority figure (Egels-Zandén, 2017). Employees that utilize displacement of responsibility often blame their supervisor for their unethical behaviors (Hystad et al., 2014). Diffusion of responsibility occurs when an individual attributes the harm caused by their unethical behavior to others engaging in the same behaviors (Egels-Zandén, 2017). Employees that utilize diffusion of responsibility will assign blame for their unethical actions to the group that they are a member of, ultimately reducing the liability of an individual group member (Hystad et al., 2014). An individual disregards or distorts the consequences of their unethical behavior when they minimize or avoid the harm caused by the behavior (Egels-Zandén, 2017). In the previous employee theft example, the employee would reason that no other employees will be harmed by the theft and that the monetary impact to the organization is insignificant (Hystad et al., 2014).

### **2.3.3 Blaming and Dehumanization Mechanisms**

Individuals who utilize the third set of Bandura's moral disengagement mechanisms devalue their target to rationalize unethical behaviors via dehumanization and attribution of blame (He et al., 2019). It should be noted that those that utilize the mechanisms of dehumanization and attribution of blame believe that their victims are deserving of the behavior (Hystad et al., 2014). Dehumanization occurs when an individual participates in unethical behavior because they view those impacted by the behavior as subhuman objects (Egels-Zandén, 2017). Dehumanization is fostered by classifying groups of individuals as unworthy of moral regard (Deutsch, 1990). Shareholders and executives are often victims of dehumanization because of their perceived participation in the exploitation of the employees of the organization (Hystad et al., 2014). Attribution of blame occurs when an individual engages in unethical behavior without experiencing guilt by blaming the target (Egels-Zandén, 2017). In attribution of blame, it is believed that the victim is deserving of their treatment as the unethical behavior is their fault (Bandura, 2002). Attribution of blame has been linked to unethical behavior in a variety of contexts, including that of white-collar crime (Douglas, 2002).

### **2.4 Political Skill**

The origins of political skill can be traced back to the early 1900s and can be attributed to the work of psychologist E.L. Thorndike and entrepreneur Dale Carnegie (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewe, 2005). Thorndike pioneered the concept of social intelligence, the ability to understand individuals and use that knowledge in an influential way (Thorndike, 1920). Carnegie's courses on interpersonal effectiveness taught students

how to work with or through others (Carnegie, 1936). Together, Thorndike's scientific work and Carnegie's applied work brought attention the importance of social and interpersonal competence, specifically political skill, in organizations (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewe, 2005). The term "political skill" was not used in the literature until a number of years later by Pfeffer (1981) and Mintzberg (1983) (Andrews et al., 2009). Pfeffer and Mintzberg believed that organizations were similar to political arenas and consisted of various individuals attempting to exercise their influence (Andrews et al., 2009).

As a result, political skill was identified in the literature as a competency that was required to be successful and involved influencing others through persuasion, manipulation, or negotiation (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). Subsequent research has focused on the role that political skill plays in enhancing individual success (Andrews et al., 2009). The fundamental nature of political skill was captured by Ferris and his colleagues in 1999 (Thompson et al., 2017). Ferris defined political skill as an individual's ability to understand others in the workplace and utilize this information to influence the behavior of others to achieve his/her personal objectives or the organization's objectives (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). The political skill construct is comprised of four critical components: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2007). Each of these components will be discussed further.

#### **2.4.1 Social Astuteness**

Social astuteness, the first component of political skill, can be defined as an individual's ability to understand the behavior of others while appreciating the possible



social interaction (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled individuals are proficient in understanding and assessing social interactions (Ferris et al., 2007). They are known to be astute observers of behavior, allowing politically skilled individuals to accurately interpret both their behavior and the behavior of others (Ferris et al., 2007). In addition, politically skilled individuals possess the ability to adjust to a variety of social settings and have an increased level of self-awareness (Ferris et al., 2007). This characteristic is often referred to as being “sensitive to others” or the ability to “identify with others” and is needed to obtain things for oneself (Pfeffer, 1992). Socially astute individuals are characterized as being ingenious in their interactions with others (Ferris et al., 2007).

#### **2.4.2 Interpersonal Influence**

Interpersonal influence, the second component of political skill, can be defined as an individual’s ability to modify their behavior to obtain a desired response from others (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled individuals are known to possess a humble, yet convincing personal style (Ferris et al., 2007). It is this personal style that allows politically skilled individuals to exert influence over others. Politically skilled individuals utilize interpersonal influence to adapt their behavior to fit the given situation or to obtain a specific response from others (Ferris et al., 2007). This characteristic is often referred to as being “flexible” as it requires an individual to modify their behavior to achieve their desired outcome (Pfeffer, 1992).

#### **2.4.3 Networking Ability**

Networking ability, the third component of political skill, can be defined as an individual’s ability to develop beneficial alliances (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled individuals specialize in creating and fostering a diverse network of contacts

(Ferris et al., 2007). It is important to note that the members of these networks are believed to possess assets perceived as valuable or essential for either personal or organizational gain (Ferris et al., 2007). As previously discussed, politically skilled individuals frequently possess a humble, yet convincing personal style. As a result, it is easy for politically skilled individuals to develop friendships and develop these networks (Ferris et al., 2007). It should be noted that politically skilled individuals often take advantage of the opportunities that arise from their networking abilities (Pfeffer, 1992). In addition to their networking abilities, politically skilled individuals are expert negotiators and proficient in conflict management (Ferris et al., 2007).

#### **2.4.4 Apparent Sincerity**

Apparent sincerity, the fourth component of political skill, can be defined as an individual's ability to convince others that their motives and actions are genuine (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled individuals are often characterized as being honest, authentic, and sincere (Ferris et al., 2007). It should be noted that apparent sincerity is a critical component of political skill. When a politically skilled individual is attempting to influence another person, apparent sincerity can be the determining factor in the success of the attempt (Ferris et al., 2007). Apparent sincerity is important because it focuses on the perceived intention of the exhibited behavior (Ferris et al., 2007). Additionally, perceived intentions are important because it can alter an individual's perception and interpretation of the behavior (Ferris et al., 2007). Ultimately, a politically skilled individual's attempts to influence another person will only be successful when their intention are believed to be genuine with no ulterior motives (Jones, 1990). If used

effectively, a politically skilled individual's apparent sincerity will be interpreted as genuine and will instill trust and confidence in those influenced (Ferris et al., 2007).

## **2.5 Risk**

Although the concept of risk appears to be relatively straightforward, there has been much debate regarding a concrete and agreed-upon definition of risk (De Rodes, 1994). According to Crowe and Horn (1967), various scholars define risk as:

1. ...an individual's objective doubt related to the outcome of a specific situation (Williams & Heins, 1964).
2. ...the uncertainty of an occurrence or loss (Greene, 1962).
3. ...characterized by unpredictability, the tendency for actual results to vary from predicted results (Bickelhaupt & Magee, 1964).
4. ...the possibility of an adverse occurrence (Riegel & Miller, 1966).
5. ...the chance of loss or the occurrence of an undesirable or unfavorable contingency (Athearn, 1962).
6. ...the objectified uncertainty regarding the occurrence of an undesired event (Willett, 1951).
7. ...uncertainty regarding cost, loss, or damage (Hardy, 1931).
8. ...the combination of hazards (Pfeffer, 1956).
9. ...being understood as a variance concept (Houston, 1964).

Further, it should be noted that the definition of risk varies from person to person and is dependent upon individual standpoint. As a result, risk is subjective in that it is relative to the observer. Due to the subjective nature of risk, it is often referred to as perceived risk.

The problem with the phrase is that it suggests the existence of some other kind of risk – other than perceived (Kaplan & Garrick, 1981). The idea of perceived risk suggests that absolute risk exists. However, under attempts to pin it down, the notion of absolute risk always ends up being somebody else’s perceived risk (Kaplan & Garrick, 1981). In the proposed study, risk propensity, a component of risk attitude, will be examined. Risk propensity is defined as an individual’s current tendency to take or avoid risks (Wang et al., 2015).

### **2.5.1 Risk-Taking Attitude**

Risk-taking attitude can be defined as an individual’s chosen response to an uncertainty that is influenced by risk perception (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2006). An individual’s risk-taking attitude causes them to react to risk in a specific way. There are two widely recognized risk-taking attitudes: risk propensity and risk aversion (van Winsen et al., 2011). These attitudes lie on a continuous scale. It is important to note that risk propensity is an individual trait that can change due to experience or circumstance (Wang et al., 2015). Individuals with a propensity for risk will accept any risk, even if the increase in return is only marginal (van Winsen et al., 2011). Individuals that are extremely risk averse will not accept any risk, no matter the increase in return (van Winsen et al., 2011). Risk-taking attitudes are often measured by revealed preferences in economic theory (Al-Tarawneh, 2012). For example, assume that an individual is given a choice between a gamble and a sure thing. It is important to note that the value of the sure thing is equal to the expected value of the gamble. Individuals that choose the sure

thing have risk-averse preferences. Individuals that choose the gamble have a propensity for risk.

## **2.6 Hypothesis Development**

### **2.6.1 Burnout and Moral Disengagement**

As previously discussed, burnout is defined as exhaustion resulting from excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources in the workplace (Freudenberger, 1974). Burnout consists of three components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). It is associated with negative outcomes such as withdrawal in the workplace, including absenteeism, turnover intention, actual turnover, lower levels of productivity, decreased job satisfaction, and a reduction in commitment to the organization (Leiter & Maslach, 2015). COR theory is often used to explain and understand the process of burnout and stress within work settings (Hobfoll, 2001). Burnout is an affective reaction to prolonged exposure to stress, specifically in situations when job demands exceed an employee's available resources (Shirom, 2003). As a result, resource depletion is a key component of burnout (Shirom, 1989). COR theory states that individuals strive to acquire and maintain resources (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Burnout is likely to occur:

1. ...when an individual loses resources (Hobfoll, 2001).
2. ...when an individual believes that they will lose resources (Hobfoll, 2001).
3. ...when an individual's resources are not adequate to meet the demands of their job (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004).

4. ...when an individual is unable to gain sufficient resources following a significant resource investment of time or energy (Hobfoll, 2001).
5. ...when adverse working conditions cause employees to disengage (Maslach et al, 2001).

Because burnout often occurs when adverse working conditions cause employees to disengage, moral disengagement is an additional possible negative outcome of burnout. Burned out employees often experience emotional exhaustion following a significant resource investment of time or energy, often referred to as a loss spiral (Hobfoll, 2001). Research states that resource depletion increases the likelihood that individuals will morally disengage (Lee et al., 2016). In accordance with COR theory, burned out employees will participate in behaviors that will preserve, recover, or maximize their own resources (Nelissen et al., 2013). To preserve their scarce resources, including time and mental energy, employees experiencing burnout will be more likely to morally disengage (Tillman et al., 2018). This is because they do not have the resources needed to engage in a cost-benefit analysis. Ethical decision-making requires the decision-maker to conduct a series of cost-benefit analyses (Tillman et al., 2017). When employees are faced with a moral dilemma, they must compare the costs of violating their own moral standards with the perceived benefits of adhering to their moral standards (Tillman et al., 2017). Moral disengagement offers employees experiencing burnout a short cut in that it allows them to analyze possible decisions without using their cognitive resources or time. Ultimately, Bandura's disengagement mechanisms allow employees who are experiencing burnout to minimize the anticipated costs of their unethical behavior while protecting their already limited resources (Tillman et al., 2018).

Based upon these findings, it is believed that employees who are experiencing burnout are likely to morally disengage. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 1:** Burnout is positively related to moral disengagement.

### **2.6.2 Moral Disengagement and Risk-Taking Attitude**

Moral disengagement is a cognitive process used by individuals to justify their unethical behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). Moral disengagement is a cognitive orientation rather than a fixed personality trait (Moore, 2008). As a result, it is ever changing and impacted by many factors, including an individual's social setting (Moore, 2008). According to the tenets of COR theory, an employee's response to uncertainty and risk is dependent upon the availability of personal resources (Marx-Fleck et al., 2021). Moral disengagement allows employees to diminish the expected costs of their unethical behavior by viewing the behavior in such a way that the benefits outweigh the costs of the invested resources (Tillman et al., 2017). In this process, the employee's cognitive awareness aligns with the proposed moral disengagement path to grow or protect the employee's resources (Striler et al., 2021).

COR theory suggests that employees will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude in situations when resources are both limited and abundant. When employees recognize potential threats to their limited existing resources, they will initiate the process needed to protect their resources (Hobfoll, 2001).

Desperation principle, the fourth principle of COR theory, states that individuals become defensive when their resources become limited or exhausted (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In accordance with desperation principle, individuals may display aggressive or irrational behaviors to preserve the self when resources are scarce (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Based

upon this, it is proposed that when employees with limited resources are faced with a decision, they will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. Further, in accordance with the second principle of COR theory, resource investment, it is believed that employees with limited resources will be motivated to utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude due to the opportunity to prevent further resource loss, to recover from loss of resources, and to gain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Research states that individuals high in moral disengagement are less likely to experience feelings of guilt or display prosocial behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). Individuals high in moral disengagement are more likely to display higher levels of aggression and participate in deviant behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). Several personality variables, including risk-taking, are classified as deviant workplace behaviors (O'Neill & Hastings, 2011). In addition, several mechanisms of moral disengagement have been found to be related to various deviant workplace behaviors, including non-compliance, lack of participation, and risk-taking (Hystad et al., 2014). Further research states that risk-taking is strongly related to deviance (Ashton, 1998). Jackson, Hourany, and Vidmar found risk-taking to be correlated with an individual's willingness to behave unethically when presented with various hypothetical situations (Jackson et al., 1972). Based upon this information, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 2:** Moral disengagement is positively related to risk-taking attitude.

### **2.6.3 Burnout, Moral Disengagement, and Risk-Taking Attitude**

Moral disengagement is believed to be the link between burnout and risk-taking attitude. It has been established that individuals that are experiencing burnout seek short



cuts that take less energy to combat emotional exhaustion (Nelissen et al., 2013). To allow oneself to take a short cut, burned out employees must validate their bad behavior through moral disengagement. Thus, it is believed that employees who are experiencing burnout are likely to experience moral disengagement. Employees that are experiencing moral disengagement are more likely to participate in deviant behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). As previously discussed, an employee's risk-taking attitude is often classified as a deviant workplace behavior (O'Neill & Hastings, 2011).

In accordance with COR theory, burned out employees will participate in behaviors that will preserve, recover, or maximize their own resources (Nelissen et al., 2013). To preserve their scarce resources, employees experiencing burnout will be more likely to engage in moral disengagement (Tillman et al., 2018). COR theory suggests that employees will utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude in situations when resources are both limited and abundant. When employees recognize potential threats to their limited existing resources, they will initiate the process needed to protect their resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 3:** Moral disengagement partially mediates the positive relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude.

#### **2.6.4 Burnout, Political Skill, and Moral Disengagement**

Managerial political skill is believed to moderate the relationship between employee burnout and moral disengagement. As discussed, moral disengagement is argued to be an additional possible negative outcome of burnout. However, it is believed that managerial political skill might influence employees to act ethically when they are experiencing moral disengagement. Research states that leaders influence the behavior of

their followers (Beu & Buckley, 2004). Managers that are high in political skill know how to behave in a variety of social situations and have the ability to convince others that their motives and actions are genuine (Thompson et al., 2017). These abilities allow managers that are high in political skill to gain the trust and confidence of their employees, allowing for successful execution of influence attempts (Beu & Buckley, 2004). The political skill construct is comprised of four critical components: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2007). The components of social astuteness, interpersonal influence, and networking ability can be used to further explain how politically skilled managers can influence the behavior of their subordinates that are experiencing moral disengagement.

Social astuteness can be defined as an individual's ability to understand the behavior of others while appreciating the possible social interaction (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled managers are self-aware and possess the ability to recognize the motivations of their subordinates and the circumstances of their environment (Ferris et al., 2012). Because politically skilled managers are socially astute, it is believed that they will be able to identify when subordinates are experiencing burnout. Further, it is believed that politically skilled managers will be able to identify when a subordinate's environment would cause them to experience moral disengagement.

Interpersonal influence can be defined as an individual's ability to modify their behavior to obtain a desired response from others (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled individuals are known to possess a humble, yet convincing personal style (Ferris et al., 2007). It is this personal style that allows politically skilled individuals to exert influence over others. Based upon this, it is believed that politically skilled managers will

utilize their interpersonal influence to encourage subordinates experiencing moral disengagement to modify their behavior.

Networking ability can be defined as an individual's capacity to develop beneficial alliances (Thompson et al., 2017). Politically skilled managers possess network awareness (Brouer et al., 2015). Network awareness allows politically skilled managers to position themselves within their networks in a way that allows them to achieve the greatest benefit from their connections (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). This positioning ultimately allows politically skilled managers to collect resources and information about the environment and the organization's culture from their network (Brouer et al., 2015). It is believed that politically skilled managers will share the resources obtained via their networking positioning with their subordinates, reducing the likelihood of moral disengagement. In addition, a politically skilled manager's position within their network often results in increased task-related knowledge (Sparrowe et al., 2001). Ultimately, network awareness gives politically skilled managers information about the organization's environment, culture, and the preferences and work-styles of employees (Brouer et al., 2015). Because politically skilled managers possess networking ability, it is believed that they would likely develop a connection with their subordinates. This relationship would allow the manager to identify when their subordinates are experiencing moral disengagement. It is believed that politically skilled managers will influence the behavior of their subordinates that are experiencing moral disengagement in order to achieve the organization's objectives (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). Based upon the collected information, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 4:** Political skill moderates the relationship between burnout and moral disengagement, such that employees with politically skilled managers will experience lower levels of moral disengagement than employees with less politically skilled managers.

#### **2.6.5 Moral Disengagement, Political Skill, and Risk-Taking Attitude**

Managerial political skill is believed to moderate the relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. As discussed, employees often utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. Managers that possess political skill have the ability to understand others in the workplace and utilize this information to influence the behavior of others to achieve their personal objectives or the organization's objectives (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). This definition suggests that politically skilled managers have the ability to influence the risk-taking attitude of their subordinates. Several components of the political skill construct, including the components of social astuteness and networking ability, can be used to further explain how politically skilled managers can influence the risk-taking attitude of their subordinates.

Because politically skilled managers are socially astute, it is believed that they will be able to identify when subordinates are experiencing moral disengagement. Further, it is believed that politically skilled managers will be able to identify when a subordinate's environment would motivate them utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. Ultimately, it is believed that politically skilled managers will utilize the relationships that they have developed with their subordinates to sense and correct moral disengagement with appropriate influence.

As previously discussed, politically skilled managers will likely utilize their networking ability to develop a connection with their subordinates. This relationship would allow the manager to identify when their subordinates are experiencing moral disengagement. It is believed that politically skilled managers will share the resources obtained via their networking positioning with their subordinates, reducing the likelihood of moral disengagement. Further, it is believed that the connections developed with their subordinates would allow politically skilled managers to identify when a subordinate's environment would motivate them to utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. Based upon this information, it is believed that politically skilled managers will influence the risk-taking attitude of their subordinates to achieve the organization's objectives (Ferris, Treadway, et al., 2005). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 5:** Political skill moderates the relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude, such that employees with politically skilled managers will be less likely to utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODS**

#### **3.1 Study Design**

To test the previously discussed hypotheses, Prolific, an online survey company, recruited participants for the study. This allowed for the collection of two waves of cross-sectional data.

#### **3.2 Procedure**

Participants were required to meet several criteria to be included in the study and were asked qualifying questions to determine eligibility. Participants that passed the qualifying questions were invited via Prolific to participate in the study. Participants were informed that the goal of the study was to explore the possible reactions to stress and burnout in the workplace and were provided a link to a Qualtrics survey. Participants also were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that the results of the study would remain anonymous. The survey was conducted in two phases, with each phase collected one month apart.

##### **3.2.1 Time 1**

The participants that agreed to the study were asked to complete a 83-item questionnaire administered via Qualtrics. Time 1 assessed burnout, moral disengagement,

managerial political skill, and personality. The survey also included nine demographic questions, including the participants' gender, age, race, highest level of education completed, current employment status, hours worked per week, years of organizational tenure, years of tenure with current supervisor, and salary. Participants also were asked to provide their Prolific identification number to allow the responses to be matched across each time period of data collection. A total of 350 respondents participated in Time 1.

### **3.2.2 Time 2**

Of the 350 respondents that participated in Time 1, twenty-three were removed. Those that were removed either failed the attention check questions or did not respond to questions on the survey. The remaining 327 respondents were again invited to participate in the study. Those that agreed to participate were asked to complete a 5-item questionnaire administered via Qualtrics. In the questionnaire, risk-taking attitude was assessed using Pan and Zinkhan's (2006) five item measure. Participants were again asked to provide their Prolific identification number to allow the responses to be matched across each time period of data collection. Of the 327 respondents that were invited to participate in Time 2, 267 chose to participate, representing an 18% decrease in participation.

### **3.2.3 Data Quality**

To ensure the quality of the data, several checks were used. First, any respondent who provided the same response to two-thirds or more of the questions on the survey was excluded. Next, any respondent who failed to correctly respond to the attention questions was excluded from the survey. Finally, respondents who did not respond to questions on the survey were excluded.

### **3.3 Sample Characteristics**

The final sample consisted of 266 respondents. Approximately 59.8% of respondents were female, 39.5% were male, and 0.8% were other. The average age of the respondents was 25 to 34 years old (SD = 1.14). Approximately 74.1% of respondents were employed full time, while 25.9% were employed part time. Respondents had an average organizational tenure of 5.60 years (SD = 5.23) with an average supervisor tenure of 3.85 years (SD = 3.99). The average salary of the respondents was \$25,001 to \$50,000 (SD = 1.39).

### **3.4 Measures**

#### **3.4.1 Burnout**

Burnout was assessed using Demerouti et al.'s (2010) eight item measure ( $\alpha = 0.88$ ). A sample item included in this measure is, "There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work." A second sample item is, "After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better." Respondents indicated their agreement with each statement included within the measure using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 4 = *Strongly Agree*.

#### **3.4.2 Moral Disengagement**

Moral disengagement was assessed using Moore et al.'s (2012) eight item measure ( $\alpha = 0.80$ ). A sample item is, "It is okay to spread rumors to defend those you care about." A second item is, "People shouldn't be held accountable for doing questionable things when they were just doing what an authority figure told them to do."



Respondents indicated their agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

### **3.4.3 Risk-Taking Attitude**

Risk-taking attitude was assessed using Pan and Zinkhan's (2006) five item measure ( $\alpha = 0.77$ ). A sample item is, "To gain high profits in business, one has to take high risks." A second item included is, "If there is a great chance of a reward, I will take high risks." Respondents indicated their agreement using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

### **3.4.4 Managerial Political Skill**

Managerial political skill was assessed using Ferris, Treadway, et al.'s (2005) eighteen item measure ( $\alpha = 0.97$ ). A sample item included is, "My manager is able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around them." A second item is, "My manager is able to communicate easily and effectively with others." Respondents indicated their agreement using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 7 = *Strongly Agree*.

### **3.4.5 Controls**

As previously discussed, employees often participate in unethical behavior in order to meet the organization's performance objectives and, most importantly, maximize personal gain (Schweitzer et al., 2004). The top performers within an organization are often rewarded with the highest salaries, the largest offices, and are believed to be most representative of the organization's culture (Martin et al., 2014). Personal gain situations, such as salary, often lead employees down the path of moral disengagement and allows for rationalization of the unethical behavior (Martin et al., 2014). As a result, salary was

used as a control variable (1 = \$25,000 or less, 2 = \$25,001-\$50,000, 3 = \$50,001-\$75,000, 4 = \$75,001-\$100,000, 5 = \$100,001-\$125,000, 6 = \$125,001-\$150,000, and 7 = More than \$150,000).

Personality, specifically openness, was utilized as an additional control variable. Individuals high in openness are often creative, adaptive, non-traditional, and tend to take higher risks (Mayfield et al., 2008). Personality was assessed using Saucier's (1994) forty item measure. Respondents were provided with a list of traits and asked to indicate how accurately the trait describes them. A sample item is, "Bashful." A second item is, "Bold." Respondents indicated their agreement using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Extremely Inaccurate* to 7 = *Extremely Accurate*.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESULTS**

#### **4.1 Analyses**

##### **4.1.1 PLS-SEM**

Hypotheses were analyzed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) via SmartPLS 3.0 (Ringle et al., 2015). PLS-SEM tests the entire proposed model at one time, including the relationships among the independent and dependent variables. In PLS-SEM, both the measurement model and the structural model are examined (Hair et al., 2018; 2020).

##### **4.1.1.1 Measurement Model.**

The measurement model was assessed utilizing confirmatory composite analysis (CCA). The first step in assessing the measurement model includes reviewing the individual factor loadings, which should be greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2018). However, it should be noted that standardized factor loadings greater than 0.60 are generally considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2021). As presented in Table 4.1, all factor loadings on the burnout, risk-taking attitude, and managerial political skill constructs were above the 0.60 threshold. All of the factor loadings on the moral disengagement construct were above the 0.60 threshold, with the exception of items MD4 (People

shouldn't be held accountable for doing questionable things when they were just doing what an authority figure told them to do) and MD8 (People who get mistreated have usually done something to bring it on themselves). Both items had identical factor loadings (0.58). It should be noted that MD2 (Taking something without the owner's permission is okay as long as you're just borrowing it) was close to the desired 0.60 threshold. The decision was made to remove these three items one at a time, with MD8 removed first, followed by MD4, followed by MD2. Upon the removal of these items, all of the factor loadings on the moral disengagement construct were above the 0.60 threshold. The significance of the individual items was also reviewed. As presented in Table 4.1, all of the items have a p-value of less than 0.001.

**Table 4.1**

**Outer Model Analysis: Item Loadings and Statistical Significance**

<b>Burnout</b>		<b>Managerial Political Skill</b>	
	<b>Loading</b>		<b>Loading</b>
<b>BURN1</b>	0.704*	<b>MPS1</b>	0.631*
<b>BURN2</b>	0.760*	<b>MPS2</b>	0.863*
<b>BURN3R</b>	0.705*	<b>MPS3</b>	0.852*
<b>BURN4</b>	0.768*	<b>MPS4</b>	0.864*
<b>BURN5R</b>	0.754*	<b>MPS5</b>	0.874*
<b>BURN6</b>	0.825*	<b>MPS6</b>	0.892*
<b>BURN7R</b>	0.655*	<b>MPS7</b>	0.765*
<b>BURN8R</b>	0.740*	<b>MPS8</b>	0.805*
<b>Moral Disengagement</b>		<b>MPS9</b>	0.842*
	<b>Loading</b>	<b>MPS10</b>	0.805*
<b>MD1</b>	0.749*	<b>MPS11</b>	0.766*
<b>MD2</b>	0.618*	<b>MPS12</b>	0.855*
<b>MD3</b>	0.706*	<b>MPS13</b>	0.793*
<b>MD4</b>	0.577*	<b>MPS14</b>	0.828*
<b>MD5</b>	0.692*	<b>MPS15</b>	0.819*
<b>MD6</b>	0.659*	<b>MPS16</b>	0.868*
<b>MD7</b>	0.674*	<b>MPS17</b>	0.836*
<b>MD8</b>	0.577*	<b>MPS18</b>	0.670*
<b>Risk-Taking Attitude</b>			
	<b>Loading</b>		
<b>T2_RISK_AV1</b>	0.652*		
<b>T2_RISK_AV2</b>	0.822*		
<b>T2_RISK_AV3</b>	0.713*		
<b>T2_RISK_AV4</b>	0.651*		
<b>T2_RISK_AV5</b>	0.769*		

**Notes:**

\*p < .001.

The next step in assessing the measurement model includes reviewing composite reliability. A composite reliability ranging from 0.70 to 0.95 is preferred (Hair et al.,

2018). As presented in Table 4.2, the burnout, moral disengagement, and risk-taking attitude variables fall within this range. Managerial political skill is slightly outside of this range at 0.97. This could indicate that the scale is too long or that the items on the scale are redundant. Each variable's Cronbach's Alpha also was reviewed. Generally, a Cronbach's Alpha greater than 0.70 is acceptable. As presented in Table 4.2, each variable's Cronbach's Alpha is greater than the 0.70 threshold. The next step in assessing the measurement model includes reviewing the convergent validity of the data collected. An average variance extracted (AVE) greater than .50 is preferred. As presented in Table 4.2, each construct's AVE is greater than the 0.50 threshold.

Next the discriminant validity of the measurement model was assessed.

Discriminant validity is present when all of the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratios are below .85 for constructs that are conceptually distinct, and below .90 for conceptually similar constructs (Hair et al., 2018). As displayed in Table 4.2, the HTMT values for burnout, moral disengagement, managerial political skill, and risk-taking attitude are all below .90. Discriminant validity is, therefore, demonstrated for the theoretical constructs.

**Table 4.2**

**Outer Model Analysis: Reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Validity**

	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>rho_A</b>	<b>CR</b>	<b>AVE</b>	<b>HTMT</b>		
					<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1. Burnout</b>	0.88	0.90	0.91	0.55			
<b>2. Moral Disengagement</b>	0.77	0.78	0.84	0.51	0.13		
<b>3. Managerial Political Skill</b>	0.97	0.98	0.97	0.67	0.24	0.14	
<b>4. Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	0.77	0.80	0.85	0.53	0.27	0.38	0.17

Finally, the nomological validity of the model is used as an additional means to assess construct validity. To measure nomological validity, the score for each construct is correlated with one or more constructs within the nomological network (Hair et al., 2020). The nomological network represents both the constructs that are the focus of the study and the interrelationships between the concepts (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The other constructs are often classification variables that represent key relationships. These constructs also can be concepts that are not included in the current model. The nomological relationships in the current model are supported by previous literature.

#### **4.1.1.2 Structural Model.**

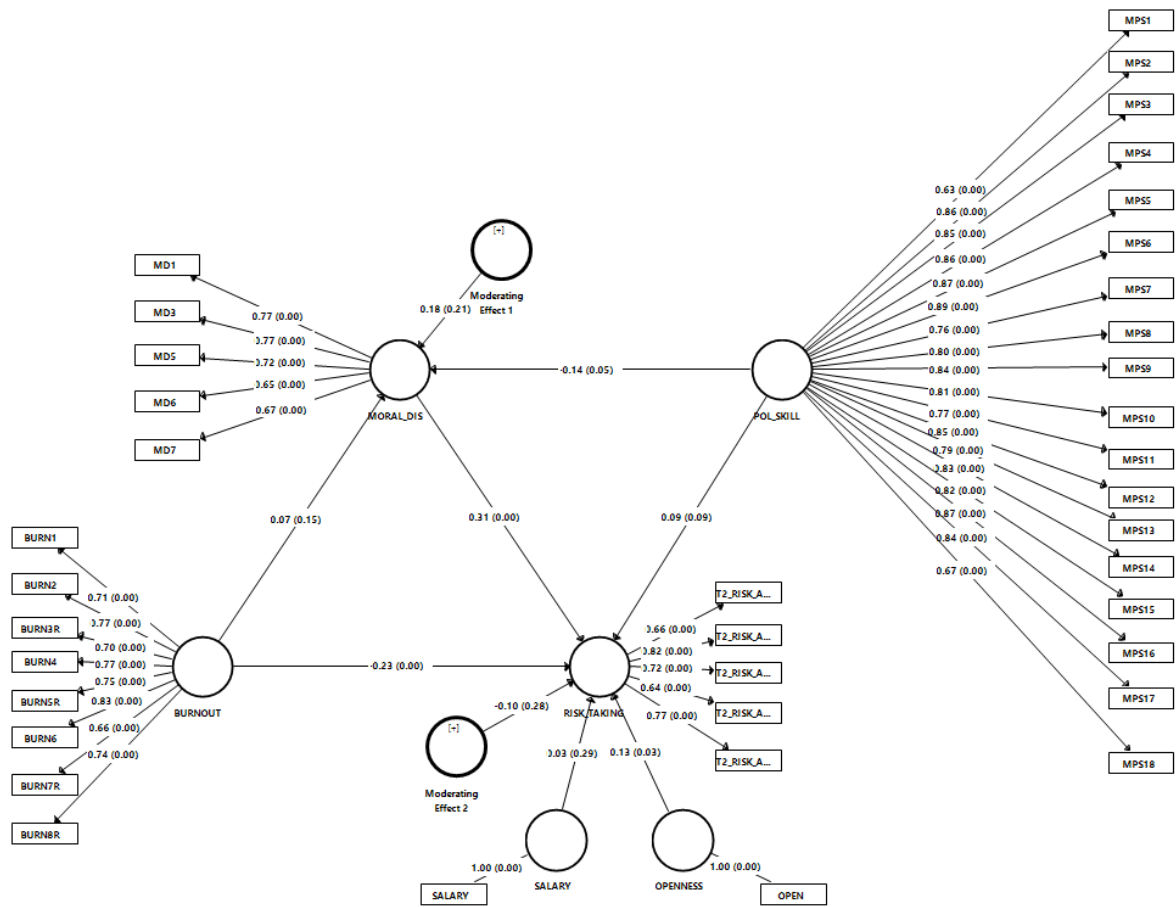
The structural model is assessed to determine if multicollinearity is present. VIF values are examined to determine if all values are below 5.0, and preferably below 3.0. As shown in Table 4.3, all of the VIF value are well below 5.0 indicating that multicollinearity is not a concern.

**Table 4.3**

#### **Inner Model Analysis: VIF**

	<b>Burnout</b>	<b>Moral Disengagement</b>	<b>Managerial Political Skill</b>
<b>1. Burnout</b>			
<b>2. Moral Disengagement</b>	1.06		
<b>3. Managerial Political Skill</b>	-	1.09	
<b>4. Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	1.07	1.07	1.12

Next, the significance and relevance of the hypotheses is evaluated by reviewing the path coefficients and the associated p-values. Figure 4.1 displays the structural model with the path coefficients and associated p-values. The bootstrapping procedure was executed using the SmartPLS software with a sample size of 5,000. The PLS bootstrapping procedure generates significance levels for all model relationships as well as bias-corrected confidence intervals for each coefficient (Hair et al., 2018).



**Figure 4.1**  
**Inner Model Analysis: Path Coefficients**



Table 4.4 includes the descriptive statistics and the correlations among the study variables of interest. As expected, moral disengagement was significantly correlated to risk-taking attitude ( $r = 0.29, p < .001$ ). Managerial political skill was also positively correlated to risk-taking attitude ( $r = 0.13, p < .05$ ). Burnout and risk-taking attitude were negatively and significantly correlated ( $r = -0.20, p < .001$ ). Burnout and managerial political skill also were negatively and significantly correlated ( $r = -0.22, p < .001$ ). Managerial political skill and moral disengagement were negatively and significantly correlated ( $r = -0.12, p < .05$ ). Salary and openness, the control variables, were not significantly related to any of the study variables of interest.

**Table 4.4**

**Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables**

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
<b>1. Burnout</b>	2.48	0.56					
<b>2. Moral Disengagement</b>	2.09	0.80	0.07				
<b>3. Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	3.34	0.65	-0.20**	0.29**			
<b>4. Managerial Political Skill</b>	4.96	1.20	-0.22**	-0.12*	0.13*		
<b>5. Salary</b>	2.55	1.39	-0.07	0.05	0.06	0.07	
<b>6. Openness</b>	4.42	0.60	-0.04	-0.04	0.12	0.08	-0.07

**Notes:**

N = 266

\* $p < .05$ .

\*\* $p < .001$ .

As shown in Figure 4.1, salary and openness were utilized as control variables. Salary had a positive, non-significant ( $p = 0.29$ ) association with risk-taking attitude (path coefficient = 0.03). Openness had a positive, significant relationship with risk-taking attitude (path coefficient = 0.13,  $p = 0.03$ ).

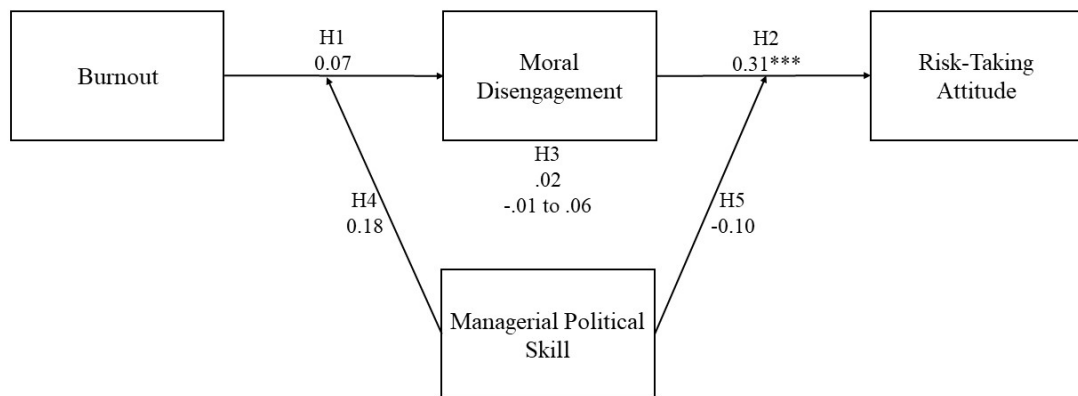
**Hypothesis 1** proposed a positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement. As outlined in Figure 4.1, the relationship between burnout and moral disengagement was shown (path coefficient = 0.07) but not significant ( $p = 0.15$ ). As a result, Hypothesis 1 is not supported

**Hypothesis 2** proposed a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. As outlined in Figure 4.1, the predicted positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude was supported (path coefficient = 0.31,  $p < .001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 3** proposed moral disengagement would partially mediate the positive relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude. According to the PLS output, burnout did not have a significant indirect effect on risk-taking attitude through moral disengagement (path coefficient = 0.02,  $p = 0.15$ ). The bootstrapped confidence intervals were -0.01 at 5% and 0.06 at 95%. As a result, Hypothesis 3 is not supported.

**Hypothesis 4** proposed political skill would moderate the positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement. As outlined in Figure 4.1, political skill did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between burnout and moral disengagement (path coefficient = 0.18,  $p = 0.21$ ). The bootstrapped confidence intervals were -0.35 at 5% and 0.37 at 95%. As a result, Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

**Hypothesis 5** proposed political skill would moderate the positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. As outlined in Figure 4.1, political skill did not have a significant moderating effect on the positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude (path coefficient = -0.10,  $p = 0.28$ ). The bootstrapped confidence intervals were -0.24 at 5% and 0.25 at 95%. As a result, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.



Notes:  
\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Figure 4.2**

**Conceptual Model with PLS-SEM Results**

The next step in assessing the structural model involved reviewing the  $R^2$  to determine the variance explained in the model dependent variables. According to Table 4.5, the  $R^2$  of moral disengagement was 0.05. The  $R^2$  of risk-taking attitude was 0.19. The

adjusted  $R^2$  of moral disengagement was 0.04, with the adjusted  $R^2$  of risk-taking attitude at 0.18, demonstrating in both situations that the model does not exhibit overfitting.

**Table 4.5**

**$R^2$  and Adjusted  $R^2$**

	$R^2$	Adjusted $R^2$
<b>Moral Disengagement</b>	0.05	0.04
<b>Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	0.19	0.18

Following the assessment of the  $R^2$ , the  $f^2$  effect size of the exogenous constructs was reviewed. The  $f^2$  measures how much the construct adds to the  $R^2$  of the endogenous constructs, and the  $f^2$  effect values are assessed as follows: 0.02= small, 0.15 = medium, 0.35 = large (Cohen, 1988). According to Table 4.6, the  $f^2$  of burnout and moral disengagement was 0.01. It can be inferred, therefore, that burnout has a very minimal effect on the  $R^2$  of moral disengagement.

**Table 4.6**

**F Square**

	<b>Burnout</b>	<b>Moral Disengagement</b>	<b>Managerial Political Skill</b>
<b>1. Burnout</b>			
<b>2. Moral Disengagement</b>	0.01		
<b>3. Managerial Political Skill</b>	-	0.02	
<b>4. Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	0.06	0.11	0.01

Next, the  $Q^2$  of the endogenous constructs was reviewed using the blindfolding approach. A  $Q^2$  higher than zero provides support for the model's predictive relevance for the endogenous construct. The value of  $Q^2$ , and its associated predictive relevance, are as follows: 0.02= small, 0.15 = medium, 0.35 = large (Hair et al., 2020). The  $Q^2$  of moral disengagement is 0.01, indicating the model has small predictive relevance.

The final step in assessing the structural model is evaluating the out-of-sample prediction. PLSpredict was used to assess the PLS path model's out-of-sample predictive power. Out-of-sample prediction is a more accurate assessment of the ability of the model to infer to the sample population (Hair & Sarstedt, 2021). PLSpredict is a holdout sample-based procedure that creates point predictions on both the item level and the construct level (Hair et al., 2021). The procedure subdivides the sample data into similarly sized subgroups, or folds. It is recommended that each fold should contain at least thirty participants (Hair et al., 2020). The current sample size contains 266 participants. As a result, seven folds, each containing 38 participants, were generated. Out-of-sample prediction differs from the traditional in-sample prediction metric of  $R^2$ , which is considered a measure of model explanation (Hair & Sarstedt, 2021).

In analyzing the PLSpredict results, the root mean squared error (RMSE) of the original PLS-SEM model was compared with the RMSE from a linear regression model (LM) for each of the endogenous construct's indicators on the indicators of the exogenous latent variables in the PLS path model (Danks & Ray, 2018). When comparing the RMSE values from the PLS-SEM to the LM, there are four possible outcomes (Manley et al., 2020; Shmueli et al., 2019):

1. If all of the PLS-SEM RMSE (or MAE) prediction errors are smaller than the LM RMSE values, the model has high predictive power.
2. If most, or the same number of the PLS-SEM RMSE (ore MAE) prediction errors are smaller than the LM RMSE values, the model has medium predictive power.
3. If a majority of the PLS-SEM RMSE (or MAE) prediction errors are larger than the naive LM RMSE values, the model has low predictive power.
4. If all of the PLS-SEM RMSE (or MAE) prediction errors are larger than the LM RMSE values, the model does not have predictive power.

As outlined in Table 4.7, all of the PL-SEM RMSE values are less than the LM RMSE values. As a result, the model has low predictive power.

**Table 4.7**

**PLS-SEM vs. LM Prediction Errors**

	PLS				LM			
	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	Q <sup>2</sup> _predict	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	Q <sup>2</sup> _predict
<b>MD6</b>	0.81	0.65	44.75	-0.02	101.49	36.44	2702.12	-15950.70
<b>MD3</b>	1.60	1.34	70.95	-0.03	170.90	73.88	3680.65	-11704.10
<b>MD5</b>	0.93	0.69	46.57	-0.02	89.32	37.14	2702.74	-9414.60
<b>MD7</b>	1.34	0.98	59.99	0.00	204.22	56.41	3718.11	-23186.90
<b>MD1</b>	1.33	0.97	57.73	-0.02	158.79	56.89	3637.16	-14501.20
<b>T2_RISK_AV1</b>	0.86	0.70	26.16	-0.05	345.94	83.88	2691.77	-169533.80
<b>T2_RISK_AV5</b>	0.79	0.62	22.18	0.01	302.13	75.29	2284.91	-147141.90
<b>T2_RISK_AV4</b>	1.05	0.88	41.59	-0.01	179.53	67.43	2839.98	-29904.10
<b>T2_RISK_AV3</b>	0.86	0.70	25.27	0.00	154.67	49.76	1512.63	-32005.10
<b>T2_RISK_AV2</b>	0.92	0.77	31.70	0.05	126.68	57.81	2054.36	-18123.60

Notes:

RMSE = Root mean squared error

MAE = Mean absolute error

MAPE = Mean absolute percentage error

### **4.1.2 PROCESS Macro**

The hypotheses were also tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS created by Hayes (2013). This macro uses bootstrapping to arrive at confidence intervals with 95% bias-correction that feature an estimation of the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variate through a mediator (Eissa et al., 2019). Bootstrapping resamples a single dataset to create a certain number of simulated samples (Collier, 2020). Bootstrapping allows researchers to calculate the standard errors and construct confidence intervals for a dataset (Collier, 2020). A confidence interval of 95% will be created, indicating that the indirect effect will fall within the upper and lower range of likely values approximately 95% of the time (Collier, 2020).

#### **4.1.2.1 Assessing Discriminant Validity.**

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to determine discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is demonstrated when it is determined that constructs that should not be related are not found to be highly correlated (Hair et al., 2018). The AMOS 28.0 software packaged was used to perform a CFA in which the eight burnout items loaded onto a factor; the eight moral disengagement items loaded onto a factor; the five risk-taking attitude items loaded onto a factor; and the eighteen managerial political skill items loaded onto a factor. Each of the factors covaried.

In evaluating the model, multiple fit indices were examined to assess goodness of fit. First, the normed chi-square was examined. The normed chi-square is the ratio of  $\chi^2$  to degrees of freedom (df). The model produced an  $\chi^2$  of 1,858.69 and a df of 696, resulting in a normed chi-square of 2.67. Generally, a normed chi-square below three is preferred (Hair et al., 2018). Based upon this information, the normed chi-square for the

model is believed to be indicative of an acceptable model fit. Next, one goodness of fit index was examined. CFI is used to compare the fit of a model to the fit of an independent model. Generally, a CFI that is greater than .90 is preferred (Collier, 2020). The CFI for the model is .84. It is acknowledged that the CFI is slightly below the desired threshold. However, selecting a rigid cut-off for fit indices is not recommended. In addition, the quality of fit often depends heavily on other model characteristics, including sample size and model complexity (Hair et al., 2018). Next, one badness of fit index was examined. RMSEA is a parsimony-adjusted index (Collier, 2020). Generally, the values closer to zero are representative of a good fit. A value below .08 is preferred. The RMSEA for the model is .08, which is indicative of good model fit. As summarized in Table 4.8, the previously discussed fit indices were generally acceptable.

**Table 4.8**

**Model Fit Conclusions**

	<b>Actual</b>	<b>Threshold</b>	<b>Model Fit Conclusion</b>
<b>Normed Chi-Square</b>	2.67	< 3.00	Acceptable
<b>CFI</b>	0.84	> 0.90	Acceptable
<b>RMSEA</b>	0.08	< 0.08	Acceptable

Finally, the FL Criterion is used to evaluate discriminant validity by assessing shared variance amongst latent variables in a model. As shown in Table 4.9, the average variance extracted values were compared to the squared correlations (Collier, 2020). Discriminant validity is present when a construct’s average variance extracted is greater



than the highest squared correlation of the factors (Collier, 2020). The model appears to have discriminant validity.

**Table 4.9**

**Discriminant Validity**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1. Burnout</b>	<b>0.70</b>				
<b>2. Moral Disengagement</b>	0.07	<b>0.60</b>			
<b>3. Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	-0.20***	0.29***	<b>0.64</b>		
<b>4. Managerial Political Skill</b>	-0.22***	-0.12*	0.13*	<b>0.80</b>	
<b>5. Salary</b>	-0.07	0.05	0.06	0.07	
<b>6. Openness</b>	-0.04	-0.04	0.12	0.08	-0.07

**Notes:**

\*p < .05.

\*\*p < .01.

\*\*\*p < .001.

**4.1.2.3 Hypothesis Testing.**

The hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS created by Hayes (2013). This macro uses bootstrapping to arrive at confidence intervals with 95% bias-correction that feature an estimation of the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variate through a mediator (Eissa et al., 2019). Model 58 was utilized to test both moderation and mediation among the key variables. The findings from this analysis can be found in Table 4.10.

**Hypothesis 1** predicted a positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement. As outlined in Table 4.10, the predicted positive relationship between

burnout and moral disengagement is supported ( $B = 0.07$ ). However, this relationship is not significant ( $p = 0.42$ ). As a result, Hypothesis 1 is not supported

**Hypothesis 2** predicted a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. As outlined in Table 4.10, the predicted positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude was supported ( $B = 0.26, p < .001$ ). As a result, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

**Hypothesis 3** predicted that moral disengagement would partially mediate the positive relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude. The conditional indirect effect of burnout on risk-taking attitude at low political skill ( $-1.10$ ) was negative ( $-.01$ ) and not significant. The conditional indirect effect at medium political skill ( $.31$ ) was positive ( $.02$ ) but was not significant. Finally, the conditional indirect effect at high political skill ( $1.04$ ) was positive ( $.04$ ) but was not significant. Although not significant, the indirect effect becomes increasingly positive as political skill moves from low to high.

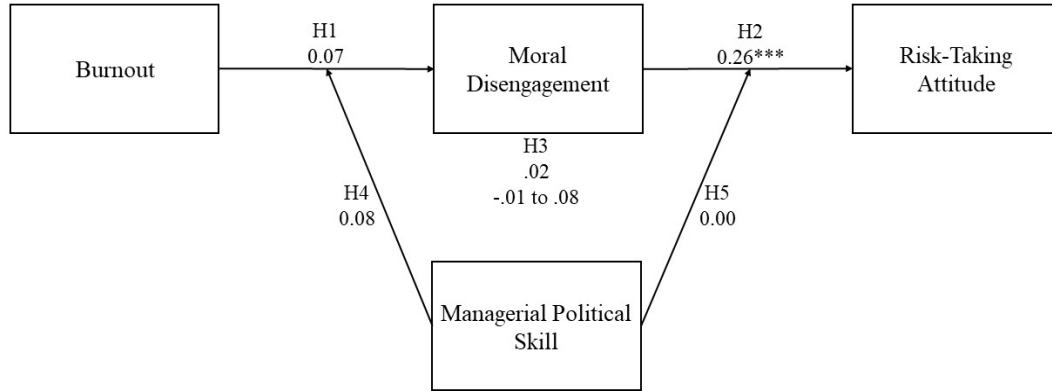
**Hypothesis 4** predicted that political skill would moderate the positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement. The interaction of burnout and political skill was not significant ( $p = 0.22$ ). As a result, Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

**Hypothesis 5** predicted that political skill would moderate the positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. The interaction of moral disengagement and political skill was not significant ( $p = 0.93$ ). As a result, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Salary and openness were utilized as control variables. Salary had a positive, non-significant association with risk-taking attitude ( $B = 0.02, p = 0.55$ ). Openness had a positive, significant relationship with risk-taking attitude ( $B = 0.13, p = 0.04$ ).

**Figure 4.3**

**Conceptual Model with PROCESS Results**



Notes:  
\*\*\*p < .001

**Table 4.10**

**Direct Effects – Primary Model**

Dependent Variable:	Moral Disengagement					Risk-Taking Attitude				
	B	SE	p	95% LLCI	95% ULCI	B	SE	p	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
<i>Control</i>										
Salary	0.03	0.04	0.35	-0.04	0.10	0.02	0.03	0.55	-0.04	0.07
Openness	-0.02	0.08	0.76	-0.19	0.14	0.13	0.06	0.04	0.01	0.25
<i>Independent Variable</i>										
Burnout	0.07	0.09	0.42	-0.10	0.25	-0.22	0.07	0.00	-0.36	-0.09
<i>Mediator</i>										
Moral Disengagement						0.26	0.05	0.00	0.17	0.35
<i>Moderator</i>										
Managerial Political Skill	-0.08	0.04	0.05	-0.17	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.00	0.12
<i>Interaction</i>										
Burnout X Managerial Political Skill	0.08	0.06	0.22	-0.05	0.21					
Moral Disengagement X Managerial Political Skill						0.00	0.04	0.93	-0.08	0.07
R2					0.03					0.17
F					1.45					8.62***

Notes:  
N = 266  
LLCI = Lower level confidence interval  
ULCI = Upper level confidence interval  
\*p < .05.  
\*\*p < .01.  
\*\*\*p < .001.

### 4.1.3 Supplemental PROCESS Analysis

A supplemental analysis using an alternative model also was conducted. The supplemental model was tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS created by Hayes (2013). This macro uses bootstrapping to arrive at confidence intervals with 95% bias-correction that feature an estimation of the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variate through a mediator (Eissa et al., 2019). Model 4 was utilized to test mediation among the key variables. The findings from this analysis can be found in Table 4.11.

#### 4.1.3.1 Results

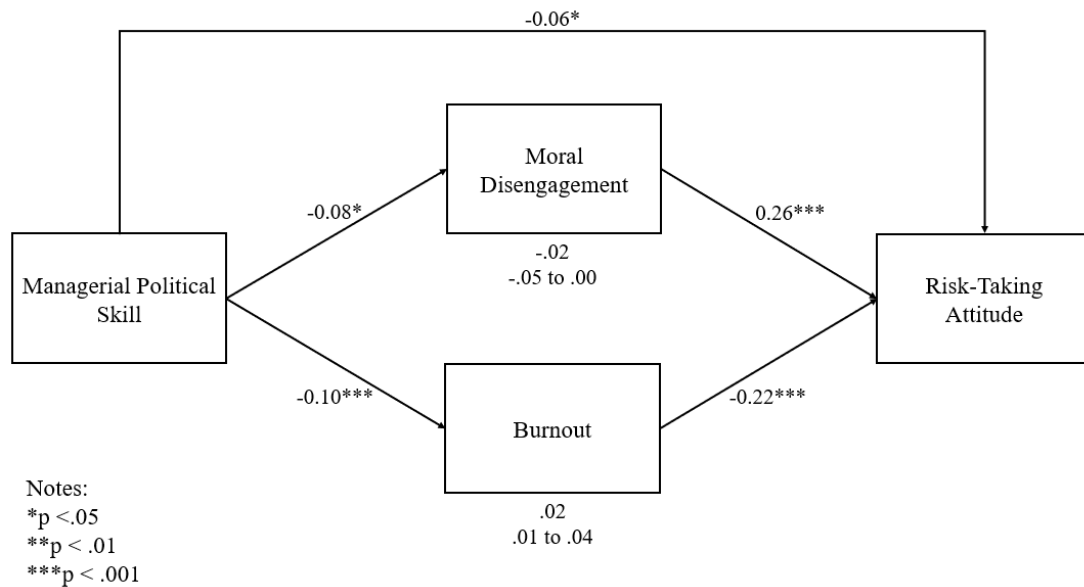
The results of the supplemental analysis suggest that there is a negative relationship between managerial political skill and moral disengagement ( $B = -0.08$ ). This relationship is also significant ( $p = 0.04$ ). The relationship between managerial political skill and burnout is also negative and significant ( $B = -0.10$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition, the relationship between managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude is negative and significant ( $B = 0.06$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ).

Moral disengagement was found to be positively and significantly related to risk-taking attitude ( $B = 0.26$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Further, moral disengagement does not have a mediating effect on the relationship between managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude. The indirect effect of managerial political skill on risk-taking attitude through moral disengagement was negative ( $-0.02$ ), but not significant. The bootstrapped confidence intervals ranged from  $-0.05$  to  $.00$ .

Burnout was found to be negatively and significantly related to risk-taking attitude ( $B = -0.22$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Burnout also was found to partially mediate the

relationship between managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude. The indirect effect of managerial political skill on risk-taking attitude through burnout was positive (0.02) and significant. The bootstrapped confidence intervals ranged from 0.01 to 0.04.

Salary and openness were utilized as control variables. Salary had a positive, non-significant association with risk-taking attitude ( $B = 0.02, p = 0.55$ ). Openness had a positive, significant relationship with risk-taking attitude ( $B = 0.13, p = 0.04$ ).



**Figure 4.4**

**Supplemental Conceptual Model with Results**

**Table 4.11**

**Direct Effects – Supplemental Model**

Dependent Variable:	Moral Disengagement						Burnout						Risk-Taking Attitude					
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% LLCI	95% ULCI		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% LLCI	95% ULCI		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% LLCI	95% ULCI	
<i>Control</i>																		
Salary	0.03	0.04	0.36	-0.04	0.10		-0.02	0.02	0.39	-0.07	0.03		0.02	0.03	0.55	-0.04	0.07	
Openness	-0.03	0.08	0.67	-0.20	0.13		-0.02	0.06	0.71	-0.13	0.09		0.13	0.06	0.04	0.01	0.25	
<i>Independent Variable</i>																		
Managerial Political Skill	-0.08	0.04	0.04	-0.17	0.00		-0.10	0.03	0.00	-0.16	-0.04		0.06	0.03	0.05	0.00	0.12	
<i>Mediator</i>																		
Moral Disengagement													0.26	0.05	0.00	0.17	0.35	
Burnout													-0.22	0.07	0.00	-0.36	-0.09	
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>					0.02													0.17
<i>F</i>					1.75													10.39***

**Notes:**

- N = 266
- LLCI = Lower level confidence interval
- ULCI = Upper level confidence interval
- \*p < .05.
- \*\*p < .01.
- \*\*\*p < .001.

#### 4.1.4 Comparison of PLS-SEM and PROCESS Macro

Both PLS-SEM and the PROCESS Macro were utilized to test the proposed model. The metrics used to assess the results from the two different approaches were compared. Both the PROCESS macro and PLS-SEM were utilized to analyze the measurement model. Item loadings, indicator reliabilities, composite reliabilities, and average variance extracted (AVE) were reviewed for both approaches (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). Discriminant validity for both methods was also reviewed and was found to be similar.

As outlined in Table 4.12, the beta coefficients and p-values were found to be similar.

**Table 4.12**

**PLS-SEM vs. PROCESS Macro – Coefficients and P-Values**

	PLS-SEM			PROCESS Macro		
	Path Coefficient	<i>p</i> -value	Conclusion	Beta Coefficient	<i>p</i> -value	Conclusion
<b>Hypothesis 1</b>	0.07	0.15	Not Supported	0.07	0.42	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 2</b>	0.31	<.001	Supported	0.26	<.001	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 3</b>	0.02	0.15	Not Supported	-	-	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 4</b>	0.18	0.21	Not Supported	0.08	0.22	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 5</b>	-0.10	0.28	Not Supported	0.00	0.93	Not Supported
<b>Salary</b>	0.03	0.29	Not Supported	0.02	0.55	Not Supported
<b>Openness</b>	0.13	0.03	Supported	0.13	0.04	Supported

Both PROCESS and PLS-SEM analyze the R<sup>2</sup>. However, PROCESS focuses on covariance, while PLS-SEM focuses on total variance. As a result, the R<sup>2</sup> for PLS-SEM is

often lower than the  $R^2$  of PROCESS. As outlined in Table 4.13, the  $R^2$  values were found to be similar.

**Table 4.13**

**PLS-SEM vs. PROCESS Macro –  $R^2$  Values**

	<b>R Square</b>	
	<b>PLS-SEM</b>	<b>PROCESS Macro</b>
<b>Moral Disengagement</b>	0.06	0.03
<b>Risk-Taking Attitude</b>	0.21	0.17

The metrics analyzed from PROCESS and PLS-SEM differ, causing the results to vary. PROCESS calculates common variance and only utilizes it in the analysis (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). PLS-SEM utilizes total variance in the analysis (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). In addition, PROCESS simultaneously calculates all of the relationships between variables. PLS-SEM looks at the relationship of each construct and calculates a score based upon this information. PLS-SEM then examines the relationship between the constructs, reviews the inner model, and then returns to the outer model. From there, adjustments are made to improve the inner model (Hair et al., 2017). Ultimately, the goal of PLS-SEM is to maximize the prediction of the dependent variable (Hair, Babin, & Krey, 2017). PROCESS compares the sample correlation matrix and the expected correlation matrix and utilizes the Goodness-of-Fit indices, including the chi-square, CFI, GFI, and RMSEA, to determine if the model fit is acceptable (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). PLS-SEM does not utilize the Goodness-of-Fit indices because PLS-SEM is not dependent upon covariance.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

The key purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between burnout, moral disengagement, and risk-taking attitude, while exploring the possible reactions to burnout in the workplace and considering the impact of managerial political skill. The results of the study confirmed a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. Surprisingly, the relationship between burnout and moral disengagement was not supported. Political skill was proposed to moderate the positive relationship between burnout and moral disengagement and moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. These relationships were not supported. In addition, burnout did not have a significant indirect effect on risk-taking attitude through moral disengagement. However, although not hypothesized, the results of the study confirmed a negative relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude that is of interest.

A supplemental analysis using an alternative model also was conducted. The results of the supplemental analysis confirmed a negative relationship between managerial political skill and moral disengagement. The relationship between managerial political skill and burnout was also negative. In addition, the relationship between

managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude was negative. Moral disengagement was found to be positively related to risk-taking attitude. Further, moral disengagement did not have a mediating effect on the relationship between managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude. Burnout was found to be negatively related to risk-taking attitude. Burnout also was found to partially mediate the relationship between managerial political skill and risk-taking attitude.

### **5.1 Theoretical Implications**

The results of this study have implications for the existing literature on burnout, moral disengagement, and risk-taking attitude. First, building upon conservation of resources (COR) theory, this study identified moral disengagement as an antecedent of risk-taking attitude. It is known that moral disengagement is associated with negative outcomes, with much of the research focused on unethical behavior, unethical decision making, interpersonal deviance, and workplace harassment (Newman et al., 2019). Limited research has been conducted on the relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. Based upon this information, the impact of moral disengagement on risk-taking attitude appears to be an emerging, or possibly niche, research area.

Next, the results of the present study identified burnout as an antecedent of risk-taking attitude. However, the relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude was reported to be negative, indicating that as burnout increases, an individual's risk-taking attitude decreases. This is of interest because much of the burnout research focuses on negative outcomes. Burnout is often associated with withdrawal in the workplace, including absenteeism, turnover intention, actual turnover, lower levels of productivity,

decreased job satisfaction, and a reduction in commitment to the organization (Leiter & Maslach, 2015). However, there are many instances in which an averse risk-taking attitude could be considered a positive outcome. For example, consider a financial advisor that is responsible for managing the 401(k) plans of individuals nearing retirement. In this instance, an averse risk-taking attitude would be preferred as these individuals are often focused on preserving capital rather than maximizing gains. Further, consider the lenders that were employed by any of the subprime mortgage companies that existed during the Financial Crisis of 2007-2008. An averse risk-taking attitude would certainly have been preferred at this time as the majority of subprime loans were granted to borrowers with poor credit or a previous bankruptcy or foreclosure. Ultimately, the results of this study challenge the belief that burnout is often associated with negative outcomes and can actually result in positive outcomes, specifically relating to risk-taking attitudes. Limited research has been conducted on risk-taking attitude as a positive outcome. This appears to be an emerging, or possibly niche, research area.

Finally, conservation of resources (COR) theory was found to be relevant to the results of this study. COR theory suggests that employees utilize moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude when resources are both limited and abundant. When employees recognize potential threats to their existing resources, they will initiate the process needed to protect their resources (Hobfoll, 2001). In accordance with COR theory, the findings of the present study support a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. COR theory is also used to explain and understand the process of burnout within work settings (Hobfoll, 2001). Burnout is an affective reaction to prolonged exposure to stress, specifically in situations when job

demands exceed an employee's available resources (Shirom, 2003). Resource depletion is a key component of burnout (Shirom, 1989). The findings of the present study support a negative relationship between burnout and risk-taking attitude, indicating that as burnout increases, an individual's risk-taking attitude decreases. COR theory states that individuals strive to acquire and maintain resources (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). It is believed that employees that are experiencing burnout do not have the resources needed to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. As a result, and in accordance with the findings of the present study, employees that are experiencing burnout will refrain from risk-taking to conserve their already limited resources.

## **5.2 Practical Implications**

It is believed that this study highlights the impacts of moral disengagement in the workplace and will be especially beneficial to those serving in a management role. The results show a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. This finding should serve as a warning to managers. Moral disengagement is more than just a mechanism utilized by employees to rationalize their shortcuts. Individuals high in moral disengagement are more likely to display higher levels of aggression and participate in deviant behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). Risk-taking is often classified as deviant workplace behavior (O'Neill & Hastings, 2011). It is believed that when employees are experiencing moral disengagement, the manager often does not intervene, in hopes that the problem will resolve itself via turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). However, what if employees don't turnover and decide to continue working for the organization while they are experiencing moral disengagement? Moral

disengagement, if left unchecked, has the potential to impact an employee's risk-taking attitude. This can be particularly problematic when employees are working in industries that are traditionally risk averse or utilize decision-making based upon the analysis of risk, such as banking or engineering.

Managers can apply the findings of this study in various ways. First, it is recommended that managers consider the findings of this study when setting performance objectives for employees. Overly-challenging performance objectives require employees to utilize additional resources to achieve, potentially leading employees down the path of moral disengagement to rationalize their risk-taking attitude. As previously discussed, COR theory is based upon the tenet that individuals are motivated by resources, specifically to conserve their current resources and acquire new resources (Halbesleben, 2014) and situations that threaten or deplete resources are inherently stressful (Holmgreen et al., 2017). COR theory states that individuals display a variety of behaviors as a response to stress, but the behaviors serve the common goal of resource conservation or resource gain (Holmgreen et al., 2017). In accordance with the results of this study, employees with limited resources morally disengage to rationalize their risk-taking attitude.

Next, it is recommended that managers consider the findings of this study when it is known that an employee is experiencing moral disengagement. Managers should familiarize themselves with the signs of moral disengagement. As previously discussed, individuals high in moral disengagement are less likely to experience feelings of guilt or display prosocial behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). Individuals high in moral disengagement also are more likely to display higher levels of aggression and participate

in deviant behaviors (Bandura et al., 1996). An employee who is experiencing moral disengagement should not be left on their own to recognize and attend to the feelings associated with moral disengagement. If possible, managers should partner with employees to identify ways to reduce their stress.

Ultimately, the findings of this study are important because moral disengagement can be harmful to organizations. Organizations may experience monetary losses when employees engage in unethical behaviors, including risk-taking. More importantly, employees who engage in unethical behaviors can potentially damage or ruin the reputation of the organization.

### **5.3 Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research**

The present study has several desirable features. First, multi-wave data was collected in two phases, with each phase collected one month apart. Second, the present study extends previous research by confirming a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. Third, the present study effectively applies the tenets of conservation of resources (COR) theory to the hypothesized model. Finally, this research has several practical implications that can be utilized by managers.

Despite these strengths, the present research has a few limitations that offer possibilities for future research. First, for the purposes of the present study, data was collected via Prolific, an online survey company. Although participants were required to meet several criteria to be included in the study and were asked qualifying questions to determine eligibility, data collection could be further refined. Future studies could collect industry-specific data from banking or engineering as these industries are known to be

risk averse. Data could also be collected from industries commonly associated with high rates of burnout, including health care, hospitality, and retail. Next, for the purposes of the present study, the survey was conducted in two phases, with each phase collected one month apart. Future studies should collect longitudinal data to attempt to parse out causation. Next, the managerial political skill variable was collected from the perspective of the employee in the present study. Future studies should collect dyadic hierarchical data, with data collected from entry-level employees, mid-level employees, and their managers. It is believed that this would lead to a more accurate depiction of the managerial political skill variable as this variable would be collected from the employee's manager rather than the employee's perception of their manager.

Finally, the present study only examines moral disengagement and political skill as a whole. Moral disengagement is commonly grouped into three dimensions that could be examined, including cognitive reconstructing, obscuring or distorting consequences, and devaluing the target (He et al., 2019). These dimensions group the eight mechanisms of moral disengagement together by similarities. Moral disengagement also consists of eight mechanisms that could also be individually examined, including moral justification, euphemistic labeling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distorting consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame (Egels-Zandén, 2017). Utilizing any of the dimensions or any of the eight individual mechanisms may lead to a better understanding of moral disengagement. Political skill is commonly grouped into four dimensions, including social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2007). Utilizing any of the four individual dimensions may lead to a better understanding of political skill.

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

Drawing upon conservation of resources (COR) theory, the present research examined the relationships between burnout, moral disengagement, managerial political skill, and risk-taking attitude. The goal of this study was to explore the possible reactions to stress and burnout in the workplace, considering the impacts of managerial political skill. Therefore, it was proposed that employees who were high in burnout would experience moral disengagement, ultimately impacting their risk-taking attitude. The relationship between burnout and moral disengagement and moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude was proposed to be moderated by managerial political skill. The findings of this study partially supported the proposed hypotheses and confirmed a positive relationship between moral disengagement and risk-taking attitude. A deeper understanding of these relationships would be beneficial to both managers and researchers.



## REFERENCES

- Al-Tarawneh, H. A. (2012). The main factors beyond decision making. *Journal of Management Research*, 4(1), 1-23.
- Alvaro, C., Lyons, R. F., Warner, G., Hobfoll, S. E., Martens, P. J., Labonté, R., & Brown, E. R. (2010). Conservation of resources theory and research use in health systems. *Implementation science*, 5(1), 1-20.
- Abramson, A. (2022). Burnout and stress are everywhere. *Monitor on Psychology*, 53(1).
- Andrews, M. C., Kacmar, K. M., & Harris, K. J. (2009). Got political skill? The impact of justice on the importance of political skill for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(6), 1427.
- Ashton, M. C. (1998). Personality and job performance: The importance of narrow traits. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 19(3), 289-303.
- Athearn, J.L. (1962). *Risk and Insurance* (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts).
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetration of inhumanities. *Personality and social psychology review*, 3(3), 193-209.
- Bandura, A. (2002). Selective moral disengagement in the exercise of moral

- agency. *Journal of moral education*, 31(2), 101-119.
- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 71(2), 364.
- Beehr, T. A., & Newman, J. E. (1978). Job stress, employee health, and organizational effectiveness: A facet analysis, model, and literature review 1. *Personnel psychology*, 31(4), 665-699.
- Beu, D. S., & Buckley, M. R. (2004). This is war: How the politically astute achieve crimes of obedience through the use of moral disengagement. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(4), 551-568.
- Bickelhaupt, D. L., & Magee, J. (1964). *General Insurance*. Homewood, 111.: Richard D. Irwin.
- Brouer, R. L., Badaway, R. L., Gallagher, V. C., & Haber, J. A. (2015). Political skill dimensionality and impression management choice and effective use. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30(2), 217-233.
- Brouer, R. L., Wallace, A. S., & Harvey, P. (2011). When good resources go bad: The applicability of conservation of resource theory to psychologically entitled employees. In *The role of individual differences in occupational stress and well-being*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Carnegie, D. (1936). *How to win friends and influence people*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Cohen, J. E. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- Collier, J. E. (2020). *Applied Structural Equation Modeling using AMOS: Basic to Advanced Techniques*. Routledge.
- Cordes, C. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (1993). A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of management review*, 18(4), 621-656.
- Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological bulletin*, 52(4), 281.
- Crowe, R. M., & Horn, R. C. (1967). The meaning of risk. *The Journal of Risk and Insurance*, 34(3), 459-474.
- Cucinotta, D., & Vanelli, M. (2020). WHO declares COVID-19 a pandemic. *Acta Bio Medica: Atenei Parmensis*, 91(1), 157.
- Danks, N. P., & Ray, S. (2018). Predictions from partial least squares models. In *Applying partial least squares in tourism and hospitality research*. Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Demerouti, E., Mostert, K., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Burnout and work engagement: a thorough investigation of the independency of both constructs. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 15(3), 209.
- Deutsch, M. (1990). Psychological roots of moral exclusion. *Journal of Social Issues*.
- De Rodes, D. M. (1994). Risk perception and risk communication in the public decision-making process. *Journal of planning literature*, 8(3), 324-334
- Dohrenwend, B. P., & Dohrenwend, B. S. (1969). *Social status and psychological disorder: A causal inquiry* (Vol. 84). John Wiley & Sons.
- Douglas, T. (2002). *Scapegoats: transferring blame*. Routledge.
- Egels-Zandén, N. (2017). Responsibility boundaries in global value chains: Supplier

- audit prioritizations and moral disengagement among Swedish firms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 146(3), 515-528.
- Eissa, G., Lester, S. W., & Gupta, R. (2019). Interpersonal deviance and abusive supervision: The mediating role of supervisor negative emotions and the moderating role of subordinate organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-18.
- Ferris, G. R., Davidson, S. L., & Perrewe, P. L. (2005). *Political Skill at Work*. Davies-Black Publishing, CPP Inc.
- Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Brouer, R. L., & Munyon, T. P. (2012). Political skill in the organizational sciences. In G.R. Ferris & D. C. Treadway (Eds.), *Politics in organizations: Theory and research challenge* (pp. 487–528). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor and Francis Publishing.
- 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.
- 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.
- French, J. R. P., Rogers, W., & Cobb, S. (1974). Adjustment as a Person-Environment Fit: GV Coelhg Hamburg, JF Adams (eds), *Coping and Adaption: Interdisciplinary Perception*.
- Freudenberger, H. J. (1974). Staff burn-out. *Journal of social issues*, 30(1), 159-165.
- Gallo, L. C., Bogart, L. M., Vranceanu, A. M., & Matthews, K. A. (2005).

- Socioeconomic status, resources, psychological experiences, and emotional responses: a test of the reserve capacity model. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 88(2), 386.
- Greene, M.R. (1962). Risk and Insurance (Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co.).
- Greenglass, E. R., Burke, R. J., & Konarski, R. (1998). Components of Burnout, Resources, and Gender-Related Differences 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(12), 1088-1106.
- Hair, J. F., Astrachan, C. B., Moisescu, O. I., Radomir, L., Sarstedt, M., Vaithilingam, S., & Ringle, C. M. (2021). Executing and interpreting applications of PLS-SEM: Updates for family business researchers. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 12(3), 100392.
- Hair, J.F., Babin, B. and Krey, N. (2017) ‘An Assessment of structural equation modeling applications in the journal of advertising’, *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 46, No. 1, pp.163–177.
- Hair, J. F., Harrison, D., & Risher, J. J. (2018). Marketing research in the 21st century: Opportunities and challenges. *Brazilian Journal of Marketing-BJMkt, Revista Brasileira de Marketing-ReMark, Special Issue*, 17.
- Hair, J.F., Hollingsworth, C.L., Randolph, A.B. and Chong, A. (2017) ‘An updated and expanded assessment of PLS-SEM in information systems research’, *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, Vol. 117, No. 3, pp.442–458.
- Hair Jr, J. F., Howard, M. C., & Nitzl, C. (2020). Assessing measurement model quality in PLS-SEM using confirmatory composite analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 109, 101-110.

- Hair, J. F., & Sarstedt, M. (2021). Explanation plus prediction – The logical focus of project management research. *Project Management Journal*, 52(4), 319-322
- Halbesleben, J. R., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the “COR” understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of management*, 40(5), 1334-1364.
- Hardy, C.O. (1931). *Risk and Risk Bearing*, rev. ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago).
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York: Guilford Press.
- He, P., Peng, Z., Zhao, H., & Estay, C. (2019). How and when compulsory citizenship behavior leads to employee silence: a moderated mediation model based on moral disengagement and supervisor–subordinate Guanxi Views. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 155(1), 259-274.
- Hillson, D. A., & Murray-Webster, R. (2006). Understanding risk attitude. *Association for Project Management (APM) Yearbook 2006/2007*, 25-27.
- Hobfoll, S. E. 1988. *The ecology of stress*. New York: Hemisphere.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied psychology*, 50(3), 337-421.
- Hobfoll, S., Birch, K., Steijnberg, H., Lewis, J., Nkholongo, N., & Van Wyk, G. (n.d.). Conservation of Resource Theory (COR) in Stress and Trauma: An Overview of Theory, Applications, Limitations and Examples.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Dunahoo, C. A., & Monnier, J. (1995). Conservation of resources and traumatic stress. In *Traumatic stress* (pp. 29-47). Springer, Boston, MA.

- Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J. P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual review of organizational psychology and organizational behavior*, 5, 103-128.
- Hobfoll, S. E., & Schumm, J. A. (2002). Conservation of resources theory. *Emerging theories in health promotion practice and research: Strategies for improving public health*, 15, 285-312.
- Holmgreen, L., Tirone, V., Gerhart, J., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2017). Conservation of resources theory. *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice*, 443-457.
- Houston, D.B. (1964). Risk, Insurance, and Sampling. *Journal of Risk and Insurance*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4.
- Hom PW & Griffeth RW (1995) *Employee Turnover*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing.
- Houston, D. B. (1964). Risk, insurance, and sampling. *The Journal of Risk and Insurance*, 31(4), 511-538.
- Hystad, S. W., Mearns, K. J., & Eid, J. (2014). Moral disengagement as a mechanism between perceptions of organizational injustice and deviant work behaviours. *Safety Science*, 68, 138-145.
- Jackson, D. N., Hourany, L., & Vidmar, N. J. (1972). A four-dimensional interpretation of risk taking. *Journal of personality*.
- Jackson, S. E., Turner, J. A., & Brief, A. P. (1987). Correlates of burnout among public service lawyers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 8(4), 339-349.
- Jahoda, M. (1982). *Employment and unemployment: A social-psychological analysis*.

London: Cambridge University Press.

John, G. J. (2007). An exploratory study of the prevalence and nature of burnout among public primary and secondary qualified school teachers in Saint Lucia. *Trinity Western University, Canada*.

Johnson, J. F., & Buckley, M. R. (2015). Multi-level organizational moral disengagement: Directions for future investigation. *Journal of business ethics, 130*(2), 291-300.

Jones, E. E. (1990). *Interpersonal perception*. WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.

Kaplan, S., & Garrick, B. J. (1981). On the quantitative definition of risk. *Risk analysis, 1*(1), 11-27.

Koeske, G. F., & Koeske, R. D. (1989). Construct validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory: A critical review and reconceptualization. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 25*(2), 131-144.

Koolhaas, J. M., Bartolomucci, A., Buwalda, B., de Boer, S. F., Flügge, G., Korte, S. M., & Fuchs, E. (2011). Stress revisited: a critical evaluation of the stress concept. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 35*(5), 1291-1301.

Korunka, C., Tement, S., Zdrehus, C., & Borza, A. (2010). Burnout: Definition, recognition and prevention approaches. *Burnout Intervention Training for Managers and Team Leaders*.

Lee, K., Kim, E., Bhave, D. P., & Duffy, M. K. (2016). Why victims of undermining at work become perpetrators of undermining: An integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*, 915–924.



- Leiter, M. (1993). Burnout as a developmental process: Consideration of models. I: W.
- Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (2015). Job burnout. *Wiley Encyclopedia of Management*, 1-2.
- Magee, J.H. & Bickelhaupt, D.L. (1964). General Insurance, seventh ed. (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.).
- Manley, S. C., Hair, J. F., Williams, R. I., and McDowell, W. C. (2020). Essential new PLS-SEM analysis methods for your entrepreneurship analytical toolbox. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*. 17(1), 1-21.
- Marx-Fleck, S., Junker, N. M., Artinger, F., & van Dick, R. (2021). Defensive decision making: Operationalization and the relevance of psychological safety and job insecurity from a conservation of resources perspective. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*.
- Martin, S. R., Kish-Gephart, J. J., & Detert, J. R. (2014). Blind forces: Ethical infrastructures and moral disengagement in organizations. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 4(4), 295-325.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 2(2), 99-113.
- Maslach, C., & Pines, A. (1977). The burn-out syndrome in the day care setting. *Child care quarterly*, 6(2), 100-113.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 397-422.
- Maurer, R. (2020). Remote employees are working longer than before. *Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM)*.
- Mayfield, C., Perdue, G. and Wooten, K. (2008), "Investment management and

- personality type”, *Financial Services Review*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp. 219-236.
- Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Power in and around organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Moore, C., Detert, J. R., Klebe Treviño, L., Baker, V. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2012). Why employees do bad things: Moral disengagement and unethical organizational behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(1), 1-48.
- Moore, C. (2008). Moral disengagement in processes of organizational corruption. *Journal of Business ethics*, 80(1), 129-139.
- Nelissen, R. M., Breugelmans, S. M., & Zeelenberg, M. (2013). Reappraising the moral nature of emotions in decision making: The case of shame and guilt. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 7(6), 355-365.
- Newman, A., Le, H., North-Samardzic, A., & Cohen, M. (2019). Moral disengagement at work: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-36.
- O’Neill, T. A., & Hastings, S. E. (2011). Explaining workplace deviance behavior with more than just the “Big Five”. *Personality and individual differences*, 50(2), 268-273.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981). *Power in organizations*. Boston, MA: Pitman.
- Pan, Y., & Zinkhan, G. M. (2006). Exploring the impact of online privacy disclosures on consumer trust. *Journal of retailing*, 82(4), 331-338.
- Pfeffer, I. (1956). *Insurance and Economic Theory* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.).
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). *Managing with power: Politics and influence in organizations*. Harvard Business Press.

- Reith, T. P. (2018). Burnout in United States healthcare professionals: a narrative review. *Cureus, 10*(12).
- Riegel, R. & Miller, J.S. (1966). *Insurance Principles and Practices*, fifth ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.).
- Ringle, C., Da Silva, D., & Bido, D. (2015). Structural equation modeling with the SmartPLS. Bido, D., da Silva, D., & Ringle, C.(2014). Structural Equation Modeling with the Smartpls. *Brazilian Journal Of Marketing, 13*(2).
- Rosch PJ (2001) The quandary of job stress compensation. *Health and Stress 3*, 1–4.
- Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-Markers: A brief version of Goldberg’s unipolar Big-Five markers. *Journal of personality assessment, 63*(3), 506-516.
- Schaufeli, W. B. (2017). Burnout: A short socio-cultural history. In *Burnout, fatigue, exhaustion* (pp. 105-127). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- Schaufeli, W. B. & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction on a special issue on burnout and health. *Psychology & Health, 16*, 501-510.
- Schuler, R. S. (1980). Definition and conceptualization of stress in organizations. *Organizational behavior and human performance, 25*(2), 184-215.
- Schweitzer, M. E., Ordóñez, L., & Douma, B. (2004). Goal setting as a motivator of unethical behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(3), 422-432.
- Selye, H. (1956). *The stress of life*.
- Shirom, A. (1989). Burnout in work organizations. In C.L. Cooper & I. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 25-48). New York: Wiley.
- Shirom, A. (2003). Job-related burnout: A review. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.),

- Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 245-264). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Ting, H., Vaithilingam, S., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). Predictive model assessment in PLS-SEM: guidelines for using PLSpredict. *European journal of marketing*.
- Sparrowe, R. T., Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Kraimer, M. L. (2001). Social networks and the performance of individuals and groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(2), 316–325.
- Striler, J., Shoss, M., & Jex, S. (2021). The relationship between stressors of temporary work and counterproductive work behaviour. *Stress and Health*, 37(2), 329-340.
- Thompson, G., Buch, R., & Kuvaas, B. (2017). Political skill, participation in decision-making and organizational commitment. *Personnel Review*.
- Thorndike, E.L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Magazine*, 140, 227-235.
- Tillman, C., Gonzalez, K., Whitman, M. V., Crawford, W. S., & Hood, A. C. (2018). A multifunctional view of moral disengagement: Exploring the effects of learning the consequences. *Frontiers in psychology*, 8, 2286.
- Tillman, C. J., Hood, A. C., & Richard, O. C. (2017). Supervisor–subordinate relationship conflict asymmetry and subordinate turnover intentions: The mediating roles of stress and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 17(3), 2625.
- van Winsen, F., Wauters, E., Lauwers, L., De Mey, Y., Van Passel, S., & Vancauteran,

- M. (2011). Combining risk perception and risk attitude: A comprehensive individual risk behaviour model. *EAAE 2011 Congress, Location: Zürich, Switzerland* (pp. 1-12).
- Wang, W., Zhao, J., Zhang, W., & Wang, Y. (2015, September). Conceptual framework for risk propensity, risk perception, and risk behaviour of construction project managers. In *Proceedings 31st Annual ARCOM Conference, Association of Researchers in Construction Management, Lincoln, UK* (pp. 165-174).
- Williams, C.A. & Heins, R.M. (1964). *Risk Management and Insurance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company).
- Willett, A.H. (1951). *The Economic Theory of Risk and Insurance* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press).
- Wright, T. A., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2004). Commitment, psychological well-being and job performance: An examination of conservation of resources (COR) theory and job burnout. *Journal of Business & Management*, 9(4).
- Zellars, K. L., Perrewe, P. L., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2000). Burnout in health care: The role of the five factors of personality. *Journal of applied social psychology*, 30(8), 1570-1598.

# APPENDICES

## Appendix A

### IRB Approval to Conduct Research

irb@southalabama.edu



TELEPHONE: (251) 460-6308  
AD 240 · MOBILE, AL. 36688-0002

#### INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD May 25, 2022

---

Principal Investigator: Ashleigh Conner  
IRB # and Title: IRB PROTOCOL: 22-137  
[1900582-1] A Study on Perceptions of Burnout, Moral Disengagement, Risk-Taking Attitude, and Political Skill  
Status: APPROVED Review Type: Exempt Review  
Approval Date: May 25, 2022 Submission Type: New Project  
Initial Approval: May 25, 2022 Expiration Date:  
Review Category: 45 CFR 46.104 (d)(2): Research that only includes interaction involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording):

- i. Information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of human subjects cannot be readily ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects

---

*This panel, operating under the authority of the DHHS Office for Human Research and Protection, assurance number FWA 00001602, and IRB #00000286 or #00011574, has reviewed the submitted materials for the following:*

1. *Protection of the rights and the welfare of human subjects involved.*
2. *The methods used to secure and the appropriateness of informed consent.*
3. *The risk and potential benefits to the subject.*

The regulations require that the investigator not initiate any changes in the research without prior IRB approval, except where necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the human subjects, and that **all problems involving risks and adverse events be reported to the IRB immediately!**

Subsequent supporting documents that have been approved will be stamped with an IRB approval and expiration date (if applicable) on every page. Copies of the supporting documents must be utilized with the current IRB approval stamp unless consent has been waived.

**Notes:**

## Appendix B

### Codebook for Dissertation Data Collection – Summer 2022

#### SURVEY

#### TIME 1

*Items on a 1 to 4 scale with anchors of Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (4).*

<b>Burnout</b>		
BURN	BURN1	There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.
	BURN2	After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.
	BURN3R	I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.
	BURN4	During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.
	BURN5R	After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.
	BURN6	After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.
	BURN7R	Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.
	BURN8R	When I work, I usually feel energized.

*Items on a 1 to 7 scale with anchors of Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (7).*

<b>Moral Disengagement</b>		
MD	MD1	It is okay to spread rumors to defend those you care about.
	MD2	Taking something without the owner's permission is okay as long as you're just borrowing it.
	MD3	Considering the ways people grossly misrepresent themselves, it's hardly a sin to inflate your own credentials a bit.
	MD4	People shouldn't be held accountable for doing questionable things when they were just doing what an authority figure told them to do.
	MD5	People can't be blamed for doing things that are technically wrong when all their friends are doing it too.
	MD6	Taking personal credit for ideas that were not your own is no big deal.
	MD7	Some people have to be treated roughly because they lack feelings that can be hurt.
	MD8	People who get mistreated have usually done something to bring it on themselves.

*Items on a 1 to 7 scale with anchors of Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (7).*

<b>Managerial Political Skill</b>		
MPS	MPS1	My manager spends a lot of time and effort at work networking with others. (Networking Ability)
	MPS2	My manager is able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around them. (Interpersonal Influence)
	MPS3	My manager is able to communicate easily and effectively with others. (Interpersonal Influence)
	MPS4	It is easy for my manager to develop good rapport with most people. (Interpersonal Influence)
	MPS5	My manager understands people very well. (Social Astuteness)
	MPS6	My manager is good at building relationships with influential people at work. (Networking Ability)
	MPS7	My manager is particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others. (Social Astuteness)
	MPS8	When communicating with others, my manager tries to be genuine in what they say and do. (Apparent Sincerity)
	MPS9	My manager has developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work whom they can call on for support when they really need to get things done. (Networking Ability)
	MPS10	At work, my manager knows a lot of important people and is well connected. (Networking Ability)
	MPS11	My manager spends a lot of time at work developing connections with others. (Networking Ability)
	MPS12	My manager is good at getting people to like them. (Interpersonal Influence)
	MPS13	It is important to my manager that people believe that they are sincere in what they say and do. (Apparent Sincerity)
	MPS14	My manager tries to show a genuine interest in other people. (Apparent Sincerity)
	MPS15	My manager is good at using their connections and network to make things happen at work. (Networking Ability)
	MPS16	My manager has good intuition or savvy about how to present themselves to others. (Social Astuteness)



	MPS17	My manager always seems to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others. (Social Astuteness)
	MPS18	My manager pays close attention to people's facial expressions. (Social Astuteness)

*Items on a 1 to 7 scale with anchors of Extremely Inaccurate (1) to Extremely Accurate (7).*

<b>Personality</b>		
PERS	PERS1	Bashful (Extraversion)
	PERS2	Bold (Extraversion)
	PERS3	Careless (Conscientiousness)
	PERS4	Cold (Agreeableness)
	PERS5	Complex (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS6	Cooperative (Agreeableness)
	PERS7	Creative (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS8	Deep (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS9	Disorganized (Conscientiousness)
	PERS10	Efficient (Conscientiousness)
	PERS11	Energetic (Extraversion)
	PERS12	Envious (Emotional Stability)
	PERS13	Extraverted (Extraversion)
	PERS14	Fretful (Emotional Stability)
	PERS15	Harsh (Agreeableness)
	PERS16	Imaginative (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS17	Inefficient (Conscientiousness)
	PERS18	Intellectual (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS19	Jealous (Emotional Stability)
	PERS20	Kind (Agreeableness)
	PERS21	Moody (Emotional Stability)
	PERS22	Organized (Conscientiousness)
	PERS23	Philosophical (Intellect/Openness)
	PERS24	Practical (Conscientiousness)
	PERS25	Quiet (Extraversion)
	PERS26	Relaxed (Emotional Stability)

PERS27	Rude (Agreeableness)
PERS28	Shy (Extraversion)
PERS29	Sloppy (Conscientiousness)
PERS30	Sympathetic (Agreeableness)
PERS31	Systematic (Conscientiousness)
PERS32	Talkative (Extraversion)
PERS33	Temperamental (Emotional Stability)
PERS34	Touchy (Emotional Stability)
PERS35	Uncreative (Intellect/Openness)
PERS36	Unenvious (Emotional Stability)
PERS37	Unintellectual (Intellect/Openness)
PERS38	Unsympathetic (Agreeableness)
PERS39	Warm (Agreeableness)
PERS40	Withdrawn (Extraversion)

<b>Demographics</b>	
GENDER	What is your gender?
	1 Male
	2 Female
	3 Other
AGE	What is your current age in years?
	1 Under 18
	2 18 - 24
	3 25 - 34
	4 35 - 44
	5 45 - 54
	6 55 - 64
	7 65 - 74
	8 75 - 84
	9 85 or older
RACE	What is your race or ethnic group?
	1 American Indian or Alaska Native
	2 Asian
	3 Black or African American

	4 Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin
	5 Middle Eastern or North African
	6 Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
	7 White
	8 Other
EDU	What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
	1 Less than high school diploma
	2 High school diploma or equivalent degree
	3 Some college
	4 2-year college degree
	5 4-year college degree
	6 Graduate degree
	7 Doctorate
STATUS	What is your current employment status?
	1 Full time employment
	2 Part time employment
HOURS	How many hours per week do you normally work?
OrgTen	How many years and months have you been at your current job?
SupTen	How many years and months have you worked with your current supervisor?
SALARY	What is your annual salary range?
	1 \$25,000 or less
	2 \$25,001 - \$50,000
	3 \$50,001 - \$75,000
	4 \$75,001 - \$100,000
	5 \$100,001 - \$125,000
	6 \$125,001 - \$150,000
	7 More than \$150,000

## TIME 2

*Items on a 1 to 5 scale with anchors of Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5).*

<b>Risk-Taking Attitude</b>		
T2_RISK_AV	T2_RISK_AV1	To gain high profits in business, one has to take high risks.

	T2_RISK_AV2	If there is a great chance of a reward, I will take high risks.
	T2_RISK_AV3	The act of reasonable risk taking is one of the most important managerial skills.
	T2_RISK_AV4	If there was a great chance to multiply my earnings, I would invest my money even in the shares of a completely new and uncertain firm.
	T2_RISK_AV5	To achieve something in life, one has to take risks.

<b>Sources of Scales</b>			
<b>Name</b>	<b>Scale</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Source</b>
BURN	Burnout	8	Demerouti, E., Mostert, K., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Burnout and work engagement: a thorough investigation of the independency of both constructs. <i>Journal of occupational health psychology, 15</i> (3), 209.
MD	Moral Disengagement	8	Moore, C., Detert, J. R., Klebe Treviño, L., Baker, V. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2012). Why employees do bad things: Moral disengagement and unethical organizational behavior. <i>Personnel psychology, 65</i> (1), 1-48.
MPS	Managerial Political Skill	18	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. <i>Journal of management, 31</i> (1), 126-152.
T2_RISK_AV	Risk-Taking Attitude	5	Pan, Y., & Zinkhan, G. M. (2006). Exploring the impact of online privacy disclosures on consumer trust. <i>Journal of retailing, 82</i> (4), 331-338.
PERS	Personality	40	Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-Markers: A brief version of Goldberg's unipolar Big-Five markers. <i>Journal of personality assessment, 63</i> (3), 506-516.

## **BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH**

Name of Author: Ashleigh M. Vignes

Place of Birth: Gulfport, Mississippi

Graduate and Undergraduate Schools Attended:

University of South Alabama, Mobile, Alabama  
William Carey University, Biloxi, Mississippi  
University of Southern Mississippi, Long Beach, Mississippi  
Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College, Gulfport, Mississippi

Degrees Awarded:

Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration, 2022, University of South Alabama  
Master of Business Administration Degree, 2010, William Carey University  
Bachelor of Science Degree in Business Administration, 2008, University of Southern Mississippi  
Associate of Arts Degree, 2007, Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College